



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>



P.A.

Per 34

Per. 3977 d. $\frac{199}{3}$

THE
ANNUAL REVIEW,

AND
HISTORY OF LITERATURE;

FOR
1804.

ARTHUR AIKIN, EDITOR.

VOL. III.

LONDON:
PRINTED FOR LONGMAN, HURST, REES AND ORME,
PATERNOSTER-ROW.
BY T. GILLET, SALISBURY SQUARE.
1805.



PREFACE.

THE Editor, in delivering to the Public the third volume of the Annual Review, begs to avail himself of the customary indulgence of making a few prefatory observations. He trusts that the literary merit of the present is not inferior to that of the two former volumes, and that as a work of rational entertainment it may obtain that approbation which has been so liberally bestowed on his past labours.

Among the best friends of this undertaking, are to be ranked those who have favoured the Editor with their opinions on the errors which have here and there insinuated themselves into the two first volumes. Criticism is a noble art, and ought to be worthily exercised: the materials upon which it is employed, are those productions of human intellect which peculiarly distinguish highly cultivated societies; and when the powerful influence that is exercised by professional critics on the public taste is considered, no man whose mind is not callous to sentiments of equity and honour, can avoid being strongly impressed by the obligations which he thus voluntarily undertakes. We believe, in most instances where we have expressed our dissatisfaction, that the arguments and specimens which are adduced, will be found by adequate and impartial judges to justify the matter of our remarks; and if in any case the language in which they have been conveyed may be thought to have betrayed a blamable impatience of temper, we trust that the present volume, though expressing with freedom our sentiments on the books that have come under our notice, will be liable to no just objections on this head. The

late suspension of the printing business, owing to the secession of the journeymen, has frustrated the Editor's intention of publishing as early as he had intended. Since, however, notwithstanding a long interruption, the present volume is offered to the public at the same period as the last was, he still flatters himself with the hope of being able, for the future, to finish his labours by the end of March.

A. A.

April 25, 1805.

TABLE OF CONTENTS,

With the Prices of the various Works in Boards, unless otherwise expressed, and the Publishers' Names.

CHAPTER I.—*Voyages and Travels.*

	Page
1 Volney's View of the United States, 8vo. 12s. Johnson	2
2 Tuckey's Voyage to New South Wales, 8vo. 5s. Longman and Co.	12
3 Journal of Ellicot on the Ohio, &c. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Johnson	13
4 Maclean's Excursion in France, 8vo. 6s. Longman and Co.	18
5 Barrow's Travels in Southern Africa, 4to. vol. 2, 1l. 15s. Cadell and Davies	22
6 Percival's Account of the Cape of Good Hope, 4to. 1l. Basklwin	34
7 Grant's Voyage to New South Wales, 4to. 1l. 1s. Nicols	41
8 Adams's Letters on Silesia, 8vo. 8s. Budd	45
9 M'Kinnen's Tour in the British West Indies, 8vo. 5s. White	50
10 Holcroft's Travels in France, &c. 2 vols. 4to. 5l. 5s. Phillips	56
11 Barrow's Travels in China, 4to. 2l. 12s. 6d. Cadell and Davies	69
12 Kotzebue's Travels to Paris, 3 vols. 12mo. 13s. 6d. Phillips	83
13 Yorke's Letters from France, 2 vols. 8vo. 15s. Symonds	88
14 Broughton's Voyage of Discovery, 4to. 1l. 5s. Cadell and Davies	ibid

CHAPTER II.—*Theology.*

1 White's Versio Syriaca, 2 vols. 4to. Payne and Mackinlay	97
2 Fellowes's Guide to Immortality, 3 vols. 8vo. 1l. 4s. White	106
3 Dodson's Memoirs of Farmer, 8vo. 3s. Longman and Co.	105
4 Tomlinson's new Translation of the Scriptures, 8vo. 6s. Baynes	107
5 Antidote to Infidelity, 8vo. 4s. Hatchard	108
6 Arthur's Discourses, 8vo. 8s. Longman and Co.	109
7 Less on the New Testament, 8vo. 7s. Rivingtons	110
8 Durham's Norrisian Prize Essay, ditto	115
9 Blackburne's Works, 7 vols. 8vo. 2l. 12s. 6d. Mawman	ibid
10 Freylinghausen's Abstract of the Christian Religion, royal 8vo. 13s. Harding	121
11 Lloyd's Christian Theology, 8vo. 8s. Hatchard	122
12 Huntingford's (Bishop of Gloucester) Thoughts on the Trinity, 8vo. 3s. Cadell and Davies	128
13 Burgess's (Bishop of St. David's) first Principles of Christian Knowledge, 12mo. 1s. 6d. Rivington	124
14 Pott's Considerations of the Covenant, 8vo. 3s. ditto	ibid
15 Faber on the Calvinistic Controversy, 1s. 6d. Rivington	125
16 Witsius's Economy of the Covenants, 2 vols. 8vo. Baynes	ibid
17 Searle's Horæ Solitariae, 2 vols. 8vo. 16s. Longman and Co.	ibid
18 Drummond's (late Archbishop of York) Sermons, 8vo. 6s. ditto	ibid
19 Martin's Sermons, 8vo. 7s. 6d. Longman and Co.	126
20 Layard's Sermons, 8vo. 12s. Rivingtons	127
21 Warner's Practical Discourses, 8vo. vol. 2, 7s. Robinson	128
22 Bowden's Sermons, 8vo. 7s. 6d. Longman and Co.	129
23 Grose's Sermons, 8vo. vol. 2, 8s. Blacks and Parry,	131
24 Cooper's Sermons, 8vo. 5s. Cadell and Davies	ibid
25 Rogers on the Liturgy, 2 vols. 8vo. 12s. Longman and Co.	132
26 Gisborne's Sermons, vol. 2, 8vo. 8s. Cadell and Davies	133
27 Clapham's Sermons, vol. 2, 8vo. 10s. Longman and Co.	ibid

	Page
28 Vamburgh's Sermons, 8vo. 5s. Cadell and Davies	133
29 Hunter's Sermons, 2 vols. 8vo. 18s. Murray	134
30 Zollikofer's Sermons on Evils, 2 vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Longman and Co.	135
31 Daubenev's Trial of the Spirits, 8vo. 2s. Hatchard	136
32 Glasse's Fast Sermon, 1s. Rivington	ibid
33 Warner's Fast Sermon, 1s. Mawman	ibid
34 Letter to Warner, 1s. Robinson	137
35 Letter to Falconer, 8vo. 1s. ditto	ibid
36 Evans's Fast Sermon, 1s. 6d.	ibid
37 Belsham's Sermon on the Death of Dr. Priestley, 2s. Johnson	ibid
38 Disney's ditto, 1s. ditto	ibid
39 Edwards's ditto, 1s. 6d. ditto	ibid
40 Toulmin's ditto, 1s. 6d. ditto	ibid
41 Wood's ditto, 1s. ditto	138
42 Watson's (Bishop of Llandaff) Sermon before the Society for suppressing Vice, 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies	140
43 Skinner's Visitation Sermon, 1s. Rivington	ibid
44 Corrie's Sermon, 1s. Johnson	ibid
45 Kentish's Sermon on Education, 1s. ditto	141
46 ——— on the Death of Kenrick, 1s. ditto	ibid
47 Doldridge's Lectures on Preaching, 2s. 6d. Ogle	ibid
48 Toulmin's Addresses to Young Men, 12mo. 3s. Johnson	ibid
49 Grant's Manual of Religious Knowledge, 2s. Hatchard	142
50 Fashionable World displayed, 2s. 6d. ditto	ibid
51 Biddulph's Missionary Sermon, 1s. Williams	143
52 Priestley's History of the Christian Church, vol. 3 to 6, 1l. 12s. Johnson	144
53 Narrative of Events among the Irish Quakers, 8vo. 5s. 6d. Johnson	148
54 Narrative of Proceedings against H. Barnard, &c. 8vo. 4s. ditto	ibid
55 Observations concerning David Sands	ibid
56 Address to the Society of Friends, 1s. 6d. Rickman	150
57 Letter to Bevan concerning the Quakers, Glendining	ibid
58 Daubency's Guide to the Church, 8vo. 2 vols. 17s. Rivingtons	154
59 Observations on Clerical Non-residence, 2s. 6d. Robinson	ibid
60 Letter on Tythes, 8vo.	ibid
61 Innes's Reasons for separating from the Church of Scotland, 12mo.	155

CHAPTER III.—*History and Politics.*

1 Account of the Fall of the Venetian Republic, 8vo. 5s. Hatchard	157
2 Card's Outlines of the Papal Power, 8vo. 3s. 6d. Longman and Co.	164
3 Maurice's Modern History of Hindostan, 4to. vol. 2, pt. 1, 1l. 1s. White	171
4 Laurie's History of Free-masonry, 8vo. 7s. 6d. Longman and Co.	173
5 Laing's History of Scotland, 4 vols. 8vo. 1l. 12s. ditto	178
6 Official Notes relative to the Mahratta War, 4to. 15s. Stockdale	184
7 Brief Remarks on the Mahratta War, 1s. Symonds	188
8 Johnes's Translation of Froissart, vol. 1, 4to. 4l. 4s. White	189
9 Heriot's History of Canada, 8vo. 12s. Longman and Co.	194
10 Mayo's Universal History, 4 vols. 4to. 5l. 5s. ditto	197
11 Sir W. Young's History of Athens, 8vo. 10s. Nonnaville and Fell	207
12 Highmore's History of the Artillery Company, 8vo. 12s. 6d. White	211
13 Card's Revolutions of Russia, 2d edition, 8vo. 12s. Longman and Co.	ibid
14 Moleville's Refutation of Miss Williams, Cadell and Davies	ibid
15 Boisselin's History of Malta, 2 vols. 4to. 3l. 13s. 6d. Phillips	212
16 Wilkinson's History of Malta, 12mo. 6s. Miller	223
17 Address from the Society for suppressing Vice, part 1, 2s. Hatchard	225
18 Hatfield's Outlines of Patriotism, Hatchard	231
19 Hanger's Reflections on Invasion, 2s. 6d. Debrett	ibid
20 Thoughts on the National Defence, 2s. 6d. Egerton	232
21 Honour or Infamy, by Publicola	234
22 Dickson's Hints to the People of the United Kingdom, 2s. Longman and Co.	ibid
23 Frend on Patriotism, 8vo. 7s. Mawman	235
24 Coad's Interest of the United Kingdom, 4to. 1s.	241
25 Desultory Observations on the Property Act, 1s. 6d. Longman and Co.	ibid
26 Frend's Principles of Taxation, Mawman, 2s.	244
27 Egeria, 8vo. 8s. Cadell and Davies	245
28 Lord Lauderdale on the Origin of Wealth, 8vo. 8s. 6d. Longman and Co.	250

CONTENTS.

	if	Page
29 Bonaparte, and the French People under his Consulate, 8vo. 7s. Tipper and Richards	—	254
30 Aperçu de la Nation Française, 8vo. Egerton	—	257
31 Official Defence of Moreau, 8vo. 3s. 6d. Longman and Co.	—	258
32 Greville on the Political Relations between France and Russia, 8vo. Budd	—	260
33 Lord Sheffield on the Colonial System of Great Britain, 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett	—	262
34 Cock's Answer to Lord Sheffield, 8vo. Richardson	—	265
35 Jordan's Claims of the West India Colonists, 3s. Cadell and Davies	—	266
36 The Opportunity, or Alliance with St. Domingo	—	ibid
37 Plowden's Postliminious Preface, 4to. 3s. Carpenter	—	268
38 Strictures on Plowden's State of Ireland, 8vo. 7s. 6d. Rivingtons	—	ibid
39 Correspondence between Lord Redesdale and Earl Fingal, 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ginger	—	269
40 Inquiry into the Causes of popular Discontents in Ireland, 2s. Johnson	—	270
41 Bell on the Peasantry of Ireland, 8vo. 2s. 6d. Vernor and Hood	—	271
42 Tighe on the State of Ireland, 2s. Hatchard	—	273
43 Thoughts on the present State of Ireland, 2s. Ginger	—	274
44 Account of Louisiana, 1s. 6d. Hatchard	—	ibid
45 Origines Gauloises, 8vo.	—	275
46 O'Halloran's History of Ireland, 3 vols. 8vo. Keating	—	278
47 Caulfield on the Gun-powder Plot, 12mo. 5s. Vernor and Hood	—	281
48 Miles's Letter to the Earl of Wycombe, 8vo. 3s. Faulder	—	284
49 Lord Petre on the Emancipation of Catholics, 1s. 6d. Booker	—	285
50 Mason on the State of the Irish Catholics, 1s. 6d. Longman and Co.	—	286
51 Smith on the Toleration Act, Button and Son	—	287
52 Wyvill on the two-fold Election of the French, 1s. 6d. Johnson	—	288
53 Magens on Paper Money, Asperne	—	292
54 Parnel on Irish Currency, 12mo. 4s. Budd	—	298
55 Forster on Commercial Exchanges, 8vo. 5s. Hatchard	—	294
56 Boase's Letter to Lord King, 8vo. Nicols	—	297
57 Two Letters on the Manufactures of Scotland, 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman & Co.	—	298
58 L. Hamilton on present and late Administrat. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co.	—	299
59 Letter to Lord Hamilton, 1s. 6d. Longman and Co.	—	301
60 Reply to Ditto, 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ginger	—	302
61 Short Appeal to the good Sense of the People, 8vo.	—	303
62 Hankin's Letter to Sir Francis Burdett, 2s. Rivington	—	ibid
63 Martin on Mendicity in the Metropolis, 8vo. 1s. 4d.	—	304
64 Poole's Narrative, 8vo.	—	306
70 Gardiner's Reply to Ditto	—	ibid
71 Cursory Observations on the Corn-bill, 8vo. Stockdale	—	ibid
72 Frazer on the Fisheries, 3s. Nicol	—	310
73 Sir R. Wilson on the British Army, 8vo. 2s. 6d. Egerton	—	312
74 Letter to Sir R. Wilson, Cadell and Davies.	—	315
75 Remarks on Ditto, Chapple	—	317
76 Justice and Policy of War with Spain, 2s. 6d. Hatchard	—	ibid
77 Restitution of the Spanish Plate-ships, 1s. 6d. Ginger	—	319
78 Jackson on Commerce of the Mediterranean, 8vo. 6s. Clarke and Sons	—	319
79 Concise Statement of the Question on the Slave Trade, 8s. Longman and Co.	—	320
80 Montefiore's Trader's Compendium, 2 vols. 8vo. 18s. Crosby	—	322
81 Reports of the Society for bettering the Condition of the Poor, 8vo. vol. 4. 6s. Hatchard	—	323

CHAPTER IV.—*Ancient Classics, Mythology, &c.*

1 Northmore's Tryphiodorus, 8vo. Payne	—	326
2 Elmsley's Thucydides, 6 vols. 2l. 2s. Longman and Co.	—	331
3 Cicerone Officiis (Oxford) 8vo. 4s. 6d. Mawman	—	332
4 Xenophon's Memorabilia, 8vo. 8s. Mawman	—	ibid
5 Marsh's Translation of Juvenal, 8vo. 7s. Westley	—	334
6 Bridgeman and Taylor's Translation from the Greek, 8vo. White	—	336
7 Taylor's Plato, 5 vols. 4to. 10l. 10s. Evans	—	337
8 Hill's Synonymes of the Latin Language, 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Longman and Co.	—	347
9 Delectus Græcarum Sententiarum, 8vo. 4s. 6d. Longman and Co.	—	353
10 Whittaker's Latin Grammar, 12mo. 2s. 6d. Law	—	ibid
11 Hill's Vocabulary, 12mo. 2s. Longman and Co.	—	ibid
12 Gell's Topography of Troy, with forty-four elegant engravings, folio, 10l. 10s. Longman and Co.	—	ibid

CHAP. V.—*British Topography and Antiquities.*

	Page
1 Manning's History of Surrey, folio, 4l. 4s. White	368
2 Rudge's History of Gloucestershire, 2 vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Longman and Co.	368
3 Walk through Leicester, 12mo. 3s. 6d. Longman and Co.	373
4 Modern London, 4to. 3l. 3s. Phillips	375
5 Hutton's Tour to Scarborough, 8vo. 6s. Nicholls and Son	381
6 Pennant's Tour to Harrowgate, 4to. Scott	ibid
7 Cambridge Guide, 4s. 6d. Longman and Co.	382
8 Tour in Teesdale, 8vo. 2s. Symonds	384
9 Bingley's North Wales, 2 vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Longman and Co.	ibid
10 Malkin's Tour in South Wales, 4to. 2l. 12s. 6d. Longman and Co.	390
11 Ledwiche's Antiquities of Ireland, 4to. 2l. 2s. Longman and Co.	398
12 History of the Inns of Court, royal 8vo. 1l. 5s. Vernor and Hood	414
13 Evans's Picture of Worthing, Arch	416
14 Observations on a Tour to the Highlands, Sael	ibid
15 Colonel Thornton's Sporting Tour, 4to. 1l. 15s. Vernor and Hood	ibid
16 History of Cheltenham	423
17 Pictorial Excursion in Devon and Cornwall, royal 8vo. 1l. 8s. Harding	426
18 Remarks on Ely Cathedral, 8vo.	437
19 Archæologia, 4to. vol. 14. 1l. 11s. 6d. Nicholls and Son	ibid
20 Scotia Depicta, folio, 6l. 6s. Miller	437
21 Beauties of England and Wales, 8vo. vol. 5. 1l. 5s. Longman and Co.	438
22 Wakefield's Family Tour, 12mo. 6s. Darton and Harvey	440
23 Lyson's Antiquities of Gloucestershire, folio, 6l. 6s. Cadell and Davies	441
24 Munimenta Antiqua, folio, vol. 3, 3l. 13s. 6d. Nicholls and Son	442
25 Evans's South Wales, 8vo. 8s. White	ibid
26 Ogilvy's Itinerary, 8vo. 7s. 6d. Ogilvy and Son	447
27 Paterson's Roads by Keith, 12mo. 6s. Longman and Co.	ibid
28 Smith's English Atlas, folio, 7l. 7s. Smith	448
29 England Delineated, 2 vols. 8vo. 1l. 10s. Lackington	ibid
30 Select Views of London and its Environs, 4to. vol. 1, 3l. 3s. Vernor and Hood	449

CHAPTER VI.—*Education and School-Books.*

1 Thoughts on the Education of those who imitate the Great, 12mo. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies	452
2 Holland's Essays on History, 12mo. 5s. Longman and Co.	ibid
3 Travels of Rolando, 4 vols. 18mo. 12s. Phillips	455
4 History of Domestic Quadrupeds, 2s. 6d. Phillips	458
5 Taylor's Character of the Dog, 12mo. 2s. 6d. Darton and Harvey	459
6 Plumptre's Stories for Children, 2s. Mawman	ibid
7 Wreath for the Brow of Youth, 8vo. 6s. and fine, 10s. 6d. Harris	ibid
8 Summary of Ancient History, 12mo. 4s. Mawman	460
9 Letters of Advice from a Father to his Daughter, 12mo. 3s. 6d. Rivington	ibid
10 Visit to a Farm-house, 18mo. 2s. Phillips	ibid
11 Tabart's Popular Stories, 3 vols. 18mo. 7s. 6d. Tabart	ibid
12 Book of Trades, 2 vols. 18mo. 6s. Tabart	ibid
13 Molineux's Short Hand, 8vo. 10s. 6d. Longman and Co.	ibid
14 The Telescope, 1s. 6d. Law	ibid
15 The Youth's Treasure, Darton and Harvey	461
16 Edgeworth's Popular Tales, 3 vols. 12mo. 12s. Johnson	ibid
17 Conversations and Poetry, by Charlt. Smith, 2 vols. 12mo. 7s. Johnson	463

CHAPTER VII.—*Modern Languages.*

1 Render's Analysis of the German Language, 8vo. 12s. Symonds	467
2 Giles on English Parsing, 12mo. 2s. Crosby	ibid
3 Murray's Spelling Book, 18mo. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co.	469
4 ——— First Book, for Children, 18mo. 6d. Longman and Co.	ibid

CHAPTER VIII.—*Biography.*

	Page
1 Hayley's Life of Cowper, vol. 3, 4to. 1l. 1s. Johnson	471
2 Letters of Gessner, small 8vo. 4s. Vernor and Hood	475
3 Cockburne's Account of Lord Camelford, 8vo. 6d. Hatchard	477
4 Answer to Cockburne, 1s. Ginger	ibid
5 Life of James the VI. 8vo. 10s. Longman and Co.	ibid
6 Life of Macklin, 8vo. 8s. Asperne	479
7 Bowyer's Life of Beattie, 8vo, 5s. Baldwin	ibid
8 Life of Sir William Jones, by Lord Teignmouth, 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Hatchard	480
9 Correspondence of Rousseau, 2 vols. 8vo. 12s. Johnson	485
10 Seward's Life of Darwin, 8vo. 7s. 6d. Johnson	488
11 Irving's Lives of the Scottish Poets, 2 vols. 8vo. 18s. Vernor and Hood	499
12 Richardson's Correspondence, 6 vols. 12mo. 2l. 5s. Phillips	500
13 Corry's Life of Priestley, 12mo. 4s. Longman and Co.	510
14 Lord Chatham's Letters, 12mo. 3s. Payne	514
15 Life of G. Wakefield, 2 vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Johnson	517
16 Lackington's Confessions, 12mo. 2s. 6d. Conder	526
17 Life of Lamoignon Malesherbes, 12mo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co.	ibid
18 Wilkes's Letters to his Daughter, 4 vols. 12mo. 1l. 1s. Longman and Co.	529
19 ——— Life and Correspondence, 5 vols. 12mo. 1l. 15s. Phillips	ibid

CHAPTER IX.—*Romances and Novels.*

1 Miss Hamilton's Life of Agrippina, 3 vols. 8vo. 18s. Longman and Co.	542
2 Mrs. Hunter's unexpected Legacy, 2 vols. 12mo. 9s. Longman and Co.	544
3 Lantier's Travellers in Switzerland, 6 vols. 12mo. 1l. 4s. Badcock	ibid
4 Heliodora, 3 vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Dutton	548
5 Madame Genlis's Duchess of Valliere, 2 vols. 12mo. 8s. Murray	549
6 Dallas's Aubrey, 4 vols. 12mo. 18s. Longman and Co.	551
7 Miss Edgeworth's Modern Griselda, 12mo. 4s. Johnson	553

CHAPTER X.—*Poetry.*

1 Scott's Sir Tristrem, a poem, royal 8vo. 2l. 2s. Longman and Co.	555
2 Col. Mercer's Poems, 12mo. 3s. 6d. Faulder	563
3 Captain Elton's Poems, 12mo. 5s. Longman and Co.	564
4 Dr. Brown's Poems, 2 vols. 12mo. 10s. Longman and Co.	566
5 Day's Shepherd's Boy, 12mo. 3s. Jones	567
6 Warren's Poet's Day, 12mo. 4s. Hatchard	568
7 Cupid turned Volunteer, 4to. 1l. 1s. Gardiner	ibid
8 Button's Lewes Library-Society, 4to. 2s. 6d. Button and Son	570
9 Fessenden's Poems, 12mo. 7s. 6d. Longman and Co.	571
10 Lyn's Powers of Genius, 12mo. 5s. Longman and Co.	ibid
11 Rickman's Ode on St. Domingo, 6d. Rickman	572
12 Poetical Register, vol. 3, 9s. Rivingtons'	ibid
13 Bloomfield's Good Tidings, 4to. 2s. 6d. Vernor and Hood	574
14 Spencer's Year of Sorrow, 4to. 5s. Cadell and Davies	ibid
15 British Purity, a Tale, 4to. 3s. Button and Son	575
16 Huddesford's Wiccamical Chaplet, 8vo. 6s. Leigh	ibid
17 Falconer's Shipwreck (new edition) by Clarke, 8vo. 1l. 1s. Miller	577
18 Churchill's Poems (new edition) 2 vols. 8vo. 18s. Baldwins	580
19 Amphlett's Invasion, 3s. Longman and Co.	585
20 Richards's Poems, 2 vols. 10s. Cadell and Davies	ibid
21 Jefferson's Horæ Poeticæ, 12mo.	586
22 Campbell's Grampians Desolate, 8vo. 10s. 6d. Vernor and Hood	587
23 Reign of Fancy, 12mo. 5s. Vernor and Hood	591
24 Hacket's Poems, 12mo. 6s. Carpenter	ibid
25 Crowe's Lewesdon Hill (new edition) 12mo. 4s. Cadell and Davies	593
26 Howard's Bickleigh Vale, 12mo. 6s. Longman and Co.	594
27 Wallace, by T. Finlay, Vernor and Hood	ibid
28 Woodhouse's Poems, 12mo. 5s. Symonds	596
29 Bachelor's Village Scenes, 12mo. 4s. Vernor and Hood	ibid

	Page
80 Ode to Dr. Percy, 4to. 7s. 6d. Longman and Co.	— 597
81 Balfour's Imitations of Yfarte, 12mo. 7s. 6d. Richardsdn	— ibid
82 Llwyd's Poems, 12mo. 5s. Longman and Co.	— 598
83 Hayley's Triumph of Music, 4to. 10s. 6d. Longman and Co.	— ibid
84 Scott's Lay of the Last Minstrel, 4to. 1l. 5s. Longman and Co.	— 600

CHAPTER XI.—*Dramatic.*

1 Malkin's <i>Almahide</i> and <i>Hamet</i> , 8vo. 6s. 6d. Longman and Co.	— 605
2 Carr's <i>Sea-side Hero</i> , 2s. 6d. Johnson	— ibid
3 Arnold's <i>Foul Deeds will Rise</i> , 2s. 6d. Barker	— ibid
4 Wild's <i>Twenty-ones</i> , 18mo. Barker	— ibid
5 Franklin's <i>Counterfeit</i> , 2s. Robinson	— ibid
6 Cherry's <i>Soldier's Daughter</i> , 2s. 6d. Phillips	— 606
7 Thompson's <i>Recall of Momus</i> , 4to. 4s. 6d. Robinson	— ibid
8 Diamond's <i>Hunter of the Alps</i> , 1s. 6d. Barker	— 607
9 Hoare's <i>Paragraph</i> , 1s. 6d. Phillips	— ibid
10 Dibdin's <i>Guilty or not Guilty</i> , 2s. 6d. Barker	— ibid
11 Cumberland's <i>Sailor's Daughter</i> , 2s. 6d. Lackington and Co.	— ibid
12 Miss Baillie's <i>Miscellaneous Plays</i> , 8vo. 9s. Longman and Co.	— ibid

CHAPTER XII.—*Miscellanies.*

1 Witherby on the Jews, 8vo. 10s. 6d. Hatchard	— 618
2 Missionary Transactions, 8vo. No. 1 to 12, 1s. each, Button and Son	— 621
3 Davies's <i>Celtic Researches</i> , 12s. 6d. Booth	— 634
4 No Slaves, no Sugar, 2s. 6d. Richardson	— 644
5 Montague's <i>Selections</i> , 12mo. 7s. 6d. Mawman	— 649
6 Scott's <i>Dissertations</i> , 8vo. 7s. 6d. Johnson	— 652
7 Tennant's <i>Indian Recreations</i> , 2 vols. 8vo. 18s. Longman and Co.	— 658
8 Gardiner's <i>Essays</i> , 2 vols. 8vo. 16s. Longman and Co.	— 670
9 Drake's <i>Literary Hours</i> , 3 vols. 27s. Cadell and Davies	— 674
10 Repton's <i>Odd Whims and Miscellanies</i> , 2 vols. 8vo. 18s. Miller	— 679
11 Lee Lewes's <i>Comic Sketches</i> , 12mo. 4s. Symonds	— 680
12 <i>World of Wit</i> , 3s. Longman and Co.	— ibid
13 Project's <i>Tour</i> , 12mo. 3s. 6d. Verner and Hood	— ibid
14 Greathead on the <i>Life-Boat</i> , 2s. Asperne	— 681

CHAPTER XIII.—*Military Tactics.*

1 Cunningham's <i>Discipline of the Brigade</i> , 4to. 18s. Egerton	— 682
2 Aldington on <i>Light Artillery</i> , 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co.	— 683
3 M'Donald's <i>Experienced Officer</i> , 5s. Egerton	— 684
4 Jackson on the <i>Discipline</i> , 4to. 1l. 1s. Egerton	— 686
5 <i>Military Mentor</i> , 2 vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Phillips	— 690
6 ——— <i>Memoirs</i> , 8vo. 10s. 6d. Johnson	— 691
7 Wedderburne on <i>Riflemen</i> , 4s. Egerton	— 692
8 On the <i>Exercise of Great Guns</i> , 1s. Egerton	— ibid

CHAPTER XIV.—*Rural Economy and Gardening.*

1 Young's <i>View of the Agriculture of Hertfordshire</i> , 8vo. 7s. 6d. Nicol	— 693
2 Plymley's <i>Agriculture of Shropshire</i> , 8vo. 7s. 6d. Nicol	— 697
3 Hunter's <i>Georgical Essays</i> , Vol. 5, 6, 8vo. 21s. Mawman	— 703
4 Marshall on <i>Landed Property</i> , 4to. 2l. 2s. Longman and Co.	— ibid
5 Dickson's <i>System of Agriculture</i> , 2 vols. 4to. 4l. 4s. Phillips	— 707
6 Thornhill's <i>Shooting Directory</i> , 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Longman and Co.	— 719

CHAPTER XV.—*Natural History.*

	Page
1 Shaw's Zoology, vol. 5, 8vo. 2l. 12s. 6d. Kearsley	720
2 Bewick's British Birds, vol. 2, 12s. 15s. 18s. and 1l. 4s. Longman and Co.	729
3 Haworth's Lepidoptera Britannica, 8vo. 15s.	737
4 Donovan's British Shells, 5 vols. royal 8vo. 7l. 12s. Rivington	743
5 Barton's Elements of Botany, royal 8vo. 15s. Johnson	747
6 Haworth's Miscellanea Naturalia	753
7 Smith's Flora Britannica, 8vo. vol. 3, 10s. 6d. White	755
8 Turner's Muscologiz Hiberniz, 8vo. 18s. White	759
9 Knapp's Gramina Britannica, 4to. 8l. 8s. White	761
10 Transactions of the Linnæan Society, 4to. vol. 7, 1l. 11s. 6d. White	767

CHAPTER XVI.—*Medicine and Surgery.*

1 Goldson's Cases of Small-pox, 8vo. 3s. Longman and Co.	776
2 Ring's Answer to Ditto, 1s. 6d. Johnson	777
3 Dunning on Vaccination, 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray	779
4 Pearson on Inoculation, 2s. Cuthell	780
5 Rowley on Madness, 2s. 6d. Harris	781
6 Herdman on Management of Infants, 2s. 6d. Longman and Co.	784
7 Heberden de Morbis Puerilibus, 2s. 6d. Payne	785
8 Kinglake on the Gout, 8vo. 7s. 6d. Murray	787
9 Edlin on Gout, 1s. Harris	793
10 Wilson on Fever, vol. 4, 8vo. 9s. Murray	794
11 Pearson on Contagion, 1s. 6d. Baldwin	797
12 Assalini on the Plague, 12mo. 4s. Mawman	798
13 Macgregor's Medical Sketches, 8vo. 7s. Murray	804
14 Trotter on Drunkenness, 8vo. 5s. Longman and Co.	809
15 Alley, on a peculiar Eruptive Disease, 8vo. 4s. Cadell and Davies	814
16 Moriarty on Mercurial Lepra, 2s. 6d. Murray	ibid
17 Currie on Fever, 2 vols. 8vo. 14s. Cadell and Davies	815
18 Brown's Works, 3 vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Johnson	822
19 Bostock on Respiration, 8vo. 6s. Longman and Co.	827
20 Spallanzani on Respiration, 8vo. 7s. Robinson	830
21 The Invalid, 12mo. 4s. 6d. Phillips	838
22 Chamberlaine on the Medicine Act, 2s. Highley	839
23 Abernethy's Surgical Observations, 8vo. 6s. Longman and Co.	ibid
24 Cooper on Hernia, folio, 2l. 2s. Longman and Co.	843
25 Bell's Anatomy, vol. 4, 15s. Longman and Co.	846
26 Whately on Stricture, 8vo. 5s. Johnson	848
27 Ware on the Cataract, 8vo. 8s. 6d. Mawman	850
28 Bush on Cancer, 2s. 6d. Robinson	ibid
29 The London Dissector, 12mo. 5s. Murray	ibid
30 Smith on Metallic Boggies, 2s. 6d. Smith	ibid
31 New Edinburgh Dispensatory, 8vo. 10s. 6d. Longman and Co.	851
32 Murray's Materia Medica, 2 vols 8vo. 14s. ditto	ibid
33 Swediaur's Pharmacop. Universalis, 2 tom. 6s. Callow	852
34 Harrison on the Rot in Sheep, 1s. Bickerstaff	ibid

CHAPTER XVIII.—*General Science.*

1 Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society for 1804, Nicol	871
2 Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy, vol. 9, 4to. 1l. 6s. 6d. Payne and Co.	878
3 Rees's Cyclopædia, part 1 to 8, 4to. 18s. each, Longman and Co.	884

CHAPTER XVII.—*Mathematics and Natural Philosophy.*

1 Mackay's Compleat Navigator, 8vo. 10s. 6d. bound, Longman and Co.	854
2 Connoissance des Temps, 8vo. Dulau and Co.	855
3 Mackay's Mathematical Tables, 8vo. 8s. bound, Longman and Co.	857

	Page.
4 Cumming on Wheel Carriages, 4to. 3s. Nicol	857
5 Robison's Mechanical Philosophy, 8vo. vol. 1, 1l. 1s. Longman and Co.	859
6 Gray's Experienced Millwright, folio, 1l. 15s. Longman and Co.	862
7 Cumming on Gravitation, 4to. 5s. Nicol	ibid
8 Playfair's Geometry, 8vo. 7s. Longman and Co.	865
9 Illustration of Newton, 2s. 6d. Lunn	866
10 Scriptores Logarithmici, 4to. White	867
11 Frend's Evening Amusements, 1804, 2s. 6d. Mawman	869
12 Webster's Natural Philosophy, 8vo. 6s. Johnson	ibid

CHAPTER XIX.—*Experimental Philosophy.*

1 Klaproth's Analyt. Essays, vol. 2, 8vo. 6s. Cadell and Davies	888
2 Wilkinson's Galvanism, 2 vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Murray	890
3 Howard on Modifications of Clouds, 4s. Arch	897
4 Harrington on the French Chemistry, 8vo. 7s. Longman and Co.	ibid
5 Tingry's Varnisher's Guide, 8vo. 12s. Kearsley	901
6 Berthollet on Chemical Affinity, 8vo. 7s. Murray	902
7 Berthollet's Chemical Statics, 8vo. 2 vols, 16s. Mawman	903

CHAPTER XX.—*Mineralogy.*

1 Lithological Observations on a Tour to the Lakes, 3s. Ostell	904
2 Parkinson on Organic Remains, 4to. vol. 1, 2l. 2s. Symonds	ibid

CHAPTER XXI.—*Architecture and the Fine Arts.*

1 Alexander's Costume of China, coloured, 6l. 6s. Miller	907
2 Loudon on Landscape Gardening, 8vo. 10s. 6d. Longman and Co.	909
3 Gilpin on Landscape Painting, 4s. Cadell and Davies	912
4 Bartell on Picturesque Improvement, 8vo. 10s. 6d. Taylor	ibid
5 Gartside on Light and Shade, 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Gardner	917
6 Builder's New Price-Book, 3s. Crosby	ibid
7 Alston on Landscape Painting, 8vo. 10s. 6d. Longman and Co.	918
8 Duppa's Heads, from Raphael, folio, 4l. 4s. Longman and Co.	ibid

CHAPTER XXII.—*Bibliography.*

1 Dibdin's Introduction to Rare Editions of Greek and Latin Classics, 8vo. 12s. Dwyer	924
2 Bibliographical Dictionary, vol. 6, 6s. Baynes	926

THE
ANNUAL REVIEW;
AND
HISTORY OF LITERATURE.

CHAPTER I.

VOYAGES AND TRAVELS.

THE articles composing the present chapter, though considerably fewer in number than those of the same class in our last volume, will, we believe, be found to be by no means below the general average, either in amusement or information. The continuance of hostilities between Britain and France has excluded our countrymen from the territories of the French empire and its satellite republics, and the forcible infraction of the usual rights of nations has rendered it expedient for Englishmen to avoid those countries which are unable to vindicate their own independence. Only three of our countrymen during the last year have published the result of their personal observations on the European continent; and if the works of Mr. Yorke and Dr. Maclean are of inferior importance, Mr. Holcroft's splendid publication amply makes up for the deficiency. In combining entertainment with instruction, in the happy selection of characteristic traits, in the harmony of his general conclusions with the patriotic feelings of his untravellered readers, Mr. Holcroft is singularly meritorious; we wish that he had been equally attentive to the compression and arrangement of his materials, and the execution of his larger plates. The translation of Kotzebue's Journey to Paris, and his remarks on the state of manners in that metropolis, may amuse an idle hour, and we suppose hardly aspires to higher praise. Mr. Adams, the ambassador from the United States to the Prussian court, has published an account of a tour through Silesia replete with good sense, and in this age of affectation honourably distinguished by its simplicity of style. The continent of Africa has received no new illustration except of its southern extremity, the settlement of the Cape of Good Hope. The second volume of Mr. Barrow's History, besides giving a full insight into the manners of the colonists, and rescuing the native tribes from the charge of extreme barbarism and idleness.

which has been so often urged against them, is of peculiar value for the commercial, statistical, and political details, which, from the official situation of that gentleman, may, no doubt, be relied on. Captain Percival, whose valuable account of Ceylon we noticed in our second volume, has also contributed some new and interesting particulars of this celebrated settlement.

The travellers in Asia are only two, captain Woodard, who was shipwrecked on the island Celebes, and Mr. Barrow, who, before his establishment at the Cape of Good Hope, accompanied lord Macartney in his embassy to China. Mr. Barrow takes scarcely any notice of the affairs of the embassy, as they have been already detailed, by sir George Staunton, but confines himself to the relation of what he saw and heard, and received from adequate authority, concerning the manners, literature and state of society in this extraordinary nation; the whole composing a volume which cannot fail of increasing the already high reputation of the author.

The West Indies, though settled by the most enterprising and literary nations of Europe, have been but little visited for pleasure or curiosity, on account of the unhealthiness of the climate and the atrocious horrors of domestic slavery; the public is therefore obliged to Mr. Mackinnen for the interesting particulars contained in his little tour through the Windward Islands. The observations of the celebrated Volney on the moral and physical circumstances which characterize the United States of America have appeared in an English dress, and will supply many important desiderata concerning the present state of this rising country.

The voyage of lieutenant Grant to New South Wales, must be particularly valuable to navigators, as demonstrating the advantage and security of vessels constructed with sliding keels: and the circumnavigation of captain Broughton has enriched geography with an accurate survey of the gulf of Tartary and the true situation of some important points on the coast of Japan.

ART. I. *View of the Climate and Soil of the United States of America: translated from the French of C. F. VOLNEY. 8vo. pp. 503.*

IT has been said, not without some degree of truth, that no two men read precisely the same things in the same book: but the observation may be applied with more exactness, and in a much greater extent, to travellers in foreign countries. Almost every one has a favourite pursuit, which nearly engrosses his attention. To Yorick's humorous list of different kinds of travellers, founded on their general disposition of mind and their several motives for leaving their own fireside, a very large serious one might be added, specifying the peculiar direction of their studies. The zoologist, the botanist, the lithologist, the geographer, the politician, the moralist, the lover of picturesque beauty, and many others, whom it would not be so easy to class, may pass along the same road, and scarcely ever see the

same objects. Nor can any department of science be exhausted by the inquiries of a single individual. What has escaped the notice of one will be seized by another, and much will, after all, be left to stimulate the diligence of future observers.

It is therefore no objection to a new book of travels, that the country has already been often explored. In the most beaten track of what has long been called the grand tour of Europe, a valuable gleanings is still to be found, which will richly repay the labour of a patient research. But in America the sickle has only just been put into the standing corn; and we trust we may add, without an irreverent and unbecoming application of scripture language, that though the harvest truly is great, the reapers are as yet but few.

Mr. Volney landed on the western continent with peculiar advantages. Endowed by nature with a vigorous and comprehensive mind, an ardent spirit of inquiry, a resolution undismayed by difficulties, and a bodily constitution able to sustain great fatigue, from an early period of his life he had studied the manners of men in various cities and remote climates. As far as was practicable, he had become familiar with the haughty Turk, and had been freely domesticated with the hospitable Arab. He had returned to France to engage with ardour in that pursuit of political liberty which has been so nefariously abused; and, in common with many others who meant, but did not judge well, has endured much from the iron hand of oppression. But we will let him speak for himself.

"The work I here submit to the public is the fruit of three years travels and residence in the United States, in a frame of mind very dissimilar from that with which I visited the Ottoman dominions, and when the face of affairs was extremely different.

"In 1783 I set sail from Marseilles on a pursuit agreeable to my inclinations; and with that alacrity, that confidence in others and in myself, which youth inspires, I gaily left a country of peace and plenty to live in a land of barbarism and wretchedness, without any other motive than that of employing the time of a restless and active youth in procuring knowledge of a new kind, and through its means of embellishing the remainder of my life with a radiant circle of reputation and esteem.

"In the year 3, on the contrary (1795), I embarked at Havre with that disgust and indifference, which the sight and experience of injustice and persecution impart. Sorrowful at the part, anxious for the future, I was going with distrust to a free people, to try whether a sincere friend of that liberty, whose name had been so profaned, could find for his declining years a peaceful asylum, of which Europe no longer afforded him any hope.

"In this disposition I visited successively almost all parts of the United States, studying the climate, laws, inhabitants, and their manners, chiefly with regard to social life and domestic happiness: and such was the result of my observations and reflections, that, considering on one hand the gloomy and boisterous state of France and all Europe; the probability of long and obstinate wars from the contest arisen between prejudices on the decline and knowledge increasing, between dispositions grown old and young liberties arising: on the other the peaceful and smiling aspect of the United States, in consequence of the immense extent of territory to be peopled, the facility of acquiring landed

property, the necessity and profits of labour, personal freedom, and the liberty of man's employing his industry in any way he might think proper, and the mildness of the government, founded on its very weakness. After weighing all these motives, I had formed a resolution to remain in the United States; when, in the spring of 1798, an epidemic animosity against the French breaking out, and the threat of an immediate rupture, compelled me to withdraw."

Disappointed in his schemes, he thought he should render a useful and acceptable service to his countrymen by composing a work, the want of which he himself had felt. He accordingly drew the outlines of a plan which "embraced the soil and climate of the country, the number of its inhabitants, their distribution over the territory, their division into different kinds of labour, the habits or manners resulting from their occupations, and the combination of those habits with the ideas and prejudices derived from the parent stock; the causes and incidents which led to the independence of the present United States; the changes produced by that great revolution; the consequences which in the natural course of things may be justly expected from it; and the reasons which induce him to discourage Frenchmen in particular from settling in America."

Other engagements, added to a bad state of health, having prevented the completion of his design, he has now presented to the public only that part of it which relates to the climate and soil of the United States, with a few other miscellaneous particulars. Much of the information which the work contains is given from his own observation; the rest he has drawn from the most respectable authorities; and where they failed him he has candidly acknowledged his ignorance. It cannot be expected to be more than a general sketch in which many things require farther elucidation: but the sketch bespeaks the hand of a master.

The natural boundaries of the United States Mr. Volney conceives to be the Atlantic ocean on the east; the West Indian sea and the gulf of Mexico on the south; the Mississippi on the west; and the five great lakes with the river St. Lawrence on the north: these limits, however, are at present a little contracted by the Spanish settlements on the south and the British settlements on the north.

This vast territory he considers with

respect to its aspect, its general configuration, its internal structure, its climate, the direction of its winds, and the prevailing diseases.

His description of the aspect of the country is lively and precise; such as could not have been given without actual inspection.

"To a European traveller, says he, and more especially to one accustomed like me to the naked lands of Egypt, of Asia, and on the borders of the Mediterranean, the prominent feature of the American soil is a wild appearance of almost uninterrupted forest, which displays itself on the shores of the sea, and continues growing thicker and thicker as you proceed into the interior of the country. During the long journey I made in 1790, from the mouth of the Delaware through Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, and Kentucky, to the river Wabash, thence to the north, through the north-western territory, as far as fort Detroit; then by the way of lake Erie to Niagara and Albany; and the year following from Boston to Richmond in Virginia, I scarcely travelled three miles together on open and cleared land. Every where I found the roads, or rather paths, bordered and overshadowed with coppices or tall trees; the silence and sameness of which, the soil in some places parched up, in others marshy, trees fallen through age, or blown down by storms, and rotting on the ground, with the tormenting swarms of breeze-flies, mosquitoes, and gnats,* do not possess all the charms, that our romance-writers dream of amid the smoke of a city in Europe. It is true, on the shores of the Atlantic this continental forest displays some openings, formed by the brackish marshes, and the cultivated fields that are continually extending round the absorbing focus of the cities. It has also considerable vacancies in the western countries, particularly from the Wabash to the Mississippi, towards the borders of lake Erie, and the river St. Lawrence, in Kentucky, and in Tennessee, where the nature of the soil, and still more the ancient and annual conflagrations of the savages, have produced spacious deserts, called *savannahs* by the Spaniards, and *prairies* by the Canadians, as also by the Americans, who have adopted this word. These deserts I cannot compare with those I have seen in Syria and Arabia, but rather with what are called the *steps* or deserts of Tartary; the *savannahs* like the *steps* being covered with thick shrubby plants, three or four feet high, exhibiting during summer and autumn a rich tapestry of verdure and flowers, very seldom to be seen in the large and naked deserts of Arabia. Throughout the rest of the United States, particularly in the mountainous parts of the interior country, from which the rivers flow

in opposite directions, some to the Atlantic, others to the Mississippi, the realms of forest have experienced but slight infringements on their domain; and compared with France we may say, that the entire country is one vast wood.

"Such is the general aspect of the territory of the United States; an almost uninterrupted continental forest: five great lakes on the north: on the west extensive *savannahs*: in the centre a chain of mountains, their ridges running in a direction parallel to the sea-coast, the distance of which is from fifty to a hundred and thirty miles, and sending off to the east and west rivers of longer course, of greater width, and pouring into the sea larger bodies of water, than ours in Europe; most of these rivers having cascades or falls from twenty to a hundred and forty feet in height, mouths spacious as gulphs, and on the southern coasts marshes extending above two hundred and fifty miles in length: on the north, snows remaining four or five months of the year: on a coast of three hundred leagues extent, ten or twelve cities, all built of brick, or of wood painted of different colours, and containing from ten to sixty thousand inhabitants: round these cities farm-houses built of trunks of trees, which they call *log-houses*, in the centre of a few fields of wheat, tobacco, or indian corn; these fields separated by a kind of fence made with branches of trees instead of hedges, for the most part full of stumps of trees half burnt, or stripped of their bark, and still standing; while both houses and fields are inclosed as it were in masses of forest, in which they are swallowed up, and diminish both in number and extent the further you advance into the woods, till at length from the summits of the hills you perceive only here and there a few little brown or yellow squares on a ground of green. Add to this a fickle and variable sky, an atmosphere alternately very moist and very dry, very misty and very clear, very hot and very cold, and a temperature so changeable, that in the same day you will have spring, summer, autumn, and winter, Norwegian frost and an African sun. Figure to yourself these, and you will have a concise physical sketch of the United States."

The most remarkable appearance in its general configuration is the chain of mountains which traverse it, sometimes in one ridge, but more frequently in several collateral ones, for more than a thousand miles, and through nearly its whole length, from the mouth of the river St. Lawrence to the source of the Apalachicola in East Georgia, and thence called by the native Indians, the Allegheny, which in their language signifies the endless mountains. Guided by this chain

* A small black fly, worse than the gnat of Europe. Google

our author divides the United States into three parallel regions in the direction of the coast, or from N. E. to S. W. : the first between the mountains and the ocean ; the second between the mountains and the Mississippi ; and the third the mountains themselves. But the mountainous tract north of Hudson's river differs in so many essential particulars from the southern chain that we shall take it separately, and shall collect together as briefly as possible what is related of each under distinct heads in different parts of the work.

1. The country between the Atlantic and the mountains south of Hudson's river, varies in breadth from fifty to a hundred miles, increasing as it advances southward. It has a low shore and but little elevation throughout the whole of its extent, but is distinguished by two singular ridges: the first of limestone not above fifteen yards broad at a medium, and sometimes not exceeding three, extending in length above two hundred miles from the Potowmack to the Roanoake, and running parallel to the easternmost ridge of mountains at the distance of from three to five miles ; the second of micaceous granite, from two to six miles broad, and nearly five hundred long, commencing on the right bank of the Hudson, and extending to the direction of the coast a little beyond the Roanoake. It is cut by all the rivers, and its course is distinctly marked by the falls which it makes in them. The land between it and the sea varies in breadth from thirty to a hundred miles, and consists of fine white sand such as is found on the coast, to the depth of twenty feet. Between it and the mountains the surface is diversified by gentle undulations, and the soil is composed of different kinds of earth and stones, in some places jumbled together, in others arranged in strata, exhibiting all the signs of river alluvions. Nearly the whole of this district from the mountains to the coast is covered by what Mr. Volney calls the southern forest, consisting chiefly of pines and other resinous trees, which display a perpetual verdure to the eye.

2. The district north of Hudson's river has a high rocky coast, interspersed with reefs which are connected with the nucleus of the adjoining continent ; and is formed by little mountains or chains which roughen the greater part of its surface. But its principal chain commences at the capes near the mouth of

the river St. Lawrence, called by sailors Mount Notre Dame and Magdalen; and diverging gradually from the river, separates the waters of its bason from those of New Brunswick and Maine. It then forms what are called the Green Mountains, and divides the bason of the Connecticut from that of lakes Champlain and George. At the head of Lake George it throws out branches to the west, which separate the sources of the Hudson, the Mohawk and the Susquehannah from the small rivers which fall into lake Ontario ; and are finally lost in the vast elevated plain of the great lakes and the north-west territory. That which appears the principal ridge continues its southerly direction till it terminates at West Point on the Hudson, where it has a very rugged surface, which has acquired the name of the Highlands.

The height of the White Mountains in New Hampshire, which are visible thirty leagues at sea, is estimated by Belknap, from the accounts of travellers, at ten thousand feet, but is judged by S. Williams to be not more than seven thousand eight hundred. Killington Peak in Vermont, measured by Williams as the loftiest in that part of the chain, is only three thousand four hundred and fifty-four feet ; nine hundred and sixteen feet lower than Ben Nevis in Scotland, and sixteen less than Snowdon in North Wales.

The soil throughout this district rests on a bed of granite, which forms the skeleton of the mountains, and admits rocks of a different nature only as exceptions. The banks of the river St. Lawrence are generally schistous: the island of Montreal is calcareous, as is the west branch of Green Mountains and the greater part of the shores of lake Champlain ; limestone is also found in the county of Maine, in the neighbourhood of New York, and in a few other places: the rocks of Ticonderago are sandstone. With these exceptions the whole of the country is granite ; and it appears from Mr. Mackenzie, that this granitic region extends through all the country from lake Winnipeg to Hudson's Bay and the coast of Labrador.

This district is covered by what our author calls the northern forest, which like the southern one consists of pines, &c. leaving only the banks of the river and their alluvions to the deciduous trees ; and extends by the way of Canada to the

north, where it soon gives way to the juniper and the meagre shrubs thinly scattered in the deserts of the polar circle.

3. The mountainous district south of Hudson's river forms a lofty rampart or terrace between the countries of the Atlantic and of the Mississippi. Its length to its termination near the Mississippi, may be estimated at near one thousand miles, and its breadth, which is very variable, from seventy to one hundred and twenty. It commences in a group called the Kaats-kill mountains on the right bank of Hudson's river, and branches off into a band of nearly parallel ridges, which extend from north-east to south-west across the states of New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, increasing their distance from the sea as they proceed southward. These ridges having continued parallel to each other till they arrive at the frontier of North Carolina, unite into a knot called by Mr. Volney the Alleghany arch. The first of them on the side of the Atlantic, Mr. Volney, in opposition to Mr. Arrowsmith, but supported by the respectable authority of Evans, Fry, and Jefferson, traces along the Trent, Oley, and flying hills of Pennsylvania. It crosses the Susquehannah below Harrisburg, where it increases in height, and is generally called the blue ridge, though it appears in the maps of Evans and some other geographers, under the name of South mountains. Mr. Volney says without any good reason, but doubtless from its relative situation with respect to the general band, which has a south-west direction. It crosses the Potowmack above the Shenando, and James's river above the junction of its two superior branches. The ridge called North mountain proceeds also from the Kaats-kill group, passes through Pennsylvania under the name of the Kittany, and crosses all the rivers in a direction nearly parallel to the blue ridge. The third and highest ridge which separates the vallies of the Atlantic from those of the Mississippi, is not distinctly marked in New York and Pennsylvania, but appears to be lost in the high levels about the sources of the Mohawk and Susquehannah. Mr. Volney derives its principal ramification also from the Kaats-kill; but as we conceive improperly, for that ramification being cut by the Delaware and the Susquehannah, is truly a subordinate ridge. South of the Susquehannah it is distinctly marked as

far as the Alleghany knot, whence it proceeds nearly single, and closely pressed on the west by the river Kanneway to a second knot still in Carolina, when it sends out the Kentucky ridges and the Cumberland mountain to the west, and proceeds almost alone to the angle of Georgia under the various names of White Oak, Great Iron, Bald and Blue Mountains. From that point it takes a direction nearly west towards the Mississippi, separating the basin of the Tennessee from the sources of the streams which run southward through Georgia and Florida. It is there called the Apalachian mountain, from a tribe of Indians who have also given their name to Apalachicola, a considerable river which takes its rise from that part of the chain and falls into the gulf of Mexico; and as the French became first acquainted with this part of the grand chain, they improperly gave its name to the whole. West of the grand Alleghany there are also some parallel ridges, the principal of which is called, in different parts of the line, the Gauley, Laurel-hill, and Chesnut-ridge; but of these Mr. Volney acknowledges that he has not sufficient documents.

The mountains of this long chain differ from those of Europe in having more regularity in their direction, greater continuity in their ridges, and less irregularity in the line of their summits. They are also much less lofty. The highest peak of the Kaats-kill group, measured in 1798 by Peter de la Bigarre, was found to be 3549 feet above the level of the tide-way in Hudson's river. The summit of the Alleghanies near the source of the Potowmack, was calculated in 1789, by George Gilpin and James Smith, to be 3257 feet above the level of the sea. Otter Peak in Virginia, the highest land in all that part of the country, is supposed by Mr. Jefferson to be only 4000. The whole of this chain, therefore, so far from having a right to be compared with the Alps or the Pyrenees, can scarcely boast an equality in point of height with the mountains in the highlands of Scotland. The chain called the Blue ridge from the frontier of Pennsylvania to James river, says Mr. Volney, always exhibited to me the appearance of a terrace elevated ten or twelve hundred feet above the plain, with a very steep ascent, and a summit so even, that we scarcely perceive its undulations, or the few gaps that serve for passages across it. Its general outline

must consequently resemble the southern Yorkshire wolds, when seen from the neighbourhood of York; nor can any part of the Alleghanies have a much more commanding aspect than that of the Cross Fell chain, as it appears from the banks of the Eden in the neighbourhood of Appleby, in Westmoreland.

Hudson's river not only breaks the continuity of the great chain, but marks also the separation of mountains which are entirely different from each other in their component parts. The Kaats-kill, the Blue ridge, the Alleghany, and in general all the chain as far as the angle of Georgia, are chiefly composed of sandstone. Other kinds of stone occur only as exceptions. The mountain between Harrisburg and Sunbury consists in part of granite; and there are numerous blocks of the same stone at the foot of the S. W. chain in Virginia. A few blocks of granite are also found at the gap made in the Blue ridge by the Potowmack: but the nucleus in that part is grey quartz; and between Fredericktown and Harper's ferry in the same ridge, a milky white quartz called arrowstone, is mixed with the sandstone. The greatest exception is the long calcareous valley between the Blue ridge and the North mountain from Easton on the Delaware to the Alleghany knot, with a collateral slip of the same kind on the east side of the Blue ridge, from the Schuylkill to the gap made by the Potowmack. The limestone of both these tracts is generally of a pretty deep blue colour, often much broken, as if it had been jumbled together by violence; and where the strata are regularly inclined to the horizon, it is generally at an angle of 40 or 50°. Mr. Volney does not know that any fossil shells have been found in it. Strata of coal are found on the upper bank of the Potowmack. In Virginia the bed of James River rests on a bed of coal about four and twenty feet thick on an inclined stratum of granite, under one hundred and twenty feet of red clay.

This sandstone region is covered with what Mr. Volney calls the middle forest, consisting of different species of oak, beech, maple, walnut, sycamore, acacia, mulberry, plum, ash, birch, sassafras and poplar on the side of the Atlantic, with the addition on the west, of the cherry, horse-chestnut, papaw, magnolia, and other deciduous trees; occasionally mingled with the resinous ones, scattered

throughout the plain, and collected in clumps on the mountains.

4. The country between the Alleghany mountains and the Mississippi, from the great lakes to the gulf of Mexico, may be divided into three large districts very distinct from each other. The first lies between the lakes and the Ohio, forming what the Americans call the North-west Territory, which, for want of sufficient population, is not yet an established state. Its surface is nearly plain, with gentle risings; and on its western side, from the Wabash to the Mississippi, nothing is found but vast level meadows. It forms part of that high level already mentioned, which affords a bed for four of the great lakes, and in which are the sources of the waters that run partly into the Northern Ocean by the gulf of St. Lawrence, partly into the gulf of Mexico by the Mississippi, and partly into the Atlantic by the Mohawk, Hudson, and Susquehannah. The Alleghany mountains are in some respects only the breast-work of this flat, which almost equals them in height; and its northern and southern declivities are so gentle that, in the floods of winter, streams, navigable by boats, form a junction between the sources of the Wabash, which runs into the Ohio; the Miami, which runs into lake Erie; the Huron, which falls into the entrance of the same lake; Grand River, which flows into lake Michigan, and several others. The soil is generally a bed of clay covered with excellent black mould, and resting on an immense stratum of horizontal crystallized primitive limestone, of a close smooth grain, and generally of a grey colour. The rivers, in consequence of the flatness of the surface and clayey nature of the soil, run even with the surface. The second district extends from the Ohio to the Tennessee, composing the states of Kentucky and Tennessee. It is traversed in its whole extent by lateral branches of the Alleghanies, steep in their declivities and narrow at their summits, except the Cumberland chain between the river of that name and the Tennessee, which is thirty miles in breadth. Its fundamental stratum is also of a limestone in laminae of one or more inches thick, covered by a kind of black, rich, loose and friable mould, which the streams and the rivers wear away, making for themselves two perpendicular banks from fifty to four hundred feet high. It is noticed

as a singularity in the rivers of Kentucky, that they flow more slowly near their sources and more rapidly afterwards : a proof that the upper part of their course is a flat country, and the lower one, at the entrance into the vale of the Ohio, down a more declining slope. The hills and vallies are covered with the deciduous trees of the middle forest, but much superior in size and vigour to those that grow on the Atlantic side of the chain. The third district is bounded to the north by the Apalachian chain, from which its rivers run into the lower part of the Mississippi and the gulf of Mexico. Its surface near the Apalachian chain is a little hilly, gradually sinking into a flat as it approaches the sea, at first rich and fertile, but near the coast sandy and barren. Concerning the composition of the Apalachian and Cumberland chain, Mr. Volney could procure no authentic information ; he was therefore unable to assign the contiguity of the sandstone to the calcareous region, with precision.

The principal seat of coal in the western country is above Pittsburg on the Ohio, in the space between the Laurel mountains and the rivers Alleghany and Monongahela, where there is a stratum almost throughout at the mean depth of twelve or sixteen feet. This stratum is supported by the horizontal bed of limestone, and covered with strata of schistus and slate.

We have purposely confined ourselves to the facts brought forward in this part of the work, disposing them in the order which appeared best suited to a brief abstract ; and have passed over the hypotheses and reasonings which Mr. Volney has founded on them : though, did our limits permit, we could have followed him with pleasure in his conjectures concerning the ancient lakes which he supposes must have occupied, at some very remote period, the upper part of the basons of the Ohio and Hudson, and particularly of all the rivers which intersect the Blue ridge. And this we should have done without any apprehension of diminishing our reverence for the writings of Moses as the vehicle of divine revelation. Whatever opinions may be entertained concerning the antiquity of our globe as a planet, and the changes which its surface has undergone with respect to the distribution of land and water, we have the concurring testimony of profane history and of all credible tradition, in sup-

port of the comparatively recent creation of the human race. Mr. Volney himself in a learned dissertation on ancient chronology, published in the *Encyclopedie Methodique*, has shewn the perfect correspondence of the Greek and Hebrew historians in their accounts of ancient nations ; with this advantage in favour of the latter, that their regular narrative extends to a much earlier æra. How long the matter of the earth had existed when it was first peopled with rational inhabitants, and through what different stages it had passed before it received a form suitable to their wants, are known only to Him with whom one day is as a thousand years, and a thousand years as one day. Of these, Moses, we are persuaded, was as ignorant as ourselves. He might record the prevailing ideas of his own time ; and we may reason on appearances as they gradually open to our knowledge, but they form no part of his divine legation or of our religious faith. Nothing, in our estimation, can be more injudicious, nothing can be more unfriendly to the christian cause than an eager desire to maintain that the writers of the Old and New Testament were as supernaturally instructed by the Spirit of God in the principles of natural philosophy as in the essential articles of sacred truth.

With respect to the climate of the United States, the chief particulars pointed out by Mr. Volney are, that on the east of the mountains it is not only colder in winter, but also, though not generally noticed, hotter in summer than the countries under the same parallel in Europe ; that the daily variations are also greater and more abrupt ; and that in the basons of the Ohio and Mississippi, from the eastern termination of the Apalachian chain to the great lakes, it is less cold by three degrees of latitude than it is in the Atlantic states ; or in other words, that those trees and plants which require a winter less cold and of shorter duration, are found three degrees farther north on the west side of the Alleghanies. These peculiarities Mr. Volney illustrates and proves by a long detail of facts partly founded on his own knowledge, and partly on the accounts of intelligent observers. But they are much too long to be transcribed, and could not be easily abridged. On the same account we are obliged to refer our readers to the work itself for the full and

minute investigation of the different winds that prevail in different seasons of the year and in different parts of the country, from which he attempts to account for these apparent anomalies. That part of his system which attributes the higher temperature of the western district to the influence of the trade wind, diverted from its course by the high land which bounds the gulf of Mexico, and forced by the direction of the coast up the basin of the Mississippi, is peculiarly ingenious and satisfactory.

The principal prevailing diseases in the United States are reduced to four. 1. Colds and catarrhs frequently terminating in pulmonary consumption, the natural effect of those sudden changes of temperature which are the distinguishing characteristics of the climate. 2. De-fluxions on the gums with rottenness, and premature loss of teeth. 3. Autumnal intermittent fevers particularly endemic in places recently cleared, and in the neighbourhood of marshes or stagnant waters. 4. The yellow fever, which Mr. Volney decidedly pronounces to be an indigenous production of the country, though, at the same time, by no means positively denying its contagious character.

"Such (he concludes) are the chief characters of the soil and climate of the United States, of which I have traced as accurate a picture, as the model, so various in its extent, and so subject to local exceptions, will admit. It remains now with the reader, to form his own judgment respecting the advantages and inconveniences of a country become so celebrated, and destined by its geographical situation, as well as its political genius, to act so important a part on the stage of the world. I so much the less pretend to influence the opinion of others in this respect by giving my own, because I have frequently experienced, that on this subject more than any other, the tastes of people differ according to the feelings and prejudices of habit. Frequently have I heard opinions totally opposite advanced in companies of travellers in the United States from the various parts of Europe. The Dane and the Englishman find fault with the heat of a climate, that appears moderate to the Spaniard and Venetian: the Polander and the native of Provence complain of humidity, where the Dutchman finds both the air and the soil a little too dry: opinions obviously arising from comparison with the native and accustomed climate of the individual. Still it is true, that all Europeans agree in condemning the extreme variability of the weather from cold to hot, and from hot to cold: but the Americans, who

consider this reproach almost as a personal offence, already defend their climate as their property, and have three powerful motives of partiality to it.

"These are individual self-love, common to all men, and national vanity, which is every day growing greater; a habit contracted from the cradle, and become a second nature: and a pecuniary interest as dear to the state as to individuals, that of selling lands, and attracting foreign purchasers and foreign capitals. With such motives it would be difficult to persuade them that the United States are not the best country in the world: yet if the emigrant who wishes to settle, collect opinions from state to state, the inhabitants of the southern will deter him from fixing in those of the north by the length of the winter; the hardships of the severe cold; the expences thence arising for his dwelling, clothes, firing, &c.; the necessity of keeping his cattle in a stable half the year, and consequently of cultivating and laying in a stock of fodder, building barns, &c.; and, lastly, by the moderate produce of the soil. The inhabitant of the north, on the contrary, boasting his health and activity, the effects of the coldness of his climate, the poorness of his land, and the necessity of labour, will decry the southern states for the insalubrity of their marshes and rice-grounds; the torment of their insects, flies and moschetoes; the frequency of their fevers; the intensity of their heat; the indolence and feebleness of constitution thence arising, and producing idle habits, a dissipated life, abuse of liquors, love of gambling, &c.; all of them promoted likewise by the very richness of the soil and abundance of its produce. At the same time the inhabitant of Carolina will agree with him of Maine in decrying the central states, as liable to the inconveniences of both extremes, without enjoying their advantages. Accordingly at Philadelphia I have heard Carolinians complain of heat, and Canadians of cold, because the people there know not how to take proper precautions against either. Lastly, if in a district of acknowledged unhealthiness the emigrant is desirous of precise information, every inhabitant assures him, that the focus of insalubrity is not in his farm, but a neighbour's, and that the fever comes to him from a foreign soil.

"The fact is, every individual, every nation, while they complain of their soil and situation, notwithstanding prefer their country, their city, their farm, from self-love, from interest, and above all, from a motive less felt, though far more potent, that of habit. The Egyptian prefers his Nile, the Arab his scorching sands, the Tartar his open wilds, the Huron his immense forests, the Hindoo his fertile plains, the Samoyede and Eskimo the barren and frozen shores of their northern seas: neither of them would forsake, would change his native soil, and this solely from the force of that habit, of which so much is said,

but all the magic power of which is never known, till we quit our own circle, to experience the effects of foreign habits.

"Habit is a physical and moral atmosphere, which we breathe without perceiving it, and the peculiar and distinguishing qualities of which we cannot know, but by breathing a different air. Accordingly they who possess the greatest understanding, if they would talk of the habits of others without ever having stepped out of their own, that is in fact of sensations they have never experienced, are in reality no more than blind men discoursing of colours. And as backwardness in passing such judgments constitutes that rational spirit, so much decried by the blind and hypocritical under the name of the spirit of philosophy, I shall content myself with saying, that in comparison with the countries I have seen, and without renouncing the prejudices of my own feelings, and native constitution, the climate of Egypt, Syria, France, and all the countries bordering on the Mediterranean, appears to me far superior in goodness, healthiness, and pleasantness, to that of the United States: that within the circuit of the United States themselves, had I to make choice on the Atlantic coast, it would be the point of Rhode Island, or the south-west chain in Virginia between the Rappahannock and the Roanoke; in the western country, it would be the borders of lake Erie, a hundred years hence, when they will have ceased to be annoyed with fever; but at present, on the faith of travellers, it would be those hills of Georgia and Florida, that are not so leeward of any marsh."

We have quoted this passage at full length that our countrymen may profit by the judgment of an enlightened foreigner, and be assisted in forming a sober estimate of the advantages to be gained and the disadvantages likely to be incurred, by leaving their native land and settling in a climate so dissimilar to their own. Whatever Englishmen may think, Frenchmen, we are persuaded, will resolve to suffer almost any oppression at home, rather than emigrate to the back settlements of America, when they read Mr. Volney's relation of his visits to the wretched French colonies at Gallipolis on the Ohio, and at fort St. Vincent's on the Wabash: the former established in the year 1791 in consequence of magnificent proposals published at Paris by a number of persons interested in the sale of lands, who called themselves the Scioto Company: the latter more than sixty years since, when the French were masters of Louisiana and Canada. Frenchmen, indeed, in Mr. Volney's opinion are, more than all other Europeans, un-

fitted by natural disposition and habit for the situation of an American farmer. The reasons he assigns for this opinion are so striking and characteristic that we cannot resist the temptation of transcribing two or three paragraphs.

"The American settler of English or German descent, naturally cold and phlegmatic, sedately forms a plan of managing a farm. He turns his mind, not ardently, but without ceasing, to every thing conducive to its formation or improvement. If, as some travellers have laid to his charge, he become idle, it is not till he has obtained the object of his pursuit, which he considers as a competency.

"The Frenchman, on the contrary, with his troublesome and restless activity, is led by enthusiasm on some sudden fit, to undertake a project, of which he has calculated neither the expence nor the difficulties. More ingenious, perhaps, he rallies the slowness of his German or English rival, which he compares to that of an ox: but the German or the Englishman will answer with his cool good sense, that the patience of the ox is better adapted to the plough than the fire of the mettlesome racer. And in fact it often happens, that the Frenchman, after having undone, corrected, and altered what he had begun, and having harassed his mind with desires and fears, is at length disgusted, and relinquishes the whole.

"The American settler, slow and silent, does not rise very early; but when he has once risen, he spends the whole day in an uninterrupted series of useful labours. At breakfast he coldly gives his orders to his wife, who receives them with coldness and timidity, and obeys them without contradiction. If the weather be fair, he goes out, ploughs, fells trees, makes fences, or the like: if it be wet, he takes an inventory of the contents of his house, barn, and stables, repairs the doors, windows, or locks, drives nails, makes chairs or tables, and is constantly employed in rendering his habitation secure, convenient, and neat. With these dispositions, sufficient to himself, he will sell his farm, if an opportunity offer, and retire into the woods thirty or forty miles from the frontier, to form a new settlement. There he will spend years in felling trees, making for himself first a hut, then a stable, then a barn; clearing the ground, and sowing it, &c. His wife, patient and serious as himself, will second his endeavours on her part, and they will remain sometimes six months without seeing the face of a stranger: but at the expiration of four or five years they will have acquired an estate, that ensures a subsistence to their family.

"The French settler, on the contrary, rises early in the morning, if it be only to talk of it. He consults his wife on what he shall do, and listens to her advice. It would be a miracle if they were always of the same opi-

nion : the wife argues, opposes, disputes : the husband insists upon or yields up the point, is irritated or disheartened. Sometimes his house is irksome to him, and he takes his gun, goes a shooting, or a journey, or to chat with his neighbours. At other times he stays at home, and spends his time in talking with good humour, or in quarrelling and scolding. Neighbours pay and return visits : for visiting and talking are so indispensably necessary to a Frenchman from habit, that throughout the whole frontier of Canada and Louisiana there is not one settler of that nation to be found, whose house is not within reach or within sight of some other. In several places, on asking how far off the remotest settler was, I have been answered : ' he is in the desert, with the bears, a league from any house, without having any person with whom he can converse.'

" This alone is one of the most distinguishing and characteristic features of the two nations : accordingly the more I have reflected on the subject, the more am I persuaded, that the domestic silence of the Americans is one of the most radical causes of their industry, activity, and success in agriculture, commerce, and the arts ; and the same applies to the English, Dutch, and other people of the north, from whom they are descended. In silence they concentrate their ideas, and have leisure to combine them and make accurate calculations of their expences and returns : they acquire more clearness in their thoughts, and consequently in their expressions ; hence there is more decision in their conduct, both public and private, and it is more to the point.

" On the contrary, the Frenchman, with his perpetual domestic chattering, evaporates his ideas, submits them to contradiction, excites around him the tattling of women, backbiting, and quarrels with his neighbours, and finds at length he has squandered away his time, without any benefit to himself or his family. These particulars may be thought of trifling moment, but they constitute the employment of time ; and time, as Franklin says, is the material, from which the thread of life is spun."

These relations are given by way of appendix ; and another equally interesting is added, containing general observations on the Indians or savages of North-America, with a vocabulary of the language of the Miamis. Mr. Volney at first entertained the design of going to live for a few months with these people, to study them as he had done the Bedouen Arabs ; but a slight acquaintance with their disposition and manners soon induced him to relinquish his purpose. His chief knowledge of them is, therefore, derived from a Mr. Wells, who had been carried off by the savages at the age of thirteen, had learned several of their dialects, and had come to Philadel-

phia in 1797 accompanied by a Miami war-chief called Mishikinakwen, or, as the word signifies in English, the Little Tortoise. The Little Tortoise, whom Mr. Volney conversed with through the medium of Mr. Wells, as an interpreter, proved a man of strong natural sense improved by observation and experience. The result of their interviews was a full conviction in the mind of Mr. Volney that the copper colour of the Indians is not innate, but occasioned entirely by the influence of the sun, and of the grease and juice of herbs with which they besmear their skin : or in other words that it is not the mark of a distinct race ; that, as indeed had before been ascertained in opposition to Lahontan, Patw, and lord Kames, they would have a beard like other men, if they did not pull it up by the roots, a practice, as Mr. Volney conjectures, originally adopted to deprive their enemies of such an advantageous hold on the face, that their savage life has nothing to recommend it in point of health, sensitive enjoyment, moral feeling, careless ease, or real liberty and independence ; and finally, that in their general sentiments and character they bear a strong resemblance to the much vaunted ancient nations of Greece and Italy, as they are described no less by sober historians than by their epic and tragic poets.

The latter decision, we confess, startled us, not merely on account of its novelty, but also of its militating so strongly against the deep-rooted and darling prejudices of our youth. But on perusing the proofs produced in support of the charge, we have been reluctantly compelled to acknowledge its truth ; and we agree with Mr. Volney in thinking, that the history of ancient Greece and Italy, considered at large in this point of view, would form a work highly instructive. From it, as he observes, " we might learn justly to appreciate a number of prejudices and illusions, by which our judgment is warped in early life, and during the course of our education. We should there see what opinion we ought to form of that pretended golden age, when men wandered naked in the forests of Hellas and Thessaly, living on herbs and acorns ; and should perceive that the ancient Greeks were truly savages of the same kind as those in America, and placed in nearly similar circumstances of soil and climate, since Greece, covered with forests, was much colder than at present. In

this period of anarchy and disorder of a savage life we should see the origin of that character of pride and boasting, perfidiousness and cruelty, dissimulation and injustice, sedition and tyranny that the Greeks display throughout the whole course of their history: we should perceive the source of those false ideas of virtue and glory sanctioned by the poets and orators of those ferocious days, who have made war and its melancholy trophies the loftiest aim of man's ambition, the most shining road to renown, and the most dazzling object of admiration to the ignorant and cheated multitude: and since, particularly of late, we have made a point of imitating these people, and

consider their politics and morals, like their poetry and arts, the types of all perfection, it follows at length, that our homage and our worship are addressed to the manners and spirit of barbarism and savage times."

With this quotation, evidently intended by the author for the admonition of his countrymen, but equally worthy of attention from the rulers of all other nations, we shall close our review of a work which has afforded us uncommon gratification, and to which future geographers and historians will be indebted for a large supply of curious and valuable materials.

ART. II. *An Account of a Voyage to establish a Colony at Port Philip, in Bass's Strait, on the South Coast of New South Wales, in his Majesty's Ship Calcutta, in the Years 1802-3-4. By J. H. TUCKEY, Esq. First Lieutenant of the Calcutta. 8vo. pp. 239.*

THE voyage of which this publication is a narrative, was undertaken with the intention of making a settlement in the strait which separates New Holland from Van Diemen's Land; a measure adopted by government, as well from the commercial view of favouring the adventures for the capture of seals in those seas, as from the political one of securing a passage through the straits, and preventing rival establishments by other nations. A port discovered by lieutenant John Murray, and named after governor Philip, was fixed upon for the site of the settlement, as being represented to possess all due advantages for that purpose. The equipment made to carry this design into execution, consisted of a king's ship, the *Calcutta*, originally built for the East India company, and the *Ocean*, a hired merchant ship: the former carrying all the convicts and marines, the latter, the greater part of the stores and necessaries for the settlement. —The summary of the voyage may be given in a few words. The ships cleared the channel about the end of April 1803; refreshed at Rio de Janeiro, which they left on July 19th; proceeded to their destination in Bass's Strait, where they found, upon examination, that the place was not adapted for the purpose in view. Renouncing, therefore, the idea of making a settlement there, they sailed for Port Jackson, where the *Calcutta* took in a cargo of ship timber for the navy. She then proceeded alone, and passing to the southward of New Zealand, dou-

bled Cape Horn, and arrived again at Rio de Janeiro on May 22d; "thus, (says the writer) accomplishing a voyage round the world, discharging and receiving a cargo, in eleven months." This extraordinary celerity is, however, augmented in our computation, since, according to the preceding statement, it appears, that from the ship's departure from, and return to Rio de Janeiro, little more than ten months elapsed. It should however be observed, that as this circumnavigation was all within the southern hemisphere, the space was less than a great circle of the globe.

The narrative of this voyage might have been spared with little loss to the stock of public information, yet it affords matter to amuse a leisure hour. The writer makes a sailor's apology for inaccuracies in language, nor on this head is there much to blame. His style and strain of sentiment are those of a young man, not devoid of literary taste or the habit of reflection, but as yet immature in point of judgment. He is most copious in his description of the manners, productions, &c. of Rio de Janeiro; but his opportunities do not seem to have enabled him to add much of value to the accounts of former voyagers. We cannot but suspect his accuracy in some points; thus, after giving a table of exports, in which their collective amount, including the gold and silver, is stated at a little more than 1,600,000*l.* he informs us, that the whole amount of the revenue raised in the district is nearly

four millions sterling. The whole revenue of the crown of Portugal is reckoned, by writers, not to exceed two millions.

From the intercourse between the intended settlers and the natives at Port Philip, it would seem that they are more numerous and daring than in the vicinity of Sidney and Port Jackson, yet that they are savages of the same class: that is, of the lowest description of human beings. Perhaps the most useful part of this work consists of some annexed "Observations respecting the selection of convicts for transportation, and on the means of preserving health on the voyage." Introducing the subject with a sentence from lord Bacon, in which he enumerates the trades and professions most proper for settling a plantation, or colony, he goes on to say, "how little such a selection is attended to in the transportation of convicts to New South Wales, was sufficiently exemplified on board the Calcutta, where, out of three hundred and seven convicts, there were but eight carpenters and joiners, three smiths, one gardener, twenty labouring farmers, two fishermen, nine taylors, and four stone-masons.—The remainder may be classed under the heads of gentlemen's servants, hair-dress-

ers, hackney-coachmen, chairmen, silk-weavers, calico-printers, watch-makers, lapidaries, merchants-clerks, and *gentlemen*." He proceeds to make some particular remarks on *gentlemen convicts*, who are "worse than useless, for they are invariably troublesome." Unfit for manual labour, stung with the remembrance of their former rank in society, and impatient of degradation, they are turbulent and insolent, and are rendered worse by the attentions they are apt to meet with from those who sympathize with them on the ground of a former similarity of condition. The precautions suggested for the prevention of disease in the passage, chiefly refer to cleanliness, and to the correction of moisture. They will be consulted with advantage, by those who are entrusted with the transportation of convicts. We were somewhat amused with the new sense of a word in the marine phraseology. The decks, he says, "should be scrubbed with *bibles* and dry sand." Lest the land-reader should suspect a profanation in this direction, he is informed in a note, that *bibles* are blocks of wood, a foot long, and six inches deep and wide. These tars are certainly comical fellows.

ART. III. *The Journal of ANDREW ELLICOTT, late Commissioner on behalf of the United States, during the Years 1796-7-8-9 and 1800, for determining the Boundary between the United States, and the Possessions of his Catholic Majesty in America.* 4to. pp. 460.

CONDAMINE published, in 1745, his relation of a journey through the interior of South America, to determine, by measurement, the figure of the earth. To that celebrated narrative this journal bears considerable resemblance. Both travellers have pathless wildernesses to pervade, and ferocious savages to fear; rivers unmapped to navigate, and mathematical instruments to unpack at every station. But Condamine is always minding his reader's business, and Mr. Ellicott his own; the one is on the watch for all those features of the surrounding scenery and incident, which the Europeans would catch at as remarkable; the other is weighing every thing in his statistical scales, and endeavouring to assign a place to every notice, in proportion to its connexion with the interests of the republic. Condamine is the more cosmopolitical, Ellicott the more patriotic observer.

The route of this respectable commissioner extends from Philadelphia to Pitts-

burg, on the Ohio: down that river to its junction with the Mississippi, thence to Natchez, where the author had to await the reluctant co-operation of the Spanish commissioners, in tracing the boundary line along the skirts of the Floridas. Apprehensions were entertained by the American government, that the baron Coronadelet, who was intrusted with the chief command at New Orleans, and who was supposed to have the French interests full as much at heart as those of his nominal sovereign, the king of Spain, would indirectly obstruct the delivering up of the military posts. There were strong symptoms of insidious delay, and of hostile intentions. The American commissioner therefore encouraged a sort of conquest by fraternization. The people of Natchez were stimulated to arm, to rise against the Spanish governor Gayoso, to elect a representative committee, and thus to transfer their own allegiance. A very entertaining part of the narrative is this revolution of Natchez.

From Natchez the author proceeds down the Mississippi to New Orleans, thence to the guide-line on the Mobile, then to Pensacola, which serves as a starting place for many strips of survey, and finally to the end of the guide-line on the Chattahoochee. The author finally descends the river Saint Mary, and returns home through the Carolinas.

An observation still very important to the ministers of Great Britain, occurs in the preface. The island and city of New Orleans form no part of the territory ceded by France and Spain to North America. As a portion of West Florida, it is yet the property of his catholic majesty, and is necessarily the eventual emporium of a commerce, co-extensive with the navigableness of the Mississippi: the right of transfer, by sale, to a neutral power, is of course suspended during war, else a belligerent power could make over all its vulnerable possessions to a neutral, and resume them at a peace. The purchase of the Floridas, therefore, by the North American government, if not completed before the commencement of a war between Britain and Spain, cannot, conformably with the law of nations, be effected during such war. The Americans are said to be engaged in a conquest, by fraternization, of these lands; but it is doubtful whether such transfers merit respect. If the pope could have re-seized his Avignon, or the king of Sardinia his Savoy, after their fraternization with France, no admitted principles of right would have opposed the resumption, yet the choice of the people, fairly ascertained; deserves to become a legitimate, as it is an honourable title. New Orleans, and its island is to the Mississippi, what Trinidad may become to the Orinoko.

From an anecdote recorded in the second chapter, it appears that the Indians have invented, what a recent French writer calls a *pasilaly*, a method of talking to people of all languages, without understanding theirs, a dialect of signs and gestures, an idiom in pantomime.

"A few days after we had encamped at the confluence of the rivers, Mr. Philip Nolan, so well known for his athletic exertions, and dexterity in taking wild horses, stopped at our camp, on his way from New Madrid to fort Massac, having two boats at the latter place shut up by the ice. From him I obtained much useful information relative to the situations, and characters, of the principal inhabitants of Natchez; which, at that

time, was a matter of mere curiosity, but which eventually I found extremely useful. Being pleased with his conversation, and finding that he had a very extensive knowledge of that country, particularly Louisiana, I requested the pleasure of his company down the river, as we were unacquainted with the navigation of it, to which he agreed. After staying with us one night, he proceeded up to Massac, and remained there till our store-boat reached that place, and accompanied her, with his two boats, down to us. While in our camp, he observed a number of Indians, who were from the west side of the Mississippi, and spoke to them in the several languages with which he was acquainted, but they could not understand him; he then addressed them by signs, to which they immediately replied, and conversed some time with apparent ease and satisfaction. This was the first time I had either seen or heard of this curious language; and being led by curiosity to speak to Mr. Nolan upon the subject, he informed me that it was used by many nations on the west side of the Mississippi, who could only be understood by each other in that way, and that it was commonly made use of in transacting their national concerns. A vocabulary of part of this curious language, has been sent on to the American Philosophical Society, by William Dunbar, esq. of the Mississippi territory, and contains a much more particular account of it than I could give."

How strange, that the European nations should yet want a convenient medium of intercourse, which is established throughout the thinly peopled territories of the illiterate savages of North America! Unless the signs of the free-masons can be embellished by a theoretical philosophy, into the last lingering remnants of a decayed art of talking with the fingers, there is no parallel contrivance in the civilized world.

The following particulars of the navigation of the Mississippi have here some novelty:

"In descending the river, you meet with but little variety; a few of the sand bars and islands will give you a sample of the whole. When the water is low, you have high muddy banks, quick-sands, and sand-bars; and when full, you might almost as well be at sea. For days together, you will float without meeting any thing like soil in the river, and at the same time be environed by an uninhabitable, and almost impenetrable wilderness.

"This river, like all others passing through flat countries, and not checked or confined by hills or mountains, is very crooked, as may be seen by the chart.

"In consequence of the great body of water in the Mississippi, and the light and loose na-

ture of the soil, the concave banks of the river are falling in, more or less, during every general fall or rise of the water; and I believe but few people have ever descended it, in either of those states, who have not heard or seen large portions of the banks give way, which are instantly carried off by the current, and the earth, sand, and some of the rubbish, again deposited in the eddies formed by the convex points below.

"From what has been said, one general caution must necessarily present itself to those concerned in navigating the Mississippi, which is to avoid the concave banks or shores.—Many fatal accidents have happened on this river, either through ignorance of the danger, or inattention in coming to at improper places on the shore, to cook, procure fuel, or for other purposes. We have a late instance of a Mr. McFarling, and part of his crew, being lost by the falling of a bank. When the banks are inundated, they are less dangerous, being in some measure supported by the water, and not so liable to give way; but the concave shores are still to be avoided, because the water near the bank, and elevated above it, not being confined to the course of the river by the lower current, rushes straight forward among the cane and timber, and if Kentucky boats, as they are called, fall within the draught of this upper current, it will be extremely difficult to relieve them, or prevent their being lost in the woods. Many losses have been sustained from this cause.

"A boat may at all times come to with safety at a sand bar, the upper or lower end of an island where young bushes are growing, or just at the beginning of eddy, below any of the points that are covered with young cotton wood, (the *populus deltoides* of Marshall,) or willows, (*salix nigra*.) From the mouth of the Ohio, down to the walnut hills, it is not safe to descend the river in the night, unless the boat be uncommonly strong, on account of the sawyers and planters. The former are trees slightly confined to the bottom by some of their roots or limbs, and the loose or floating ends continue a vibratory motion, generally up and down: some of them rise five or six feet above the water, every vibration. The latter are more dangerous, being firmly fixed or planted in the bottom. They are all easily avoided in daylight. With these precautions, the Mississippi may be navigated with as much, if not more safety, than any other river upon this continent. It may generally be observed, that the banks of all our rivers subject to inundation, are higher on the margins of the rivers than some distance from them, and commonly terminate by a gentle declivity in a swamp. This is the case the whole length of the Mississippi, from the mouth of the Ohio to the gulf of Mexico; hence some superficial observers have been led to believe, that the river passes along the top of a hill, with a valley on each side of it. After the water, at the time of the inunda-

tion, rises above the bank, it runs from the river into the swamps with great rapidity, till they are filled to a level with the main current. Those swamps, which communicate immediately with the gulf of Mexico, or the salt water lakes, never fill during the inundation; consequently the current continues over the banks into them, till the waters fall. Advantage hath been taken of this circumstance, in a number of places about New Orleans, for the erection of saw mills, which are found to answer a valuable purpose, and are kept constantly going the whole term of the inundation.

"The first large body of water which leaves the Mississippi, and falls by a regular, and separate channel, into the gulf of Mexico, is the Chafalia. It leaves the Mississippi in the westernmost part of that remarkable bend just below the boundary, and has every appearance of having been formerly a continuation of the Red river, when the Mississippi washed the high land from Clarksville, to the Bayou Tunica, or Willing's creek, the traces of which are yet visible by the lakes, through which a large current yet passes, when the river is high. The distance on a straight line from Clarksville to the Bayou Tunica, is not more than eight miles, but by the present course of the river, it is supposed not to be less than fifty miles. Should the Mississippi break its way through by a shorter course, which is more than a mere probability, the Chafalia will again become a part of the Red river.

"When the Mississippi is high, the draught into the Chafalia is very strong, and has frequently carried rafts, and likewise some few flats, or Kentucky boats, down it, which are generally lost. This branch, notwithstanding its magnitude, is not navigable to the gulf of Mexico, owing to an immense floating bridge, or raft, across it, of many leagues in length, and so firm and compact in some places, that cattle and horses are driven over on it. This surprising floating bridge, or raft, is constantly augmented by the trees and rubbish, which the Chafalia draws out of the Mississippi."

As Natchez seems likely to become a metropolis of the back settlements, a center of administration, of literature, and of traffic, it may be useful to notice the quality of its productions.

"The staple commodity of the settlement of Natchez is cotton, which the country produces in great abundance, and of a good quality. The making of indigo, and raising tobacco, were carried on with spirit some years ago, but they have both given way to the cultivation of cotton. The country produces maize, or Indian corn, equal, if not superior to any part of the United States. The time of planting it is from the beginning of March, until the beginning of July. The cotton is

generally planted in the latter end of February, and the beginning of March. Rye has been attempted in some places, and raised with success; but wheat has not yet succeeded. Apples and cherries are scarce; but peaches, plumbs, and figs, are very abundant. The vegetables of the middle states generally succeed there. The sugar-cane has been attempted near the southern part of the district, near the boundary; I have not yet heard with what success: but from Point Coupée, down to the gulf of Mexico, it answers at present better than any other article; and sugar has, within a few years past, become the staple commodity of that part of the Mississippi. A variety of oranges, both sweet and sour, with lemons, are in great plenty on that part of the river.

"From the great number of artificial mounds of earth to be seen through the whole settlement of Natchez, it must at some former period have been well populated.—Those mounds or tumuli are generally square and flat on the top: add to this circumstance in favour of the former population of that district, the following fact, which is very conclusive. In all parts where new plantations are opened, broken Indian earthen-ware is to be met with; some of the pieces are in tolerable preservation, and retain distinctly the original ornaments, but none of it appears to have ever been glazed."

How melancholy to observe, in the midst of these forsaken wilds, the reliques of anterior civilization, and abolished arts! Here perhaps dwelt some fugitive remnant of those Mexicans, who scorned to submit to Spanish jurisdiction; who undertook a vain conflict with contiguous barbarism, but preserved awhile the knack of manufacturing pottery, and of picture writing. The gesture language of the roving Indians may itself be the result of Mexican intellect; and a translation into signs, of their picture writing, which, like the flourishes of the Chinese, might be intelligible to distinct nations, in their respective languages. Perhaps these mounds or barrows were once the haunts or the tombs of those Welsh Indians, the wilderred posterity of the companions of Madoc, whom our bardic songs and native traditions describe as the first explorers of the Patomak, and the earliest European settlers of the Blue Mountains. We send to Babylon for its brick-bats; why not to Natchez, for its broken and buried crockery? A single Welsh syllable, on the rim, would wake all the echoes of Plinlimmon. How favourable the leisure of savages is to acute

observations of human character, to ethic wisdom, to the practically correct estimate of men, may be inferred from the following anecdote:

"Two or three days before our public conferences took place with the Indians, the Mad Dog asked colonel Hawkins and myself, if we supposed that governor Folch would attend at the treaty: to which we answered in the affirmative. "No, replied the Mad Dog, he will not attend, he knows what I shall say to him about his crooked talks: his tongue is forked; and, as you are here, he will be ashamed to show it. If he stands to what he has told us, you will be offended, and if he tells us that the line ought to be marked, he will contradict himself; but he will do neither, he will not come."

"On the 4th of May, we were joined by colonel Maxant, and several other Spanish officers. Colonel Maxant represented governor Folch, who was taken so unwell on his way to the treaty, that he thought proper to return back to Pensacola. So soon as the Mad Dog discovered that governor Folch had returned to Pensacola, and was not going to attend the treaty, he called upon colonel Hawkins and myself, and with some degree of pleasantry said, "Well, the governor does not come: I told you so; a man with two tongues can only speak to one at a time."

An extraordinary instance of idiosyncrasy is here recorded:

"My journey up the river was disagreeable and painful, being blistered by the rhus radicans, (poison vine,) from head to feet. This aptitude to be disordered by this poisonous vegetable, I have been subject to from my infancy, and have generally been confined in consequence of it, at least once a week every summer since. The evaporation from the dew from this plant in the morning, falling upon me, is sufficient to produce this effect. The irritation and heat of this complaint was frequently so excessive, that I had to plunge into the river many times in the day, and lay whole hours in it during the night, which was the only relief I could find. Medical aid had, at all times, proved ineffectual to relieve me."

Another phenomenon in physiology deserves attention.

"There are some bushes scattered over the island, (Kayo-ani); but what particularly attracted my attention was, the amazing piles, or stacks, of the prickly pear, (*opuntia*, a species of the cactus.) The fruit was large, and in high perfection. We eat very plentifully of it; but my people were not a little surprised the next morning, on finding their urine appear as if it had been highly tinged with cochineal. No inconvenience

resulting from it, the fruit was constantly used by the crew during our continuance among the keys or islands."

It appears, therefore, that the juice of the Indian fig may be animalized into a crimson dye, by other processes than the digestion of the cochineal insect. Chemistry may hope one day to publish the scarlet-dyer's vademecum, or every man his own ingrainier.

Important maritime observations are recorded at page 254, page 257, page 265, and others; but this is not the expedient place for transcribing them.

The following short history of Florida may be convenient to our geographers.

"The discovery of East Florida is generally attributed to Juan Ponce de Leon, in 1512; but it is probable the eastern coast was discovered about fifteen years before that time by Sebastian Cabot. After the coast of East Florida had been discovered by Juan Ponce de Leon, the country was visited by a number of adventurers; but the first patent was obtained by Francis de Geray, who did not live to take possession of the province. Francis de Geray was succeeded by Luke Viscompte de Allyon, who visited Florida about the year 1524, and was succeeded by Pamphilo de Narvaez in 1528, or 1529, who died on the coast, and was succeeded by that celebrated adventurer, Fernando de Soto; who traversed both the Floridas, and part of our western country, from the year 1539 to 1542, and died at the forks of the Red river, or, as some writers state, on the Mississippi.

"The first permanent settlement in East Florida, was attempted by some French protestants in the year 1562, to secure to themselves a retreat from religious persecution. But as soon as the king of Spain received an account of the commencement of this infant settlement, he dispatched Don Pedro Malendez de Aviles into East Florida, with a considerable force to destroy it, which he effected in a most cruel and barbarous manner, in the year 1566, and established a colony at Saint Augustine.

"For this service, it appears that Malendez obtained a grant for all Florida, which grant included the whole coast on the gulf of Mexico, and as far north and east as Newfoundland; to which was added a number of privileges, for which he was to perform some signal services: one was to make a chart of the coast of Florida for the use of the Spanish navigators who visited those seas, but this service was never performed. Neither does it appear, that any measures were taken for that purpose until about 1718, when Don Gonzales Carrenza, the principal pilot of the Spanish fleet, undertook it, but his observations remained in manuscript, and were little known, until published in London, in the year 1740: they are, however, very imperfect.

Ann. Rev. Vol. III.

"In 1586, St. Augustine, the capital of the province, was taken and pillaged by sir Francis Drake; and, in 1665, it was again taken and plundered by captain Davis, who headed and commanded a body of Buccaneers. In 1702, an expedition was carried on against it by colonel Moore, governor of Carolina; his force consisted of five hundred English troops, and seven hundred Indians, with whom he besieged the city for three months without success, and then retired. Except those incidents, the history of East Florida, from the settling the colony in 1565, is little more than a succession of governors, until general Oglethorpe took possession of Georgia, which circumstance excited considerable jealousy at the court of Madrid, and a large force was sent against him, which he not only defeated, but, after various encounters, carried his conquests to the gates of St. Augustine, and laid siege to that city in 1740; but being badly supplied with almost every article necessary to give success to such an undertaking, he was obliged to relinquish his design.

"By the peace of 1763, the Floridas were ceded to his Britannic majesty George the third; but who, in consequence of the ill advised war he made upon his American colonies, now the United States, and which involved France, Holland and Spain in the contest, was reduced to the necessity, in 1783, of acknowledging the colonies independent states, and restoring the Floridas to his catholic majesty, who yet retains them."

Of the manners and subsistence of the alligator, a new particular is given.

"This being the season that the alligators, or American crocodiles, were beginning to crawl out of the mud and bask in the sun, it was a favourable time to take them, both on account of their torpid state, and to examine the truth of the report of their swallowing pine knots in the fall of the year, to serve them, on account of their difficult digestion, during the term of their torpor, which is probably about three months. For this purpose two alligators, of about eight or nine feet in length, were taken and opened, and in the stomach of each was found several pine and other knots, pieces of bark, and, in one of them, some charcoal; but exclusive of such indigestible matter, the stomachs of both were empty. So far the report appears to be founded in fact; but whether these substances were swallowed on account of their tedious digestion, and therefore proper during the time those animals lay in the mud, or to prevent a collapse of the coats of the stomach, or by accident, owing to their voracious manner of devouring their food, is difficult to determine.

"The alligator has been so often, and so well described, and those descriptions so well known, that other attempts have become unnecessary. It may, nevertheless, be proper to

remark, that so far as the human species are concerned, the alligators appear much less dangerous, than has generally been supposed, particularly by those unacquainted with them. And I do not recollect meeting but with one well authenticated fact of any of the human species being injured by them in that country (where they are very numerous), and that was a negro near New Orleans, who while standing in the water sawing a piece of timber, had one of his legs dangerously wounded by one of them. My opinion on this subject is founded on my own experience. I have frequently been a witness to Indians, including men, women, and children, bathing in rivers and ponds, where those animals are extremely numerous, without any apparent dread or caution: the same practice was also pursued by myself and people, without caution, and without injury."

A copious appendix contains the diary of all the astronomical, thermometrical, and meteorological observations which were made during the survey: they are very numerous. Maps of the Ohio, of the Mississippi, and of the boundary-line along the north of Florida, are delineated on a convenient scale. The eastern limit of Louisiana, for it is here presumed to extend beyond the great river, has neither been defined, nor surveyed.

Before the conclusion Mr. Ellicott speculates much at length on the causes of yellow fever. He dwells insufficiently on the want of neatness. In Philadelphia the privies are unpaved, and taint the well-water: there are no common sewers, there are no water-pipes to conduct the element of cleanliness into every house. The personal habits of the Americans are not nice: the writer has seen merchants in the higher lines of business, on board a ship on its passage from the

Thames to North America, lend each other the same tooth-brush warm from the mouth without any apparent feeling of impropriety: in common with other gothic nations the Americans drink of the same glass or tankard with their neighbours unhesitatingly.

This work is essential to the geographer, who will find many hitherto unrecorded latitudes and longitudes ascertained with satisfactory precision. It is instructive to the statist, who may glean valuable particulars relative to the fringe of back-settlements, which are gradually naturalizing the English language along the banks of the Ohio (the Americans pronounce Oyo) and the Mississippi. It is amusing to the general reader, but would admit of considerable abbreviation without any loss of interest; it has the dry journal-form of a voyage round the world, the heaviness of a log-book. This volume will long be appealed to as authority on public occasions; it is in every sense an official publication; it will therefore permanently impose names on places yet in embryo. One is tempted to wish that the author had more frequently preferred the Indian and the Spanish names to the English, because they are more euphonious—Nogalez rather than Walnut-hills, and Rionegro than Big-black. Long vowels and vowel-endings are so scarce in our language, that every opportunity should be seized of immingling the luxuries of the ear: besides, the harsh and consonantal appellations of geography are always mutilated by foreigners; so that letters are the oftener misdirected and miscarried, because a town's name is unharmonious.

ART. IV. *An Excursion in France and other Parts of the Continent of Europe; from the Cessation of Hostilities in 1801, to the 13th of December 1803: Including a Narrative of the unprecedented Detention of the English Travellers in that Country as Prisoners of War.* By CHARLES MACLEAN, M. D. 8vo. pp. 304.

IN the preface to this volume Dr. Maclean warns us against expecting a regular description of cities, towns, and countries, or of the manners and customs of their inhabitants; he contents himself with sketches, unconnected traits of public characters and proceedings, which, in some cases, have come exclusively under his own observation. The laudable motive which led this gentleman to Paris is thus explained in his own words:

"It had long been my favourite wish to have an opportunity of proving by experiment what I had previously learnt from an induction of reasoning, that maladies, usually called epidemic and pestilential, are not in their nature contagious, and that, under a due application of scientific principles, they easily admit of a cure. To undertake, as a simple individual, an investigation of this magnitude, I knew to be a very arduous task. But my zeal overcame my judgment, and I determined, in September, 1800, to accompany Mr. Windham, then

British envoy at the court of Tuscany, to Florence; with a view to embrace the first opportunity of passing from thence to the Levant, in order to put my doctrines to the test of experiment in the plague; a project in which that gentleman promised to aid me as much as should lay in his power. But on our arrival at Vienna, we learnt that the French troops had entered Tuscany, which of course for that time frustrated my plan of going to Italy."

At this period a terrible epidemic prevailed at Cadiz, and Dr. Maclean waiting to proceed thither, presented a memorial to Don Alonzo, the Spanish ambassador at the court of Vienna, begging permission to proceed to Cadiz and expose himself to every risk of what is called contagion for the purpose of establishing the truth of his theory, and endeavouring to cure, by a novel mode of treatment, those persons who were labouring under the disease. His excellency received Dr. Maclean with politeness, and lamented his inability to furnish him with the necessary passports without first writing for permission to his court. Dr. M. truly predicted that the delay thus occasioned would frustrate his views: he therefore returned from Vienna to Hamburg, and addressed a memorial to the duke of Portland, expressing a desire to obtain a *special commission* for the purpose of applying himself exclusively to the investigation of these disorders; he concludes by stating that, "as the possession of Egypt may soon afford the opportunity of a practical investigation," he should be proud of an appointment which would enable him to pursue it. The arrangement already made for Egypt, however, did not admit of any new medical appointments; and Dr. Maclean flattering himself that those services which had been declined by his own country would be gratefully accepted in France, where scientific projects "were so splendidly encouraged and patronised, at least in the journals," continued in the practice of his profession in Hamburg, till the preliminary articles of peace between Great Britain and France were signed. He instantly repaired to Paris, and then presented a memorial on the subject to the minister of the interior, which was referred to *L'Ecole de Medecine de Paris*: the plan was conceived to be of too extensive a nature to be carried into execution, and of less interest to France

than to those countries which had great commercial connexions with the Levant.

"The plan was simply this: 'To establish an institution at Constantinople, or some other part of the Levant, for the treatment and investigation of the plague: that the funds necessary for this institution should be provided by means of voluntary subscriptions of governments and of individuals: that it should be under the superintendence of all the foreign ambassadors at Constantinople for the time being, and of one of the members of the Ottoman government: that the Sublime Porte should be invited to allot a certain district of land for the establishment of the necessary buildings, &c.; and to confer on it certain privileges and immunities, such as could be accorded without offence to any of the laws or customs of the country, &c.'"

This projected establishment had the double object in view, first, of proving, by the application of principles to practice, that medicine is a science, and not a conjectural art—a fact, it must be observed, which could require no proof at this time of day; and secondly, to shew that plague is not contagious, but depends on the states and vicissitudes of the atmosphere; and that it is easily capable of being cured.

When Dr. Maclean found that his schemes were unsupported, he had some thoughts of engaging in private practice, but he assures us that medicine is in a more degraded state in France, both as an art and a profession, than in any other civilized country of Europe: operative surgery, indeed, is carried to a considerable degree of excellence, but the remark is very just that "the knowledge of rendering operations unnecessary is of infinitely more importance than a dexterity in performing them."

This is altogether a book of outlines: Dr. Maclean seems to have taken out his pocket-book and made a sketch of this, that, and the other, and in the same unconnected, unfinished manner do they now appear before the public. Dismissing plague, pestilence, and medicine, we are now presented with random conjectures on the changes which will take place when the imperial tyrant is hurled from his throne, Dr. Maclean assuming it as indisputable, that the present state of things cannot continue long. We really are not so sanguine in our hopes of change: but are compelled to believe that Bonaparte is more firmly seated than Dr. Maclean is aware of. His as-

assumption of the consulate for life was certainly an unpopular act: but he braved the unpopularity with impunity and triumph. The restoration of the catholic religion has given Bonaparte a great accession of strength; he has flattered the vanity of his subjects by raising France to the rank of an empire, and by the high dignities which he has prodigally bestowed, he has created a greater interest in supporting the present system of things, than has ever been approached by any who have taken the rule since the death of Louis XVI. Of what power external or internal is the tyrant afraid? he can assassinate Pichegru and sentence to imprisonment Moreau himself with impunity. If any counter-revolution is effected, it will probably come from the Jacobins: Camille Jourdan had the courage to oppose the assumption of hereditary empire. But Bonaparte will caress and conciliate when it is not in his power to subdue or intimidate. The patronage of Bonaparte is enormous: lord Bacon asserts that knowledge is power: Bonaparte finds that patronage is power, and he is very good authority.

Concerning the detention of the English as prisoners at the breaking out of the war, Dr. Maclean has given few or no particulars that have not been published in our daily journals. Bonaparte is supposed to have been deceived as to the number of English within the territories of the republic at the time of his decree against them: Dr. Maclean says, that there is reason to believe their number never exceeded one thousand, and that Bonaparte would not have incurred the odium of the measure, if he had been rightly informed of the insignificance of the advantage to be derived from it. It seems that the members of the French government were themselves ashamed of it, so much so, that Dr. Maclean believes they only wished for a decent pretext to allow individuals an opportunity of departing without giving them express permission. The atrocious circumstance belonging to this detention was its treachery: for weeks before lord Whitworth left Paris all the journals were inviting the English to remain in France by the strongest assurances of protection and respect. When it is considered that these journals are notoriously at the disposal of that government, which, within ten days after his lordship's

departure from Paris, published a decree of detention against the very persons who had thus been induced to confide in its honour and hospitality, it is impossible not to feel indignant at so gross a violation of the faith which is common among all civilized nations.

The French say that this decree was first issued simply as a retaliation for the ships and crews belonging to France, which were stopped in England before the declaration of hostilities. Dr. Maclean contends that the captains "knew or ought to have known that it is the custom in England, as soon as the government have determined on war, to lay an embargo on all vessels belonging to the enemy in their ports; and that they ought to have gone away in time." Is Dr. Maclean of opinion then that the precedent now set by France of violating the rights of hospitality will justify the violation of them another time? Is he of opinion, if all the English who may be within the French territories at the breaking out of any future war, are detained as prisoners, that it would be a sufficient excuse for the French government to say to them, "You know, or ought to have known that it is our custom, as soon as we have determined upon war, to detain all subjects of the enemy prisoners; and therefore you ought to have gone away in time?" In England, however, no false expectations of protection were held out: in France our unfortunate countrymen were in a most base and foul manner deluded and betrayed.

Surely the English government has been remiss in their behaviour towards these individuals: they refused to acknowledge them as lawful prisoners of war, and thus deprived them of the most distant hope of returning to their own country, except by escape. It would have been worthy the magnanimity of a British government therefore, nay, it became a duty incumbent on them, to support in a liberal manner these unfortunate prisoners. Some of them are persons of rank and fortune, but many others are in an opposite situation of life, and stand in great need of assistance. Dr. Maclean compliments our government on its humanity, that when a representation to this effect was made by Mr. Robson, the sum of 2000*l.* was sent for their relief! the humanity of a government which scatters its millions with unconcern, in sending 2000*l.* for the main-

tenance of perhaps five hundred of its subjects who are made unlawful prisoners in a foreign country !*

Dr. Maclean obtained his passport in a manner very agreeable to his feelings and very honourable to his character, and proceeded in the diligence to Bourdeaux. They who have never seen a French diligence can form no adequate conception of its clumsiness : its pace is about a league an hour. How should it proceed faster ? " Besides the passengers in the cabriolet, and on top, we were ~~seven~~ persons inside," not to mention two children which were on the laps of their mothers, both far gone with child ! The diligence carries goods—that in which Dr. Maclean travelled was overloaded, top-heavy, and broke down. Dr. M. was informed that the government had it in contemplation to make the carriage of goods and the carriage of travellers henceforth two distinct branches of commerce throughout the republic, and that for the latter, eighty diligences upon a new construction were actually building in Paris. We are glad to learn that such an improvement is in contemplation.

It ought to be mentioned, perhaps, in support of Dr. Maclean's opinion, as to the insecurity of Bonaparte's elevation, that " the consular family did not appear to have a single friend in the country through which our traveller passed ; and that a gentleman of Poitiers, who had served in the royal army in Germany, and was a passenger in the diligence, assured Dr. M. that the people at Poitiers " were generally disaffected to the present government, and that the same spirit pervaded all that part of the country." It must be added, however, that many of the *ci-devant* nobility reside in the town of Poitiers on account of the cheapness of living in that part of the country. The following remark is of importance :

" The people, however, as we approached the sea, began to complain of the effects which the war had already produced.

" This day we met with a great number of waggons loaded with cotton and wool, which upon enquiry we found were destined for the Low Countries. Since navigation had been impeded by the war, the manufacturers of

Brabant have been obliged to get their cotton and wool by land from Bourdeaux. The additional expence of carriage, thus occasioned, if there were no other unfavourable circumstance, would be sufficient to preclude the manufactures of France from any kind of competition with those of Great Britain. It seems even probable that so great an augmentation in the price of raw materials, as must arise from a distant land-carriage, together with the diminished sale for manufactured goods, owing to the circumstances of the war, and the want of capital and confidence generally prevalent in France, will occasion, in no long time, the total ruin of the cotton and woollen manufactures of the country. This is a lamentable consideration ; but the people have the ambition of their government and their own blindness entirely to blame."

Bourdeaux is in population the second, and in commercial importance the first city of France ; it contains many foreign merchants of all nations, but principally English, Germans, and Americans. Dr. Maclean says, in many an irksome walk along the Chartrons (that quarter of the town which is chiefly inhabited by merchants) the languages which were spoken on all sides made him sometimes doubtful whether he was not in Hamburg or London rather than in a town of France. Flags of all nations except those of England, were to be seen flying ; and in December 1803, there were not less than from thirty to forty American vessels in the river.

Theatres, gaming-houses, &c. are proportionately as numerous in Bourdeaux as at Paris : women frequent them, and for that purpose often dress themselves in men's clothes.† In this dress they frequently go to the theatres. Dr Maclean tells us that a man accustomed to attend the playhouses, upon his entrance generally looks round to see whether his neighbours be male or female. To ascertain this, he does not think of looking at the dress, but at the hair, breasts, fingers, and the general shape and air ; if there be any doubt he attends also to the voice and manner !

Dr. Maclean gives the same account of the state of religion in France as Mr. Holcroft : Churches are only frequented by old women and children. As the emperor too seems determined to keep the

* Dr. M. supposes that there are at present between 400 and 500 English detained as prisoners within the limits of the republic.

† We have seen women at the gaming-tables in the Palais Royal without the disguise of male apparel.

church in a state of subserviency by keeping it poor, no respectable families now send their sons to be educated for the ministerial function. When the present race of priests, who are chiefly old men, pass away, the vacancies therefore, it is to be feared, must be filled, if filled at all, by low-bred, illiterate, and unworthy persons.

In an appendix to these sketches, which are drawn with considerable strength and spirit, Dr. Maclean has guarded his countrymen against indulging the dangerous idea that Bonaparte has no serious intention to invade this country; but that, by keeping us constantly in a state of alarm and preparation, he will endeavour to exhaust our resources and our patience. This game of *draw the well dry*, must, it is obvious, be fatal to France: Bonaparte will not play it; he must be sensible, that by protracting the combat, the total ruin must ensue of what still re-

mains to France of her manufactures and commerce; "together with the consequent annihilation of almost the very elements of her naval power. How can there be navigation where there is no commerce? How can there be seamen where ships cannot go out of port?"

We are certainly far from being desirous to see any relaxation of vigilance and preparation on this side the water: but what cares Bonaparte for the commerce and manufactures of France? He knows that the thunder of the British cannon would shake, would overthrow the throne he sits on: he has, no doubt, pledged himself to make the attempt, but we are still of opinion that he would be very glad to disengage himself from the shackles of a hasty and rash promise; and that he never will make the attempt until he is compelled to it by the murmurs of a discontented people.

ART. V. *An Account of Travels into the Interior of Southern Africa. In which is considered, the Importance of the Cape of Good Hope to the different European Powers, as a naval and military Station; as a Point of Security to our Indian Trade and Settlements during a War, and as a territorial Acquisition and commercial Emporium in Time of Peace.* By JOHN BARROW, Esq. 4to. pp. 452.

MR. Barrow's former volume was published before the commencement of our labours. It is one of the best books of travels in our own or in any language, and far, very far, the best account of the country which it describes, often as that country has been described. We were therefore as much gratified as surprised at perceiving, after an interval of three years, a second part announced to a work which we had considered as complete. In his first publication the author studiously avoided all political discussions, not only because they might at that time, for many reasons, have been unseasonable or indiscreet; but because he then conceived there was but one opinion with regard to the real value of the Cape of Good Hope, if considered in the single view of its being a barrier and a point of security to our Indian settlements. During the short space of time which has elapsed since that publication, the Cape has been ceded to its former possessors, and with these possessors we are once more at war. The object, therefore, of Mr. Barrow now is to prove what he then took for granted, *that the Cape was an acquisition by which*

our political and commercial interests in the East Indies had been secured and promoted.

The importance of such local information to the well administration of government he illustrates by the example of France, by the works of Anquetil du Perron, of Olivier, Volney, and Sonnini, the mission of Sebastiani, and the infamous employment of the *commercial agents*. We rejoice to see this truth enforced in a work published, and perhaps undertaken, under the auspices of lord Melville, in the hope that his colleagues, as well as himself, may be awakened to a sense of its utility. When one of those colleagues was applied to by men, whose high character and peculiar knowledge ought to have ensured the success of such an application, to grant a vessel for the purpose of bringing away certain relics of antiquity from Greece, where-with our universities might be enriched, and perhaps excited to something of that classical enthusiasm which always tends to raise the national character in itself, as well as in the estimation of Europe; the answer of the minister is said to have been perfectly consistent with the deadness of his heart, and the short-sighted-

ness of all his views. If, said he, you have any thing to propose for the advantage of commerce, I shall readily listen to it. But literature may take care of itself. He may be assured that literature will take care of itself, and of him too. Perhaps this volume may be regarded as the omen of a more enlightened and liberal system; perhaps it may have been discovered that parliament, though omnipotent, is not necessarily omniscient also, and that the strength of government must ultimately be in proportion to its knowledge.

In this part of Mr. Barrow's work we are sorry to perceive some disgraceful comments upon a very natural and very praise-worthy passage in the duc de Liancourt's Travels. Indeed, whenever he mentions the French it is in a style neither honourable to his temper or his understanding. If the French have actually translated the *Encyclopédie des Connaissances humaines* into the language of Cochin China, they have set us an example of doing good, which it would well become us to follow. Nay, even if, as he asserts, they have circulated the doctrines of the Rights of Man in the language of some of the country powers in India, selfish as the motive may have been, the effect will not be the less beneficial. What might be poison for the healthy is medicine for the diseased. If Jacobinism were to destroy the system of casts in Hindostan, and atheism to subvert the inquisition in Spain, should we not rejoice that, in the wide order of things, evil had thus been made subservient to good? The idolatry and priesthood of popery which darkens and degrades the catholic kingdoms of Europe, would in Asia or Africa be the best agents of civilization — Methodism, which threatens the existence of the established church in England, would in Ireland prove the best ally of the state. The plan of curing one disease by inoculating for another will not always be confined to medicine.

Mr. Barrow notices the inaccuracy of all the charts of the Cape coast. His exposure of Vaillant's villainous errors should be made as public as possible, for the dangerous consequences of such a fraud.

"With regard to the last-mentioned gentleman, I should not have noticed his map had he not endeavoured to impress the world with an idea of the great pains

that were taken in collecting the materials, and of the assistance he afterwards received, and the attention that was bestowed, in putting them together. And in order to add force, as he supposes, to the value of his observations, with a pretended zeal for the cause of humanity (pretended, because he knew that every line in his chart was false), he breaks out into the following apostrophe: 'Had my voyage been productive of no other good than that of preventing a single shipwreck, I should have applauded myself during my whole life for undertaking it!' The fact is, he has done little more, in the eastern part of his map, than copy from Sparrmann; and the whole to the northward of Saint Helena Bay is a work of fancy. Two instances will be sufficient to shew how very little he is to be trusted. He places Camdeboo, and the beginning of the Snowy Mountains, in the latitude of about 28° south, instead of $32^{\circ} 15'$ south, an error of more than 290 English miles! And he makes the Orange River descend from the northward, nearly parallel to the coast, which, in fact, takes its rise near the eastern coast, and ascends towards the north-west. Messrs. Truter and Somerville, who, two years ago, penetrated farther into the interior of southern Africa than any Europeans had ever done, calculated that they crossed this river in about $29^{\circ} 0'$ south, and between 25° and 24° east of Greenwich. I skirted its banks from $29^{\circ} 40'$ to $30^{\circ} 15'$ south, and between the longitudes of $25^{\circ} 45'$ and $26^{\circ} 30'$ east, which shews, as I said before, that its course is north-westerly. Monsieur le Vaillant cannot be offended at my pointing out his mistakes, as he himself has observed, that 'a traveller ought to conceal nothing that may lead to error in the sciences.'

The first chapter consists of preliminary matter, and had it been prefixed to a first volume would probably have appeared in the more appropriate form of a preface. The second contains an account of a military expedition to the Kaffer frontier, to quell the revolted boors. The campaign, if so it may be called, is too insignificant to admit of any detail here; but many interesting particulars occur to elucidate the character of the Boors, the Hottentots and the Kaffers.

Long experience has evinced that nothing is so miserably deteriorated by transplanting as a Dutchman. In his own country he is highly useful and highly respectable, industrious, methodical, honest; our English merchants bear testimony to his good qualities, and look upon their trade with Holland as the safest, so far as relates to the character of those with whom they deal. But what are they abroad? let witness

Amboyna, and the thirty thousand Chinese massacred at Batavia, and the atrocious cruelties perpetrated at Surinam. Spain and Portugal have acted cruelly in their colonies heretofore, and all the instances of fervent and disinterested faith, of individual virtue, and of national heroism wherewith their annals abound, have not been sufficient to counteract the painful and indignant feelings which the history of their tyranny excited against them. It should however be remembered that that system of tyranny has long since ceased, and that in the present time the Spanish colonists are of all slave-holders the most humane. But neither the increase of knowledge and of humanity, which has been its consequence, nor the general indignation of enlightened men, recorded in writings to stir up a like indignation in all posterity, have in the slightest degree tempered or abated the cold calculating persevering barbarity of the Asiatic and African and American Dutch.

Of all degenerated Dutchmen the African Boor is the most thoroughly detestable: the breed, indeed, is the most abominable that can be conceived; the greater part are the descendants of soldiers in German regiments; the very scum and outcasts of society; Prussians, Hanoverians, Flemings and Poles, deserters from the armies of their respective countries, or of French refugees: all these engrafted upon a Dutch stock, and naturalized by the adoption of Dutch manners and Dutch language, have produced a precious and peculiar mixture. The Mohammedans have a legend that when Noah was embarked upon the waters of the deluge, the litter accumulated so fast in spite of all the exertions of all his family, that nothing but a miracle could have preserved the ark from sinking: that miracle was accordingly wrought, and from the collected filth of his live stock a boar and sow were created; for those unclean beasts had not before existed, who kept the vessel clean during the rest of its voyage by their useful appetite. The tale might serve as a mythological allegory of the origin of these Cape-boors, and of their character.

"The sanguinary character of many of the African colonists may be owing, perhaps, in a certain degree, to the circumstance of their having been soldiers in German regiments serving abroad; where the least relaxation from a rigid system of dis-

cipline is followed up by the greatest severity of punishment. The soldier, having served out the time of his engagement, which at most is five years, is at liberty to demand his discharge. If he is able to read and write, however indifferently, he usually finds employment, as school-master, in a boor's family; if not qualified for such a situation, he either engages as a sort of servant, or hires himself to some butcher of the town, who sends him to the extremities of the colony to collect sheep and cattle. In all these situations he has the opportunity of making an intimate acquaintance with the boors, which generally leads to his marriage with one of their daughters. The parents of the girl spare him a few sheep and cattle to comment with, on condition of their receiving half the produce as interest, until he can repay the capital; he looks out for a place, as it is called, no matter where, whether within or without the limits of the colony, and builds for himself a sort of hut; with his cattle are consigned to him, at the same time, and on the same terms, as he supposes, a few little Hottentot children to look after them; and on these little creatures, in the plenitude of his power, subject to no control, he exercises the same severity of punishment that his own irregularities had incurred when he was in the ranks.

"A very considerable portion of the inhabitants of the town is composed of people of this description. Grown into affluence by the general prosperity that followed the conquest of the settlement, serjeants, and corporals, and trumpeters, are now men of the first consequence, keep their slaves, and horses, and carriages, and wallow in all the luxuries that the colony affords. But though they aspire to the rank of gentlemen, they cannot disguise the cloven foot. They are gross in their manners, and vulgar in their conversation. Their language in the presence of women, is so coarse and indecent, as would not be tolerated among civilized society."

* * *

"By indolent habits, excess of food, and fondness for indulging in sleep, they become no less gross in their persons, than vulgar in their manners. A young lady described the Cape and its inhabitants in very few words. *De menschen zyn moie dik en vet de huizen moei wit en groen.* 'The people are all nice and plump; the houses are prettily white-washed and painted green.' I believe there is no country in the world that affords so large a proportion of unwieldy and bulky people; and I am certain there is none where the animal appetites are indulged with less restraint, the most predominant of which are eating and drinking, or where the powers of body or mind are capable of less exertion. 'When the devil catches a man idle he generally sets him to work,' is a proverb which is every day exemplified at the Cape of Good Hope. They are active only in mischief;

and crimes against morality meet with applause if the end be successful. A man, who in his dealings can cheat his neighbour, is considered as a *slim mensch*, a clever fellow; even stealing is not regarded as criminal, nor does it materially affect the character of the thief. Truth is not held as a moral virtue, and lying passes for ingenuity."

A Cape-boor never works, his whole year is holiday; shooting is the only active amusement to which he ever rouses himself, and then he always rides out; a Hottentot boy runs after him to carry and charge his gun, and he fires from the saddle. The English had repaired the road through one of the *klooven* or mountain passes, which was scarcely passable for a waggon. Such is the uncouth temper of the people, and so adverse to every thing that tends to public benefit, that, rather than pay the trifling toll levied for this improvement, many chose to make a circuit of two days' journey and pass another *kloof* still more difficult. The backsettlers have totally lost the characteristic cleanliness which in Europe distinguishes the Hollanders; they equal the lowest race of savages in filth and contented barbarity, and in cruelty surpass the most ferocious.

"A large iron pot serves both to boil and broil their meat. They use no linen for the table; no knives, forks, nor spoons. The boor carries in the pocket of his leather breeches a large knife, with which he carves for the rest of the family, and which stands him in as many and various services as the little dagger of Hudibras.

"Their huts and their persons are equally dirty, and their whole appearance betrays an indolence of body, and a low groveling mind. Their most urgent wants are satisfied in the easiest possible manner; and for this end they employ means nearly as gross as the original natives, whom they affect so much to despise. If necessity did not sometimes set the invention to work, the Cape-boor would feel no spur to assist himself in any thing; if the surface of the country was not covered with sharp pebbles, he would not even make for himself his skin shoes. The women, as invariably happens in societies that are little advanced in civilization, are much greater drudges than the men, yet are far from being industrious; they make soap and candles, the former to send to Cape Town in exchange for tea and sugar, and the latter for home-consumption. But all the little trifling things that a state of refinement so sensibly feels the want of, are readily dispensed with by the Cape-boor. Things cut from skins serve, on all occasions, as a *succedaneum* for soap; and the tendons of wild

animals divided into fibres are a substitute for thread. When I wanted ink, equal quantities of brown sugar and soot, moistened with a little water, were brought to me, and soot was substituted for a wafer.

"To add to the uncleanness of their huts, the folds or *kraals* in which their cattle remain at nights, are immediately fronting the door, and, except in the Sneewberg, where the total want of wood obliges them to burn dung out out like peat, these kraals are never on any occasion cleaned out; so that in old established places they form mounds from ten to twenty feet high. The lambing season commences before the rains finish; and it sometimes happens that half a dozen or more of these little creatures, that have been lambed over night, are found smothered in the wet dung. The same thing happens to the young calves; yet, so indolent and helpless is the boor, that rather than yoke his team to the waggon, and go to a little distance for wood to build a shed, he sees his stock destroyed from day to day, and from year to year, without applying the remedy which common sense so clearly points out, and which requires neither much expence nor great exertions to accomplish."

Of their cruelty we will adduce only one instance.

"The next house we halted at upon the road presented us with a still more horrid instance of brutality. We observed a fine Hottentot boy, about eight years of age, sitting at the corner of the house, with a pair of iron rings clenched upon his legs, of the weight of ten or twelve pounds; and they had remained in one situation for such a length of time, that they appeared to be sunk into the leg, the muscle being tumefied both above and below the rings. The poor creature was so benumbed and oppressed with the weight, that being unable to walk with ease, he crawled on the ground. It appeared, on enquiry, that they had been rivetted to his legs more than ten months ago. What was to be done in a case of such wanton and deliberate cruelty? It was scarcely in human nature to behold an innocent boy for ever maimed in so barbarous a manner; and at the same time to look upon the cold-blooded perpetrator, without feeling a sentiment of horror mingled with exasperation, — a sentiment that seemed to say it would serve the cause of humanity to rid the world of such a monster. The fellow shrunk from the enquiries of the indignant general; he had nothing to allege against him but that he had always been a worthless boy; he had lost him so many sheep; he had slept when he ought to watch the cattle, and such like frivolous charges of a negative kind, the amount of which, if true, only proved that his own interest had sometimes been neglected by this child.

"Determined to make an example of the

author of such unparalleled brutality, the general ordered him instantly to yoke his oxen to his waggon, and, placing the boy by his side, to drive directly to his head-quarters. Here he gave orders to the furrier of the 8th regiment of light dragoons to strike off the irons from the boy, an operation that required great nicety and attention, and to clench them as tight as he could on the legs of his master, who roared and bellowed in a most violent manner, to the inexpressible satisfaction of the bye-standers, and, above all, to that of the little sufferer just relieved from torment. For the whole of the first night his lamentations were incessant; with a Stentorian voice a thousand times he vociferated, '*Myn God! is dat een maniere em Christian mensch te handelen!*' 'My God, is this a way to treat Christians!' His, however, were not the agonies of bodily pain, but the bursts of rage and resentment on being put on a level with one, as they call them, of the *Zwarte Natie*, between whom and the *Christian Mensch* they conceive the difference to be fully as great as between themselves and their cattle, and whom, indeed, they most commonly honour with the appellation of *Zwarte Vee*, black cattle. Having roared for three days and as many nights, at first to the great amusement, but afterwards to the no less annoyance, of the whole camp, he was suffered to go about his business on paying a heavy penalty in money for the use of the boy, whom he had abused in so shameful a manner."

We have selected this single example from many, because the horror which the crime excites is in some degree compensated by vindictive pleasure at its punishment. Unhappily this volume affords many examples of like barbarity, or even worse, but none of such righteous retribution. To enumerate them would be inflicting useless pain. It is sufficiently characteristic of these wretches to say, that in this petty war with the insurgent Hottentots and Kaf-fers, orders were issued by the landrost of one of the districts to the commandant of the boors, that no unnecessary cruelty should be exercised upon the prisoners; and that the dead carcasses of the enemy should not be violated; as had usually been the practice of the evil-disposed boors, by cutting them with knives, lashing them with waggon whips, and hacking them with stones.

Some of the original laws of the settlement have contributed to barbarize the colonists, or at least to impede their improvement. The system of loan lands, which is the most ancient tenure, has prevented the growth of villages.

"When application was intended to be made for the grant of a leasehold farm, the person applying stuck down a stake at the place where the house was meant to be erected. The overseer of the division was then called to examine that it did not encroach on the neighbouring farms; that is to say, that no part of any of the surrounding farms were within half an hour's walk of the stake; or in other words, that a radius of about a mile and a half, with the stake as a centre, swept a circle which did not intersect any part of the adjoining farms. In such case the overseer certified that the loan farm applied for was tenable, otherwise not. And as it generally happened that the site of the house was determined by some spring or water-course, the stake was so placed that the circumference of the circle described left a space between the new, and some adjoining farm, of one, two, or more miles in diameter. This intermediate space, if less than three miles in diameter, was considered as not tenable, and, consequently, if any person (willing to pay the established rent for a smaller quantity of land than government allowed) applied for such intermediate piece of ground, his application was sure to be rejected. Whether the government had any design of dispersing the people by such an absurd system, under the idea of keeping them more easily in subjection, I can't pretend to say; but it thought proper to encourage the continuance of the system, which is in full force to this moment."

The first step towards civilizing mankind is to collect them together, and grouse their settled habitations; but where this dissocializing system prevails, no such aggregation can take place. By another curious law, whenever a settler thought proper to marry, he must bring his mistress to Cape Town for the ceremony, though their dwelling should be at the remotest extremity of the colony. Oftentimes the young woman is intrusted to the care of her future husband, as her parents cannot accompany her on such a long journey; and it very commonly happens that he debauches her on the way, and leaves her to return how she can: he himself pays a certain fine for his breach of faith, and the young woman is not considered as much the worse for such a misadventure. All this must tend to occasion or perpetuate a general coarseness of feeling, and laxity of morals. The old punishments, like those under the French monarchy, were calculated to make a nation cruel: every species of torture that malignant and diabolical ingenuity could invent, was exercised upon the criminal (if he happened to be black) as long as any signs

of life remained in him; he was then torn limb from limb, and the several parts hung upon posts erected for the purpose, in the most public parts of the high road. The implements of torture used at these executions, captain Percival tells us, were destroyed by our people, as disgraceful to human nature: a noble anecdote of the English character, and worthy to be preserved in history. The practice of torture too, to extort confession, was abolished by the conquerors. It was productive of a singular consequence: by the laws of Holland, as of some other countries, confession of the crime is indispensably necessary to the execution of the sentence; but most of the condemned criminals, during our government, finding that this confession was no longer extorted from them by torments, persisted in denying the crimes of which they were convicted; preferring a life of hard labour, with a diet of bread and water, to an untimely death.

From these *Christian Mensch*, as they think proper to call themselves, and believe themselves to be, let us turn to the original natives of Caffraria, a country, says old sir Thomas Herbert, "full of black-skinned wretches, rich in cattle, abounding with the best minerals and with elephants; but miserable in demonomy." As for their demonomy, if the good old knight could have foreseen what they now suffer from the *Christian Mensch*, he would have thought less of their possible danger from the devil. The black skin indeed is a more irremediable evil; we may hope to change their religion, and save them from the devil;—but who is to change their complexion, and save them from the slave-merchants? for till the Ethiop can be washed white, lord Liverpool, and the duke of Clarence, and the Dutch boors, will insist upon it, that the *Zwarte Natie*, the black people, are to be considered as *Zwarte Vee*, black cattle.

If Mr. Barrow is to be credited; and never have we perused an author whose good sense, good feelings, and deliberating judgment, entitled him more fully to unlimited credit; a more gentle or docile race than the poor Hottentots does not exist, nor any class of men, savage or civilized, in whom the moral sense seems to be less degraded.

"A Hottentot is capable of strong attachments; with a readiness to acknowledge, he

possesses the mind to feel, the force of a benevolent action. I never found that any little act of kindness or attention was thrown away upon a Hottentot; but, on the contrary, I have frequently had occasion to remark the joy that sparkled in his countenance, whenever an opportunity occurred to enable him to discharge his debt of gratitude. I give full credit to all that Monsieur le Vaillant has said with regard to the fidelity and attachment he experienced from this race of men; of whom the natural character and disposition seem to approach nearer to those of the Hindus than any other nation."

Mr. Barrow fell in with a large party of these people most whimsically accoutred. Some wore large cocked hats, with green or blue breeches of Dutch make, the rest of the body naked; some had jackets of cloth over their sheepskin covering; and others had sheep-skins thrown over linen shirts. They readily declared that they had been plundering the boors.

"On making enquiry into the particulars of the unpleasant transaction that had taken place, one of the Hottentots, called *Klaas Stuurman*, or *Nicholas the Helmsman*, whom they had selected for their chief, stepped forwards, and, after humbly entreating us to hear him without interruption, began a long oration, which contained a history of their calamities and sufferings under the yoke of the boors; their injustice, in first depriving them of their country, and then forcing their offspring into a state of slavery; their cruel treatment on every slight occasion, which it became impossible for them to bear any longer; and the resolution they had therefore taken to apply for redress before the English troops should leave the country. That their employers, suspecting their intention, had endeavoured to prevent such application by confining some to the house, threatening to shoot others if they attempted to escape, or to punish their wives and children in their absence. And, in proof of what he advanced, he called out a young Hottentot, whose thigh had been pierced through with a large musquet ball but two days before, fired at him by his master for having attempted to leave his service. 'This act,' continued he, 'among many others equally cruel, resolved us at once to collect a sufficient force to deprive the boors of their arms, in which we have succeeded at every house which has fallen in our way. We have taken the superfluous clothing in lieu of the wages due for our services; but we have stripped none, nor injured the persons of any, though,' added he, shaking his head, 'we have yet a great deal of our blood to revenge.'

A party of these insurgents, (and

when that name is applied to men struggling against oppression, be it in Switzerland, or St. Domingo, or Caffraria, it is a most honourable appellation); a party of these insurgents having put a body of boors to flight, took their wives and children prisoners. No injury was offered them; but, on the contrary, as on all similar occasions, says Mr. Barrow, they were treated with respect. They even dispatched a Hottentot after the fugitives, to say that if they chose to ransom them for a small quantity of powder and lead, and a dozen head of cattle, they should instantly be delivered up. One of the party recognizing the Hottentot, thus sent to them, to have once been in his service, and recollecting he was now standing before him in the shape of an enemy, and defenceless, snatched up his musquet, and shot him dead on the spot. It was reported, and believed, that in consequence the women and children were all put to death; and these very boors who believed that this retaliation had been exercised upon their wives and children, went to an Englishman's house, which had been left undisturbed by the insurgents, plundered it, drank all the wine and spirits they could find there, and then fell to dancing upon the green. The prisoners, however, notwithstanding the murder of the messenger, were given up; for the negroes said to them, they disdained to take away the lives of the innocent; but they should soon find an opportunity of avenging the death of their countryman upon their husbands, together with the many injuries and oppressions under which they had so long been labouring.—Had this fact occurred in Grecian history, how often would it have been quoted for admiration!

The Kaffers, as of different origin, are of different character, yet possessing many of the same virtues. An open and manly deportment, says Mr. Barrow, free from suspicion, fear, or embarrassment, seems to characterize the Kaffer chiefs. Though extremely good humoured, benevolent, and hospitable, they are neither so pliant nor so passive as the Hottentots. A remarkable instance of courage and prompt resolution was displayed by these people, when they had been instigated by the rebel boors to attack general Vandeleur's camp. Finding it useless to oppose their long missile weapons against musquetry, they rushed forward with only the iron part of the

hassagay in their hands. They had perceived of how much greater advantage was a short weapon to a muscular arm, than a long missile spear, whose slow motion through the air makes it easily to be avoided.

Some curious and important information concerning the interior of their country is contained in the following extracts from the official report of the commissioners, sent by the British government in 1801, to endeavour to procure a supply of draught oxen.

“Passing through several large tracts of ground, that were laid out and cultivated like so many gardens, we arrived about noon at the city of Leetakoo, not a little astonished to find, in this part of the world, a large and populous city. We proceeded to the residence of the chief, whose name was Mooliabab, where we found him, with the elders of the place, seated on a plain that was enclosed with a wood . . . he offered us some curdled milk. After the reception he conducted us to his habitation, and introduced us to his wife and children; here also we saw numbers of women, who gazed at us with astonishment. His house, like all the rest of the town, was built in a circular form, being about sixteen feet in diameter. The bottom part, to the height of four feet from the ground, was stone laid in clay, and wooden spars erected at certain distances. On the east side of the circle, about the fourth part of the house was open, the other three parts entirely closed. A round pointed roof covered the whole in the form of a tent, well thatched with long reeds, or with the straws of the holcus. From the centre to the back part of the house, a circular apartment is made off, with a narrow entrance into it, where the head of the family takes his nightly rest; the other members of the family sleep in the fore part, or between the large and small circles of the house. All the houses were enclosed by palisades; and the space between these and the dwelling serves for a granary and store for their grain and pulse. These granaries were constructed in the form of oil jars, of baked clay, the capacity of each being at the least two hundred gallons; and they were supported on tripods, composed of the same material, which raised them about nine inches above the ground. They were covered with a round straw roof erected on poles, and sufficiently high to admit an opening into the jars, the upper edges of which were from five to six feet from the ground. We walked through the town, and observed that both within it, and on every side, were plantations of that species of mimosa which constitutes the principal food of the camelopardalis. We estimated the city to be, in its circumference, as large as Cape Town, with all the gardens of Table Valley; but it was

impossible to ascertain the number of houses, on account of the irregularity of the streets, and lowness of the buildings, but concluded they must amount somewhere between two and three thousand, of the same kind, but not so large, as that of the chief. The whole population, including men, women, and children, we considered to be from ten to fifteen thousand souls. Tracing our route from the last place in the Roggeveld, upon Mr. Barrow's map, and continuing the same scale, we calculated the situation of Leetakoo to be in latitude $26^{\circ} 30'$ south, and longitude $27^{\circ} 00'$ east from Greenwich."

"The commissioners, from whose report I have above quoted, were informed at Leetakoo that another powerful tribe of the same nation, called the Baroloos, dwelt at the distance of eight or ten days' journey farther to the northward. Reckoning the average of a day's journey to be twenty miles, we shall find the Baroloos inhabiting the country under the southern tropic; and we may conclude, from the following information which Mr. Truter received of this people, that they are not the last to the northward. He was told, 'That they were of a kind and friendly disposition; that their town was so extensive, that if a person set out in the morning from one extremity, and travelled to the other, he would not be able to return before the following day; that this town contained many thousand inhabitants; that the people were very ingenious in carving of wood, and that they had furnaces for smelting both copper and iron; that they were exceedingly rich in cattle; their gardens and lands were better cultivated, and their dwellings much superior to those of Leetakoo.' The Damaras also, whom I mentioned in my former travels to be in possession of the art of smelting copper from the ore, as well as I could collect from report, are inhabitants of the tropic; and they are complete Kaffers, differing in nothing from those on the eastern coast. I should suppose, therefore, that a line drawn from the 24th parallel of latitude on the east coast, to the 20th on the west, may mark the boundary, or nearly so, between the Kaffers and the negroes."

Of this interesting expedition we are encouraged to expect an account from Mr. Somerville.

The Kaffers seldom taste animal food, curdled milk is their chief diet; to this they sometimes add a few gramineous roots, berries of various kinds, the seeds of the *Strelitzia Regine*, and the pith of a large palm to which botanists have given the name of *Zamia*. Yet they are a tall and strong race, affording, says the author, a clear proof that animal food is by no means necessary to promote the growth of the human species, or to add strength of fibre to the mus-

cular parts of the body. The Dutch boors, who gorge themselves with animal food, are indeed enormously corpulent, but possess neither strength nor activity: on the contrary, the peasantry of the north-west coast of Ireland, a tall, and strong; and brawny people, subsist on butter milk and potatoes. It is fairly inferred from their example, and from the Kaffers, "that difference of climate has no power to alter the general principle, and that the same cause produces the same effect in the northern parts of Europe, and in the southern corner of Africa."

We have dwelt the more at length upon this interesting chapter, and the topics connected with it which occur in the other parts of the volume, as this is the part which most corresponds to the title of the work. The political chapters may be more briefly summed up, though matter so important is not to be lightly hurried over. Mr. Barrow proceeds to consider the importance of the Cape of Good Hope, as a military and naval station, in a commercial point of view, and as a depôt for the southern whale fishery.

The cession of this conquest is not so much to be imputed to Mr. Addington, as to the directors of the East Indian company: he only followed the example of his predecessors in consulting the interest and inclination of Leadenhall and Threadneedle streets, instead of, or in opposition to, the public. To prove that the retention was of no use whatever to their commerce or their concerns in India, they forbade the commanders of all the ships in their employ, in the most positive terms, to touch at the Cape, either in their outward or in their homeward passages; except such as, on the return voyage, were destined to supply the settlement with Indian goods. English seamen could bear this; but in war time the Lascars frequently constitute more than two thirds of the crew; their chief sustenance is rice, oil, and vegetables, and they are ill calculated to suffer a long privation of their usual diet, and still less to bear the cold of the southern ocean, especially in the winter season: the Cape was the half-way house to which they looked on for fresh supplies,—the resting place where a few days were to recruit their health and spirits. "And the event proved that such a half-way house, to such people, was indispensably necessary; for the direc-

tors were obliged to countermand their order, as far as it regarded those ships that were navigated by the black natives of India.' There occurred also one memorable instance of the importance of this resting place to European troops. The 22d and 34th regiments arrived there in a very sickly state. The *same ships*, after being properly washed, scoured, and fumigated, and the crews completely refreshed, carried on other troops to their destination, without the loss of a single man; and those regiments, which on their arrival had excited the pity of every one who saw them, became in the course of two years very fine regiments, fit for service in any part of the world. Upwards of two thousand men were shipped from the Cape at a few days' notice, to join the army of India against Tippoo; they took the field the day after their landing, and contributed very materially towards the conquest of Seringapatam. Twelve hundred men were sent to accompany sir Home Popham's expedition to the Red Sea; they also were embarked almost at a moment's warning, and were all landed at Cossir fit for immediate service.

Ten years ago the East India company had it in contemplation to establish a *dépôt* for their recruits.

"The principal regulations proposed for such depositary of troops, as contained in 'Historic View of Plans for British India,' were the following:—That the age of the company's recruits should be from twelve to fifteen or twenty, because at this period of life, the constitution was found to accommodate itself more easily to the different variations of climate. That the officers of the police should be empowered to transfer to the *dépôt* all such helpless and indigent youths as might be found guilty of misdemeanours and irregularities approaching to crimes—that the said officers of police, and others, should be authorized to engage destitute and helpless young men in a service, where they would have a comfortable subsistence, and an honourable employment—that the young men so procured should be retained in Great Britain, at a *dépôt*, for a certain time, in order to be instructed in such branches of education as would qualify for the duty of a non-commissioned officer, and in those military exercises which form them for immediate service in the regiments in India.' Now of all the places on the surface of the globe, for the establishment of such a *dépôt*, the Cape of Good Hope is pre-eminently distinguished. In the first place, there would be no difficulty in conveying them thither. In every month of the year,

the outward-bound ships of the company, private traders, or whalers, sail from England, and the fewer that each ship carried, the greater the probability would be that none died on the passage. And there is, perhaps, no place on the face of the earth in every respect so suitable as the Cape for forming them into soldiers. It possesses, among other advantages, three that are invaluable: healthiness of climate, cheapness of subsistence, and a favourable situation for speedy intercourse with most parts of the world, and particularly with India."

The Cape is the only military station that we have possessed of late years, where government was enabled to make a saving by feeding the soldier; that is, where the ration, or settled proportion of victuals, could be furnished for a sum of money less than that which is stopped out of his pay in consideration of it. The averaged annual expence of the military force there, during the seven years which we maintained it, amounted to 255,597*l.* 7*s.* But, says Mr. Barrow, it would be the height of absurdity to say, that even this sum, moderate as it is, was an additional expence to government in consequence of the capture of this settlement; since it is not only composed of the expences of maintaining the garrison, and the contingencies and extraordinary expenses of the army, but it includes likewise the pay, the subsistence, and the clothing of an army of five thousand men, who must have been fed, clothed, and paid in any other place. Even in peace, the half pay of the commissioned officers would alone have amounted to from 100,000*l.* to 150,000*l.* In peace, 25 or 30,000*l.* would be the extent of the contingent and extraordinary expences of the Cape, and if that sum could not be defrayed out of the expence of the colony, that colony indeed must be most miserably misgoverned. Mr. Barrow proves, from the receipts under lord Macartney, that we might reckon upon a net annual revenue of 100,000*l.* currency.

In the next chapter it is considered as a naval station: first, as a port for refreshing and refitting the ships of the East India company; secondly, as a station for ships of war, commanding the entrance into the Indian seas; thirdly, as affording, by its geographical position, a ready communication with every part of the globe. On points so apparently self-evident it would be needless to enlarge; nor need we enter minutely

into the inquiry to what extent the Cape might have been rendered advantageous to the interests of the British empire, as an emporium of eastern produce; as furnishing articles of export for consumption in Europe and the West Indies; and as taking in exchange for colonial produce, articles of British growth and manufacture. Mr. Barrow argues, and upon good grounds, that the company could supply their emporium at the Cape with the produce and manufactures of Great Britain, at so cheap a rate as to undersell any other nation; the Americans then, finding no longer a market there for their lumber cargoes, or *notions*, as they call them, would confine their export trade to articles of peltry and ginseng, which they might be induced to bring in exchange for tea, nankeen cloth, and muslins, at a moderate advanced price, such as would not make it worth their while to proceed to India and China, with which countries the company would then secure an exclusive trade. South America also offers a tempting market.

“ I observed in Rio de Janeiro a whole street, consisting of shops, and every shop filled with Indian muslins and Manchester goods, which, having come through Lisbon, were offered, of course, at enormous high prices. The trade, it is true, that subsists between England and Portugal, might render it prudent not materially to interfere with the Portuguese settlements; but the case is very different with regard to those of Spain. The mother country, more intent upon drawing specie from the mine, than in promoting the happiness of its subjects in this part of the world, by encouraging trade and honest industry, suffers them to remain frequently without any supply of European produce and manufacture. It is no uncommon thing, I understand, to see the inhabitants of Spanish America with silver buckles, clasps and buttons, silver stirrups and bits to their bridles, whilst the whole of their clothing is not worth a single shilling. The whalers who intend to make the coasts of Lima and Peru, are well acquainted with this circumstance, and generally carry out with them a quantity of ready made second-hand clothing, which they dispose of at a high rate in exchange for Spanish dollars. All this branch of trade might, with great advantage to both parties, be carried on from the Cape of Good Hope.”

Cape Madeira might be sold to the West Indies at less than one fourth of the expence of real Madeira; and a trade opened with New South Wales, exporting wine and clothing in exchange

for coals. The following facts evince that a whale fishery might advantageously be established there.

“ The vast number of black whales that constantly frequented Table Bay, induced a company of merchants at the Cape to establish a whale fishery, to be confined solely to Table Bay, in order to avoid the great expence of purchasing any other kind of craft than a few common whale boats. With these alone they caught as many whales as they could wish for; filling, in a short space of time, all the casks and cisterns with oil. Having gone thus far, they perceived that, although whale-oil was to be procured to almost any amount at a small expence, they were still likely to be considerable losers by the concern. The consumption of the colony in this article was trifling; they had no ships of their own to send it to Europe, nor casks to put it on board others for freight. Their oil, therefore, continued to lie as a dead stock in their cisterns, till the high premium of bills on England induced some of the British merchants to purchase, and make their remittances in this article. The price at the Cape was about forty six dollars the legger, or ten-pence sterling per gallon. Sometimes, indeed, ships from the southern whale fishery took a few casks to complete their cargoes, but in general they preferred to be at the trouble of taking the fish themselves, in or near some of the bays within the limits of the colony, where they are so plentiful, and so easily caught, as to ensure their success. It is remarked that all the whales which have been caught in the bays, are females; of a small size, generally from thirty to fifty feet in length, and yielding from six to ten tons of oil each. The bone is very small, and, on that account, of no great value.

“ The whale-fishing company, finding there was little probability of their disposing of the oil without a loss, thought of the experiment of converting it into soap. The great quantity of sea-weed, the *fucus maximus*, or *buccinalis*, so called from its resemblance to a trumpet, which grows on the western shore of Table Bay, suggested itself as an abundant source for supplying them with kelp or barilla; and from the specification of a patent obtained in London, for freeing animal oils of their impurities, and the strong and offensive smell that train-oil in particular acquires, they endeavoured to reduce to practice this important discovery. The experiment, however, failed; for though they succeeded in making soap, whose quality in the most essential points might, perhaps, be fully as good as was desired, yet the smell was so disgusting that nobody would purchase it. Unluckily for them there came in, also, just at that time, a cargo of prize soap, which was not only more agreeable to the smell, but was sold at a rate lower than the

company could afford to manufacture theirs of train oil. Being thus thwarted in all their views, they sold the whole concern to an English merchant, who was supposed to be turning it to a tolerable good account, when it was signified to him, by the present Dutch government, that the exclusive privilege of fishing on the coasts of Africa, within the limits of the colony, was granted to a company of merchants residing in Amsterdam; and, therefore, that he could not be allowed to continue the concern."

The Dutch themselves were not anxious that the Cape should be restored to them; Mr. Barrow tells us on good authority, that it was their intention, had peace continued, to have given it a fair trial of ten or twelve years, and if it should not then produce a surplus for the use of the state, to consider how to dispose of it to the best advantage. The French attempted, at the treaty of Amiens, to make it a free port, a measure which would be the most effectual injury to the concerns of the company. The directors, however, we are told, have seen their error in undervaluing so important a possession; and the means of reconquering it are pointed out in this work, and of improving it, when we shall have reconquered and resolved to retain it. As one of the most effectual measures of improvement, he recommends that ten thousand Chinese should be introduced, a race of men industrious and useful in every situation; nor would there be any difficulty in prevailing upon that, or a greater, number to leave a country where the pressure of want is so frequently and so severely felt; neither is the government of China so strict in preventing emigration as is usually supposed. That prevention was politic when it was enforced as a state maxim; but the practice of the government has changed with the circumstances, and emigrations take place every year to Manilla, Batavia, Prince of Wales's Island, and to other parts of the eastern world. Another and easier method of increasing the quantity of productive industry, is by collecting together the Hottentots, as the Moravians have done at Bavian's Kloof, and encouraging them to settle upon the waste lands. The drought to which the colony is subject, might be materially lessened by compelling the boors to enclose their estates, as by their original grants they were bound to do: hedge rows and trees would shelter the ground, and attract

moisture from the atmosphere. A family or two might be procured from Madeira, to improve the process of making wine. A Dutch merchant, on the restoration of the colony, obtained a grant of the whole district of Plettenberg's Bay, on condition of paying a certain annual rent. This district he meant to divide into an hundred parcels, and apportion out to as many industrious families, Dutch or German, who were to be sent over with stock, utensils, implements of husbandry, and every other article requisite to carry on the useful trades, and to till the ground. None of them was to be allowed a single slave; but it was recommended to encourage the Hottentots to every kind of useful labour. This plan, which would have proved so beneficial to the settlement at large, Mr. Barrow says, there is every reason to suppose would have succeeded to the height of the wishes of him who projected it. For such plans, adventurers enough might be procured in England among those who would willingly remove from hard winters in a cold country, and frequent scarcities; it would be quite as prudent to tempt the Irish there, as to make a present of them to the king of Prussia, for the eventual advantage of the French armies; and emigrants of a far better character are yearly driven from those estates in the Highlands, which their fathers had possessed before them from times beyond the memory of man, because the lairds find that their mutton can be brought to market, and their tenants cannot. We are in want of such colonies as might assist in alleviating the burthen of our poor rates, and the miseries of the poor. There is no room for our emigrants in the East, the West Indies are pestilential, Canada too cold, and at Botany Bay it must be confessed that the society is bad. Our swarms, therefore, are hived by America.

With respect to the boors, though, as Mr. Barrow says, it will indeed require a long time before any effectual steps can be adopted for their own improvement, they may immediately be prevented from impeding the amelioration of the Hottentots. Without gunpowder they would be at the mercy of the oppressed; and as it is in the power of government, by the small military post at Algoa Bay, completely to deprive them of this article, which is necessary to their very existence, they might be kept

in order by supplying them according to their good behaviour. An importation of hangmen, for their especial benefit, would also be attended with especial advantage. While the fear of the gallows was operating what it seems the fear of God will not, they might gradually be improved by the establishment of fairs, or markets, at fixed and rather frequent periods; for which Mr. Barrow points out Algoa Bay, Plettenbergs Bay, Mossel Bay, and Saldanha Bay, as fit stations. Then also the Kaffers, feeling their personal safety, would willingly bring their ivory, and leopard and antelope skins, in exchange for iron, beads, and tobacco, and perhaps coarse cloth, provided they were allowed to take the advantage of a fair and open market; and here the Hottentots would barter the honey which they collect in the woods. At these meeting-places villages would immediately grow, and towns at no distant period; and here schools should be established. In a few generations English might be made the language of the settlement, and the African boor might be reduced to the shape of man, and exalted to the character of a civilized being and a Christian.

"If any of the hints," says Mr. Barrow, "thrown out in this volume should prove beneficial to my country, by suggesting such measures as may avert the evils which now threaten our trade and settlements in the East, I shall consider the labour and application of three months not to have been bestowed in vain!" Three months is a time surprisingly short for the composition of a large quarto volume; we are far, however, from accusing this gentleman of hurrying into the world a crude mass of materials. The present volume is not so much designed for the amusement and information of literary men in their leisure, as for the instruction of statesmen, who are thereby to be influenced to action. It is in fact a political treatise, and delay might have disappointed its object.

An odd blunder occurs incidentally in the course of the work: it is said that the Portuguese admiral, Rio de Infante, gave his own name to the river so called; but

Rio means a river, and Infante's name was Joam. This reminds us of two errors of the same kind, far less pardonable, as they occur in writers whose business it was to have been better informed. The one in a quarto volume respecting Portugal informs us, that there is a manufactory of oil, *azeita*, at the town of *Chitar*; whereas the fact is, that it is a manufactory of chintzes, *chitar*, at the town of *Azeitam*. In like manner the bulky historian of maritime discovery tells us, that there is a village called Aldea in Africa, forgetting that *aldea* is the Portuguese word for village.

Before we quit this interesting volume, we quote one extract more, as containing a curious fact for the consideration of the Neptunists.

"But the strong argument advanced in favour of the Cape isthmus having, at no great period of time, been covered with the sea, rests on the sea-shells that have been discovered in the sand that is accumulated on its surface. Such shells may exist, though I never saw them, except on the shores of the bays; but, as I have before observed, whole strata of these may be found buried in the sides of the Lion's Hill, many hundred feet above the level of the sea. These shells have not been brought into that situation by the waves of the ocean, but by birds. There is scarcely a sheltered cavern in the sides of the mountains, that rise immediately from the sea, where living shell-fish may not be found any day in the year. Crows even, and vultures, as well as aquatic birds, detach the shell-fish from the rocks, and mount with them in their beaks into the air; shells, thus carried, are said to be frequently found on the very summit even of the Table Mountain. In one cavern, as I have already observed, at the entrance of Mossel Bay, I disturbed some thousands of birds, and found as many thousands of living shell-fish scattered on the surface of a heap of shells that, for aught I know, would have filled as many thousand waggons. The presence of shells, therefore, in my opinion, is no argument for the presence of the sea."

We have now only to express our thanks to this very able author for the information which he has afforded to the country, and our hopes that the country may be profited by it.

ART. VI. *An Account of the Cape of Good Hope. By Captain ROBERT PERCIVAL.*
4to. pp. 359.

THE well deserved success of captain Percival's former work, his account of Ceylon, has induced him to present the public with this volume respecting a country, better known indeed, but little less interesting, and not less important to her colonial empire. He was detained two months at the Cape on his voyage out, and again two months on his return. These visits were at different seasons, and at periods politically critical; and he who should be disposed to remark that the author's residence there was but a short time for the compilation of a quarto volume, would do well to remember, that a man who observes every thing, sees much in a little space.

The appearance of the coast is described as singularly striking :

"The immense masses which rise in many places almost perpendicularly from the sea, and are lost among the clouds; the vast gulches and caverns, which seem to sink to an immeasurable depth amidst these stupendous mountains; the long-extended ledges of rock, over which, in a few places, are scattered some tufts of stunted trees and withered shrubs; the successive ridges of white sandy hills, each of which appears like a valley to the one by which it is surmounted; the terrible surf which is continually raging on the beach, along which these ridges are stretched; with the spray which is thrown to an immense height by the waves recoiling from the more rocky parts—all these objects rushing at once upon the eye of those who approach the cape, produce an effect which can be but faintly conveyed by description."

"This surf which is driven towards the land with such fury, produces a phenomenon in the sandy deserts, even far removed from the sea. In the time of the violent south-east winds it is carried to a great distance into the country, presenting the appearance of a thick mist. It gradually quits the atmosphere, lighting on the trees and herbs, and lining the surface of the sands. On the commencement of the rainy season it is again dissolved; and being carried off by the streams which are then formed, it is lodged in a number of small lakes, which, by a natural process, in time become absolute salt pans; and thence it is that the Dutch colonists collect the salt which supplies their consumption. A person walking on the sandy beach during the continuance of the south-east winds, so as to be exposed to its influence, soon finds his clothes covered and encrusted with saline particles; while his skin is quite parched up, and his lips begin to feel their effects very sensibly."

All modes of conveyance are very dear, and very difficult to be procured. A saddle horse could not be hired at less than from six to eight rix-dollars, a paper currency, worth about three shillings; and the general hire of a waggon to a stranger was from twenty to thirty. It must, however, be remembered, that wherever Englishmen go they are imposed upon, and that English soldiers abroad are regarded as being professionally, as well as nationally, fit to be cheated. These waggons, in which all long journeys are undertaken, are large, strong, and commodious; for size and accommodation they may be compared to travelling houses. The body rests on a pole running lengthways; below it is not unlike a coach, except that it is seldom hung on springs. Within are platforms, and benches for seats and bedsteads; and at one end a place for cooking: for, like the cobbler's stall, a waggon serves the traveller at the Cape for parlour, for kitchen, and hall. The sides are of wood, and the roof of planks or sail-cloth, well tarred, to keep out rain. The Dutch farmers of the interior, during their long journeys to Cape Town, live in these vehicles. They sleep in them, their slaves under them, and the cattle graze by. They are drawn by either horses or oxen in great numbers, from four to ten or twelve pair. The horses are small, but spirited and hardy. A bunch or two of carrots is sometimes their only sustenance during a long journey. If shod, it is only on the fore feet; but this is not usual, for their hoofs are harder than those of the European horse. Perhaps the general character of the soil may be a more valid reason. The oxen are strong, large, boney, lank, and long legged; they are yoked both by the horns and the neck.

"In front of the body of the waggon there is a bar or piece of wood for a seat, like that placed before our hackney coaches: on this two of their slaves sit, and from this station guide a long team of horses or oxen. One of the slaves holds the reins, and guides the cattle, whilst the other sits beside him with a long whip that trails on the ground till he has occasion to use it on the cattle, which he does with both his hands. The handle of this prodigious whip is of bamboo, from twelve to fifteen feet long, and is fixed to a thick leather thong of buffalo hide, rudely

placed, and of an equal length with the handle, with a lash nearly three feet long attached to the extremity. The drivers are so very expert in the use of this immense whip, which to an European appears so unwieldy, that they can touch a team of ten or twelve pair of cattle in any part they have a mind, even with the certainty of hitting a fly off any of the animals. Indeed, none of our English charioteers can at all be compared with them in such feats of dexterity. When they come to a deep place of the road, or steep and difficult ascent, they keep cutting and slashing amongst the cattle to make them all pull together, and exert their strength equally. By this means the animals will draw the waggon over the most difficult places, even rocks and precipices, whilst the fellow who holds the reins, equally dexterous on his part, will guide them over in complete safety.

"When these drivers appear pushing through the streets of Cape Town, at full gallop, and turning from one street to another, without pulling in, even where the corners are extremely narrow, which is generally the case, a stranger stops short with a mingled sensation of wonder and anxiety, dreading every moment some fatal consequences; which, however, rarely ever happen. The drivers are early initiated in this art; for, while as yet little boys, they begin by being employed to guide the foremost pair, when a long team is attached to a waggon, in passing through a narrow road. In many places about the Cape, these roads are merely rocky defiles between the hills, or narrow paths between ridges of sand. On coming to the entrance of those narrow places, they give notice of their approach by cracking their whips, which they do with such a loud report, as stuns the ears of a stranger. This is the signal to warn any other waggon which may be coming from the opposite quarter, not to enter the narrow path till the other has cleared it; for if they were to meet there, it would be impossible for them to pass each other. This is a regulation to which they strictly adhere, and a very heavy penalty is attached to the breach of it, as the inconvenience arising thence would be extreme; one of the waggons would require to be completely unloaded, and the passage would thus perhaps be stopped up against all intercourse, probably for several hours.

"Every waggon is provided with strong chains, or drags, like those used by our mail coaches, to prevent their being overturned in going down the precipices and steepes. Sometimes they are obliged to drag all the four wheels, and have for this purpose a machine which they call a lock shoe, being a kind of sledge or trough shod with iron, into which the wheels are set. This prevents the waggon from running down the cattle, and certainly is very ingenious in the invention. The cattle are generally placed in the team so as to draw by the shoulders, a bow or yoke of wood being put on each, and fastened by pegs,

through which holes or notches are made to admit the harness. The yoke of the hind pair is fastened to the pole of the waggon, and those of the rest have a strap or chain, running along the yokes of each pair, and carried on to the head, where it is fastened to the horns. Their bellies and hinder parts are left at liberty, which gives them room to move about in the waggons, and appears to render the draught easier to them. The principal guidance of the waggon depends on the foremost pair, which are generally the best trained, otherwise they might trample down the little Hottentot boys, who usually run before, and guide them by a kind of bridle or cord passed through the nostrils. It sometimes happens that these little wretches are thrown down and trodden to death, before the cattle can be stopped. The attachment of the animals to their little leaders is very great, and sometimes you will see them look about for them, and keep bellowing and uneasy till they come to their heads. The cattle are under great command, and will readily obey the slightest word from their drivers; on being called to by name individually, they will increase their efforts, and draw together, even without the employment of the whip."

The English found the climate agree with them better than with the natives, and were in general much more healthy than the Dutch, who, from their inactive habits of life, and their excess in eating heavy gross food, were subject to apoplexies, dropsies, liver complaints, and eruptions all over the body. A useful lesson for our countrymen in the West Indies. The English, in like manner, suffer more from climate than the French, from the same reason, their diet. Though man is by nature an accommodating animal, an Englishman is by habit the least so of his species. Wherever he goes he will carry his own modes of life with him, he will persist in his animal food and his fermented liquors, when the natives subsist upon vegetables, spices, and water; in consequence he kills himself, and the climate is called unhealthy. Captain Percival's account of the Cape climate is not altogether congruous. In one place he says that it is singularly well adapted to restore debilitated and broken constitutions: in another that the great change from hot to cold at certain periods of the year proves very destructive to consumptive habits. Consumptions, indeed, and ulcers seemed to be the only distempers attended to any extent with fatal consequences to our countrymen. In some instances the smallest sore on a man's leg has occasioned the loss of the limb.

The zebra, which naturalists have described as altogether untractable, captain Percival has seen quietly grazing in the fields above the town. I can myself, he says, contradict the accounts of this animal's untamable disposition, from having seen him, with my own eye, as gentle and as inoffensive as the patient ass, picking up thistles by the side of the road. The ostrich also was domesticated. He often saw nine or ten grazing round the town, and in the streets picking up any thing that came in their way. They would let the little black boys get on their backs, and ride them about; and every evening they returned to their owner's house as regularly as cows would to their milking place. It is positively asserted by many that the unicorn is found in the deserts of Caffraria. "I often" says captain Percival, "endeavoured to ascertain the much disputed existence of this animal; my repeated inquiries, however, ended only in increasing my doubts of the fact, for I could never find out any person who had seen it with his own eyes, or heard it described by a person who had. The horn which is often shewn as belonging to the unicorn, is that of a large and peculiar species of antelope, which I have frequently seen in India, and which in this particular much resembles what the unicorn is described to be, having one large horn growing in the middle of his forehead." It is very curious that in this very passage, wherein the author implies his disbelief of the existence of the unicorn, he should himself establish the fact; for if there be a *large and peculiar species of antelope having one large horn growing in the middle of his forehead*, no person can doubt that this is what is meant by the unicorn, unless they want an animal after the pattern of the king's arms, with the horn gilt, and a chain round his neck. Such a unicorn was at Cochin, in 1780, in the possession of general Moens, the Dutch governor. It was like a deer in make and colour, beautifully made, with fine black eyes, and of a timid appearance; the horn about three feet in length. There can be no doubt that this must be the animal which captain Percival has seen, and which the Boschmen have carved in the caverns, as represented in Mr. Barrow's very excellent *Travels in South Africa*.

The Dutch pay little attention to the culture of potatoes; they think it requires too much trouble, and that their

soil is not adapted for it, an opinion altogether groundless; but they are unconquerably obstinate, and never wish to be taught by their neighbours. However, where prejudices can be commuted for *schillens*, the Dutch are ever open to conviction. It was their custom to throw away the heads of their cattle; but seeing the Scotch soldiers carry them away to make soup, they inquired if any use was made of them, and finding this to be the case, immediately set a price upon them, and at length introduced them at their own tables. They rear little pork, for in general they detest the hog; perhaps for the same reason that the Esquimaux abhor monkeys, as being too strikingly like themselves. Large fields of carrots are planted for the sheep and horses; a bunch or two of carrots being reckoned equal to a feed of corn with us. The sugar-cane grows wild, yet they have never cultivated it. On this subject captain Percival has made some remarks which will be worthy of attention if ever, as we hope and trust, the Cape should again become an English possession.

"Every European nation acknowledges the importance of the West India islands, from the two great staple commodities of sugar and rum. How much blood has been shed between the different powers, in the conquest and attainment of them; while numberless lives have fallen victims to the unhealthy climate. Properties to an immense amount, consisting of large plantations of sugar canes, have often been destroyed in one night by furious hurricanes and tornadoes. Insects and vermin destroy another great proportion; while the heat is so intolerable that the planter cannot oversee his own works, much less assist by any exertion of his own. Those disadvantages are, however, still borne up against from the value of the sugar and rum which they afford. The Cape of Good Hope labours under none of those disadvantageous circumstances. Though it is sometimes subject to violent winds, yet they never arise to that degree as the tornadoes in the West Indies; nor are their consequences to be at all compared. The climate is mild, temperate, and healthy; the soil clean, and not subject to those weeds and other obstructions usually found in tropical climates, which suddenly spring up and choke the tender plants. Insects and vermin do but little damage, compared to what is experienced in other parts of the world which can afford the same produce. The planter here can stand the whole day exposed to the sun without any ill consequences, and can assist with his own bodily labour, if his circumstances require it, or inclination prompt

him. When the sugar cane grows so well spontaneously, it is surely capable of being brought to much more perfection by the care and culture of man.

"The Dutch, in exculpation of their own want of enterprise, allege that it would require more slaves than they can afford, or would risk introducing into the colony; and that those already in their possession are only sufficient for their household and domestic purposes. These reasonings, with regard to foreign slaves, may hold good; but there is a still greater benefit to be derived from entirely evading that objection, and employing the Hottentots and other natives of the interior. By this means the valuable articles in question might be raised, and at the same time the natives brought to a degree of civilization and to habits of industry, from which comfort to themselves, and wealth to their employers, would speedily arise. When I talked to the Dutch on this subject, they became silent and chagrined, and seemed to think their reasons unanswerable."

The inhabitants of Cape Town are well described,

"The men rise early in the morning, and make their appearance in a loose robe and night-cap before their doors; then walk or sit in the porch for an hour or two with a pipe in their mouths, and a slave by their side, holding a glass and a small decanter of gin, from which the master every now and then takes his squupkie, or glass. Let an Englishman rise ever so early, he will see Myneer sitting in his stoop or porch, or parading the front of his house, in the manner I have described. There are many who get up two or three times in the night to enjoy a pipe; and so much are they accustomed to this luxury that they cannot on any account dispense with it. About eight they dress, first smoking their quantum; after which they sit down to breakfast, which generally consists of a quantity of gross food, besides coffee, tea, and fruit of all kinds. They then smoke another pipe, and go to their mercantile concerns till about one o'clock, when dinner commences, which also consists of a quantity of gross and oily dressed meat, with fruit, &c. as a dessert. A more particular description of their tables I shall give presently. When they have regaled themselves another hour with their darling pipe, they lie down to their nap, which continues till evening; they then rise, and perhaps take a walk, or pay formal visits, but are always sure to smoke wherever they go. Coffee and gin succeed, accompanied with their pipe till about nine, when supper is introduced; and when that is finished, after another hour's fumigating, they retire to bed, gorged with heavy food, and perhaps desirous to spend the remainder of the night

in all the horrors arising from indigestion."

As soon as any meal is announced, the front doors are locked to prevent interruption; dinner over, neither the bottle, nor the delightful fruits of the country can tempt the Dutch-African; he calls for his hat, his pipe, and spitting-pan, and composes himself to enjoy, not his own thoughts, but the sense of his own existence and the tobacco. No books, but a Bible and hymn book, are to be found among them; there is no printing press in the colony, except one for stamping their paper currency. But compared to the boors of the interior, they are a civilized and polished people.

"Oxen he has in abundance, but rarely uses any for food; milk and butter overflow with him, yet he seldom tastes them; wine is so cheap, so easily procured, where almost every farm produces it, he rarely or never drinks. His house is poor, mean, and inconvenient; although it might easily be rendered comfortable, even without his own bodily labour, as he has always a sufficient number of slaves for all his purposes. The rooms are dirty, and smoky in the extreme; the walls covered with spiders, and their webs of an enormous size; vermin and filth are never removed from the floors, till absolute necessity compels the indolent inhabitants to this exertion. The articles of furniture are but few; an old table, two or three broken chairs, a few plates and kitchen utensils, with a couple of large chests, commonly comprise the whole. Indifferent bread and vegetables, stewed in sheep's fat, are their usual fare; and when they eat meat, masses of mutton are served up in grease; this luxury they devour in great quantities, bolting it down as some of our porters would for a wager. Smoking all the morning, and sleeping after dinner, constitute the great luxury of the boor; unwilling to work himself, he lords it over his slaves and hired Hottentots. At a middling age he is carried off by a dropsy, or some disease contracted by indolence and eating to excess. When he drips, he constantly uses that poisonous hot spirit called brandy-wine, or geneva when he can procure it."

Of all human beings the boor of the Cape is the most detestable: no race of savages has ever yet been discovered so utterly destitute of all honourable and all good feelings. Mr. Barrow mentions one who used to regulate the punishment of his slaves, not by the number of stripes, but by the number of pipes which he should smoke while the punishment was inflicting in his presence.

He speaks of another who could at any time start his team into a full gallop, by taking out his knife and whetting it. Nor is this to be regarded as a solitary instance: it is the common custom of these accursed wretches, when their cattle slacken pace, or stop from fatigue or inability, to draw out a great knife, and score the flesh, or even cut off slices without mercy. The wretched animals, says captain Percival, seem to know their cruel master's intentions; for their fear and agitation become excessive when they observe him taking out this instrument, and rubbing it on the waggon, as if making it ready for the purpose of tormenting them. The poor Hottentots, themselves the most injured and oppressed of the human race, express their pity and horror at such barbarity, and endeavour, as far as lies in their power, to alleviate the miseries of these unfortunate animals.

These unoffending people, who, by a singular fatality, have been considered as the most brutal of savages, even till their name has become a proverbial reproach, while in fact they are, of all uncivilized people, the most gentle and the most docile, have of late years been considerably reduced in numbers, chiefly by the cruelty of their Dutch oppressors. The iron has entered into their souls; and they seem now, says this author, to consider themselves as designed by nature merely to serve and to suffer.

"A Dutch farmer claims all the children born of a Hottentot woman by another father than one of her own tribe, as slaves; even those arising from their own connection with a Hottentot woman; and also all the children which spring from the connection of a Hottentot man with a slave woman of any denomination. But the Dutch masters went still farther; for the children of Hottentots living with them as hired servants, although both father and mother belonged to that race, were yet retained as slaves till they arrived at the age of twenty-five years; and although the laws in favour of the Hottentots obliged the Dutch to register such children at the Cape, and to give them their freedom at this age, yet the period of their liberty was in reality little nearer than before, unless they deserted into the wild and uncultivated parts of the interior, far beyond the reach of their masters. Many arts were employed to retain them beyond the age of twenty-five years; it was usual to keep them in ignorance of the date of their birth, and thus make them continue to work till their strength began to fail them. When become old, feeble, and exhausted with labour, they were at last dis-

charged, and turned out to misery, without being allowed to carry with them any thing which they had obtained during their servitude.

"Those unhappy wretches who engage in the service of a Dutch farmer, when they wish to depart, often find their children detained from them. Hence arises that indifference to marriage and the propagation of children, for which this race of people is distinguished. It is not uncommon with many Hottentots to deprive themselves before marriage of the power of procreation, which many of the women in particular do in despite of their masters, to disappoint their oppressors, and prevent themselves from having the mortification of beholding their unfortunate offspring born to slavery and wretchedness."

The Dutch-Africans, like their fellow Christians the worthy assembly of Barbadoes, justify their conduct to themselves by asserting that the Hottentots are little better than brutes. Whenever, says captain Percival, I asked a Dutchman any question concerning them, he looked as if he thought the subject too contemptible to deserve an answer. With regard to these poor people our government, while in possession of the Cape, behaved with exemplary, and we would say *characteristic*, humanity, if our transactions in West Africa did not recur to remembrance. The good effect of this conduct will be felt should the conquest of this colony be again effected, and this benefit we expect from lord Melville.

"Our government abolished, as much as it was in their power to abolish, the baleful traffic of slavery. By the capitulation entered into on getting possession of the Cape, we could not deprive the Dutch of those slaves already in their possession, as private property of all sorts was secured to them; but we suffered no more to be added to the number of this unhappy class of people. Our detestation of slavery, and the cruelty practised against the poor wretches, did not escape the penetration of the Hottentots. Though on our first coming they were led to believe us a race of cannibals, who would destroy them without mercy, by the invidious arts of the Dutch; yet these people soon formed a favourable impression of the humane and liberal spirit of the new power they had fallen under, and many entered into our service a short time after its capture. A little more knowledge and acquaintance with the character and conduct of Englishmen, soon taught them to be disgusted with their late masters, the Dutch. And on finally giving up the Cape by the late treaty of peace, the Hottentots and slaves beheld our departure with extreme sorrow. I have been told

or an officer, who left it on the evacuation, that the Hottentots asked the English for ammunition and arms to drive the Dutch out. 'We will give you,' said they, 'the country if you stay; it is ours and ours only; the Dutch have no right to any but a small territory round False and Table Bay; that we will take from them and give to you, if you will only supply us with arms and ammunition.' Many of the Hottentot soldiers cried, and shewed every symptom of the deepest regret on parting with us. Should the Cape be attacked again by the English, the Dutch will find them unsteady allies; and, in all probability, will receive but little assistance from them in its defence."

The corps of Hottentots in our service, are described as fine, active, and soldier-like fellows; well-disciplined, and exhibiting a pride in their gait which would do credit to an European soldier; they were faithful and obedient when on actual service, and behaved well in every sense of the word.

The slaves at Cape Town are of various races; the native Hottentots, the negroes of the Guinea Coast, slaves from Bengal and Malabar, Malays from Batavia and the eastern isles of India, the blacks of Madagascar, the Baganese half Malay and half African, and a more monstrous mixture between Hottentot and Hollander, more monstrous for every child so born is born to slavery. The Dutch ladies encourage, or even compel, their slave girls to prostitution in hopes of profiting by its consequences! It often happens that the master has his own child his slave, who is sold by the heirs or executors, if the father dies without having enfranchised him.

Our conquest of the Cape was fortunate for the wealthier inhabitants; if we may credit captain Percival, a jacobin insurrection was on the point of breaking out, in which the slaves were to have been let loose upon their masters. Certain it is, that every Dutchman therein, of every description, both high and low, gained by the residence of the English among them. Their prices, greatly and exorbitantly as they increased them, were never disputed; their property was secured, their laws and religion left unaltered, and the arrears of rent and taxes due from many individuals to their own government, had been remitted to them by the British government, on pleading distress or inability, while their own rulers would on no account abate one dollar due from any of them. Their paper money, miserably as it had been

depreciated, was upheld by the English, and a considerable quantity of silver dollars sent there from India and from England, by which means new spirit was given to their trade, which had been almost completely put to a stand for want of specie. Yet these benefits could not reconcile the Dutch to the conquerors, nor prevent them from regarding them with hatred. That the boers should cherish this aversion is not surprising; the English would not permit them to torture or murder their slaves, and, like the Barbadoes planters, they resented this attack upon *their rights*, as an insult. In the event of a reconquest, this animosity will still continue to exist; they may however be kept from revolt by the bayonet, and from murder by the gallows. Cogent arguments, and of that personal nature which they require, and time, may gradually improve the race. The inhabitants of Cape Town may more probably be induced to remember us with better feelings, to regret the miserable imbecility which surrendered our most important conquest, and to welcome us once more as their benefactors. This will be facilitated by the many intermarriages which took place between British officers and the Dutch ladies, the best and wisest policy which the conquerors could have adopted, though wholly unconnected with any political motives. The conduct of the French officers, in attempting to intrigue with the wives of their hosts, is as likely to be renewed as to be remembered, and cannot but excite a comparison with the conduct of a more moral and more honourable nation. Our language too was becoming fashionable among the women, a thing of no trifling importance.

The political importance of this settlement to our Indian possessions is briefly, but forcibly, enumerated and insisted on in this volume. It is a matter, he says, absolutely required by political prudence, that we should lose no time in regaining this colony. During a war the safety of our East India trade can no otherwise be secured; and equally in peace and in war, the Cape may be made use of for such preparations as may afterwards be employed to wrest from us our most valuable possessions. If report may indeed be believed, the French have already begun to collect at this point a force, which must cause the more uneasiness, and

probably damage, as this is the station, in all the world where we can least watch its motions, and counteract its operations. It is unnecessary to enter farther into the subject, as it has been so fully investigated by Mr. Barrow.

An account of the capture of the Dutch fleet at Saldanha bay by admiral Elphinstone is given by captain Percival, who was present with the land forces. We observe that Saldanha is always misspelt Saldabnath throughout the volume. Another trifling error of the same kind should be noted. The Cape he says was first called *Cabo di Tormento*, Cape Tormment, from the violent winds and storms which the discoverers encountered there. The name given to it was *Cabo Tormento*, Stormy Cape. The orthography of *Cabo de Diable* is equally inaccurate, and *cobra*, which is used for a snake, should be *cobra*.

Concerning the original natives of the country little information is here afforded, the author not having penetrated into the country. There is however a curious account of their music.

"I was highly entertained by seeing a number of Hottentots dance to an instrument played on by a young woman. It was a piece of deal board, three feet long and one broad; four or five strings of brass wire were stretched along it, and supported at each end by bridges or bits of upright wood, like those of our fiddles. In this rude sort of guitar, which they call a Gabowie, was inserted a piece of looking-glass, of which they are immoderately fond. It was fixed in the centre of the board; and the young woman who played, kept stedfastly looking at herself in it, and grinning with great complacency at the beauty of her round hunched figure. She kept touching the wires with a quill, whilst a dozen of the men formed a ring round her, dancing and violently beating the ground with their feet and sticks; they continued also incessantly to place themselves in the most grotesque attitudes, yet still with some reference to the player. Another woman, for the females it should seem are the musicians, and the men the dancers, accompanied the former on a goura. This instrument is formed by strings of dried gut, or sinews of deer, twisted into a cord and fastened to a hollow stick, about three feet in length, by a peg, which, on being turned round, brings the cord to a proper degree of tension. At the other end the cord is placed on quills; and the instrument is played on by applying the mouth to the quills, which by the successive processes of respiration and inspiration, produce a faint noise like an Eolian harp."

The remarkable posterior protuberance of the female Hottentots has been

noticed by all travellers: it is here mentioned as a current opinion that this protuberance, which seems composed of one large loose mass of fat, will not dissolve or putrify after death like the other parts of the body, but will remain in a mass like spermaceti. The fact is probably true. To what can this singular determination of fat be ascribed?

Such are the interesting contents of the present volume. What captain Percival proposed to himself in its composition is well stated in his introductory chapter.

"All he pretends to do is to describe, as they occurred to a man of common observation, those scenes and facts which fell under his notice; and in doing so, he presumes to hope that he shall be enabled to point out, in plain language, the principal military and commercial advantages resulting from this settlement, as well as the distinguishing characteristics of its inhabitants; subjects which, he conceives, have not been preoccupied by the more able and learned authors to whom he has alluded. His early entrance into the military profession, and the consequent employments which have prevented him from pursuing any regular plan of study, are the excuses which he offered in his former work for the want of scientific language, and a more systematic mode of composition; and the reception which a candid public has given to his description, in plain and common language, of the productions of Ceylon, induces him to pursue the same plan with regard to those of the Cape of Good Hope. The man of science will find no difficulty in classifying any observation which he may look upon as useful; and the general reader will probably not be displeased to receive information at an easier rate, when divested of the more correct, but less understood, language of science. The author in some measure holds it a duty incumbent on military men, to give to their countrymen some account of those distant stations to which they are sent in the course of service; and he hopes his exertions, however feeble, may have some effect in stimulating similar efforts on the part of those officers who may find any leisure moments from their military avocations, to devote to pursuits of a similar nature. This practice has of late become very general among the officers of the French armies; and from the adoption of it among us, many national advantages must result, as both the government will become acquainted with the state of its distant possessions, and the officers of our army will become better informed and better fitted to protect or improve the stations of which they may be entrusted with the command."

To this we have only to add, that he has well executed what he had designed. The hope he expresses that our officers may, for their own sake and the coun-

try's, devote some of their leisure to literary and scientific pursuits, is, we trust, likely to be fulfilled. We are already indebted to them for accounts of Egypt and the Cape, and the most able and most erudite contributors to the Asiatic Researches are army officers.

We have reason to believe that some hasty inaccuracies have escaped captain Percival, that the name of the proprietor of the Constantia vineyard is *Cloete* not *Plieter*, and that in his estimate of distances he is sometimes very erroneous.

ART. VII. *The Narrative of a Voyage of Discovery performed in his Majesty's Vessel the Lady Nelson in the Years 1800, 1801, and 1802, to New South Wales.* By JAMES GRANT, Lieutenant in the Royal Navy. 4to. pp. 195.

THE latter end of the 18th century forms a new æra in the progress of maritime discovery. Cook, Perouse and Vancouver, with others of inferior note, have ascertained the great outlines of the globe with respect to the boundaries of its continents and oceans; and little now remains to be done, but to make an accurate survey of such coasts as are likely to invite the ships of the enterprising European nations either as immediate objects of commercial adventure, or as affording temporary shelter and refreshment in a voyage to more distant ports. For this purpose ships of small dimensions which draw little water are most convenient, as being able to keep nearer the shore, to reach the extremities of bays, and in some cases to go beyond the mouths of rivers. But notwithstanding these manifest advantages, many experienced seamen expressed their surprise at the destination of the *Lady Nelson* on a voyage of discovery to New South Wales. A vessel of sixty tons burden with a complement of fifteen men was thought altogether unfit to encounter the heavy seas of the Cape of Good Hope, and of the high latitudes in the passage to the southern part of New Holland. Her size appeared so diminutive that, while she lay in the Thames, she was generally called the King's Tinder-box. There was, moreover, a novelty in her construction which produced much difference of opinion among those who were esteemed the best judges, and which met with an opposition that occasioned some irritation in the minds of its advocates. The first idea of this innovation was started during the American war in a conversation between the duke of Northumberland, then earl Percy, and captain Schank, a naval officer who had a command on the Lakes. The earl observing, "that if cutters were built much flatter so as to go on the surface, and not to draw much water, they would sail faster, and might still be enabled to carry as much sail, and keep

up to wind as well, if not better, by having their keels descend to a greater depth;" Captain Schank agreed with him in opinion, and added, "that if this deep keel was made moveable, and to be screwed upwards into a trunk or well formed within the vessel, so as that on necessity, they might draw little water, all these advantages might be obtained." On this suggestion a boat was built in 1774 at Boston in New England, which answered in every respect. Here the matter rested till 1789, when captain Schank improved upon his idea, and built at Deptford several vessels with three sliding keels, or having the original sliding keel divided into three separate parts with considerable intervals between them; three of which vessels, the *Trial* cutter, the *Cynthia* sloop of war, and the *Lady Nelson*, the smallest of the three, are now in the service of government. To establish the utility of this asserted improvement was probably one of the objects of this expedition, and with this view lieutenant Grant, an intimate friend of captain Schank, and a warm supporter of his invention, seems to have been appointed to the command of the *Lady Nelson*.

Mr. Grant introduces his account of the voyage with a concise view of the advantages attendant on sliding keels drawn up from papers furnished by captain Schank; and produces several, to us who are not sailors, convincing reasons why they must "sail faster, steer easier, tack and wear quicker and in less room, carry more freight and draw less water, ride easier at anchor, take the ground better, and be more likely to be saved in case of shipwreck, have the advantage of all others in case of losing their rudder, and last longer than those built in the common way." This representation Mr. Grant maintains is confirmed by the uniform experience of the voyage in every variety of weather, in the heaviest seas, and amidst the rocks and shallows of a coast which he himself had

never before visited, and which, in part, had never till then been explored. As far, therefore, as a full and decisive trial of the sliding keels was an object of the expedition, it has in his judgment completely succeeded.

How far the progress of maritime discovery has been advanced by it, we shall now proceed to lay before our readers. In the passage to the Cape of Good Hope, nothing of this kind could be expected, nor did any thing remarkable happen. He observed, indeed, in passing Sakt, one of the Cape Verd islands, that it corresponds so nearly with the description of Bonavista in the East India Directory, that till he had rounded the island and made the small one as laid down, he was rather in doubt which of the two islands it was. At Port Ponza in St. Jago he spent fourteen days in watering and refitting, and anchored at Table Bay on the 8th of July, having been at sea ninety-nine days exclusive of his stay at St. Jago. During this part of his voyage he knew that he had lost his after-keel, and suspected that his main one was also gone. On his arrival at the Cape, he found both of them broken short off in the wake of the bolt, evidently through a defect in the workmanship, and not in the principle, as the fore-keel lasted the whole voyage without accident, and remained in the vessel when he finally left her. It was now mid-winter in those southern latitudes, and his orders were to continue at the Cape till the commencement of summer; he therefore spent his time in gaining an acquaintance with the nature of the country and state of the colony. But, in so beaten a track, and of which so much has lately been said by able observers, it was not likely that any thing important should occur in the space of a few weeks. While he remained at the Cape he received orders by a ship from England to search for the strait which separates Van Dieman's Land from New Holland, and, if possible, to make his passage through it. Captain Cook and the other circumnavigators, and all the ships bound to Port Jackson, had hitherto passed south of Van Dieman's Land, which was supposed to be part of New Holland. But, in sailing northward from this point, a great swell from the west having been observed between lat. 39° and 40° , it was conjectured by governor Hunter and others that there must in those latitudes be a direct communication with the Western Ocean.

The probability of the conjecture was confirmed by the report of Mr. Hamilton, master of a ship called the Sydney Cove from Bengal, and bound to Port Jackson on speculation, who was shipwrecked on one of the Furneaux islands between lat. 40 and 41 in the latter end of 1797. On receiving this account, Mr. Bass, surgeon of the *Reliance*, a king's ship then at Port Jackson, obtained permission of the governor to fit out a whale-boat for the purpose of determining this important point. In the course of his voyage he found an opening, and sailing along the coast, doubled a promontory on South Cape, whence he advanced in a north-west direction till he came to a harbour, to which he gave the name of Western Port in reference to its situation with respect to Port Jackson, and its supposed position on the western side of New Holland. From Western Port he returned to Port Jackson. In consequence of this success he was sent by the governor in a better appointed vessel, accompanied by lieutenant Flinders of the royal navy, with orders to attempt the circumnavigation of Van Dieman's Land. Of these two voyages, the latter of which completely decided the question, an account is given in colonel Collins's History of the English Settlement in New South Wales, from which we have extracted these particulars, that our readers may be the better prepared to estimate the extent of Mr. Grant's discoveries.

In his voyage to New Holland it was recommended to him to run down his easting in the latitude of the Cape; from an idea that the heaviness of the sea in higher latitudes would be too much for his small vessel to scud through, owing to the west wind blowing constantly there all the year round. But as the south-east monsoon was then set in, he was determined to keep as much as possible out of its way; and having full confidence in the goodness of his vessel, made his passage to the coast of New Holland in fifty-six days, chiefly between lat. 38° and 40° , without suffering any misfortune or seeing any land, except the island of Amsterdam. On the third of December he made the land, which at first appeared like four islands, but turned out to be two mountains inland, and two capes: the northernmost cape, the furthest land he saw in that direction, he called Cape Banks, and estimated its lat. $38^{\circ} 4'$; its longitude 142° east of Greenwich. Pursuing his course to the

south-east he passed two large bays, the first of which he called Portland Bay, the other and widest, Governor King's Bay. The eastern extremity of Governor King's Bay is the most southerly point of New Holland, and is the cape which Mr. Bass doubled in his way to Western Port. From this promontory Mr. Grant made his passage to Port Jackson without any remarkable occurrence, with the satisfaction of having pursued a new track through that vast ocean, particularly from the Isle of Amsterdam to Cape Banks, and thence along a line of coast extending nearly four degrees of longitude to the westward of any land seen by Messrs. Bass and Flinders. He thus had the good fortune to be the first who passed through Bass's Strait from the west: but within six weeks after his arrival at Port Jackson, two other ships entered that port who had made the same passage, the Harbinger brig from the Cape of Good Hope, and the brig Margaret from England, who had probably received intelligence, at the Cape, of his intended course.

Before he left England he had been appointed to the command of his majesty's armed vessel the *Supply* at New South Wales. When he arrived there he had the mortification to find her laid up as a hulk unfit for sea, and was thus, in the seaman's phrase, completely adrift. What farther use the lords of the admiralty intended to make of the *Lady Nelson* does not appear: but as they engaged the crew only for the outward passage, they probably supposed that after such a voyage, and with such a peculiar construction, she would no longer be fit for service. Many of the residents at Port Jackson were of the same opinion. Mr. Grant now knew better, and being laudably unwilling to lead an idle life, accepted from the governor an appointment to the further command of his favourite vessel, though on colonial pay, less than he was entitled to from his rank in the navy, and with the certain loss of his *right* to regular promotion in the line of his profession. He had also the mortification to be able to engage only two of his former crew, all of whom had been paid their wages and regularly discharged by order of the governor. The rest, induced by higher wages, had entered into the merchant ships then in the har-

bour. In this situation he had no resource but to receive such convicts as were become free, or had received permission from the governor. To these four privates of the South Wales corps were added as a guard.

The first service in which he was employed was to take a more accurate survey of the country which he had already coasted, and, in particular, to visit the harbour which had been discovered by Mr. Bass to the westward of Wilson's Promontory. In this expedition he was accompanied by ensign Bareillier of the New South Wales corps, and Mr. Cayley a botanist, sent out by sir Joseph Banks for the express purpose of collecting plants. On his passage southward he examined Jarvis's Bay or Sound in lat. $36^{\circ} 6'$, long. 151° , that he might secure a harbour if obliged to run out of the strait. He found it large and commodious, easy of access, affording shelter from all winds, and having room for two hundred sail of ships, with plenty of wood and water. When he arrived at the southern cape or Wilson's Promontory, he determined its lat. to be $39^{\circ} 4'$. Mr. Bass had made it $38^{\circ} 50'$. The chief object of the expedition was to survey Western Port, and this he and his associates appear to have executed with skill and diligence. But though he has given a sketch of the south coast of New Holland, he has unaccountably neglected to insert Western Port, or any other place north of Cape Liptrot, which he had seen on his first voyage. The chart we are told is in the hands of government, and will doubtless appear in due time. We know not for what reason, but there seems to have been a backwardness to put the public in possession of all the particulars relative to this port. In colonel Collins's History of New South Wales we have a detailed narrative of Mr. Bass's voyage round Van Dieman's Land; but little is said of his expedition in a whale-boat along the southern coast of New Holland. Western Port is stated by Mr. Grant to be in lat. $38^{\circ} 32' S.$ and in long. $146^{\circ} 19' E.$ —To borrow his own words—

“It is a convenient harbour for going in and coming out, at all times, is situated in a country which may easily be improved by cultivation, and in an excellent climate. This harbour will be found useful to vessels coming through the Straits, a passage which, no

doubt, will, in time, be generally pursued (preferably to rounding Tasman's Head), by ships in their passage from England, or from the Cape of Good Hope to Port Jackson. And I do not see but this is an eligible passage, at certain seasons of the year, for vessels bound from Sydney to India, and perhaps at all times more so, than passing through the labyrinth of unknown islands, in making the northern passage from Port Jackson to India. In respect to making the passage to the Cape of Good Hope, direct from Sydney, without going round Cape Horn, a course always taken, I consider it so far practicable that it only wants the trial to prove it so. It was once attempted by some vessel to get round by Tasman's Head, but owing to the strong southerly winds it could not be done, and they bore up round Cape Horn. That point of Dieman's Land was then judged to be the southernmost point of New Holland, and from its lying in so high a latitude, the south and west winds were found commonly to blow very strong, which prevented vessels from weathering it, and deterred others from the attempt. But it being now ascertained, that the southernmost point of New Holland barely exceeds the 89th degree of S. latitude, and that it has been rounded from the eastward at different times, it follows, that there is so great a scope between the western side of the Straits and Nuytsland, on King George the Third's Harbour, that if vessels could lay a W. by N. or even a W. N. W. course they could nearly clear it. In my passage out, after having got into the parallels of 38° and 39° S. I had much wind from the N. and some from the E.; therefore should vessels get into the parallel of 36°, it is most likely they will find variable winds, though generally prevailing from the south.

"This idea of weathering the land, on the western shoulder of New Holland, appeared to me to be so easy, that I made an offer of my service in conducting the Norfolk brig through those straits to the Cape of Good Hope, in preference to carrying her round Cape Horn. This offer I made to governor King before my departure for England, on hearing of his intention to send this vessel to the Cape, but, after some delay, I was obliged to shift for myself, as he declined the offer."

When the business of surveying Western Port was completed, as the winter was begun and the season unfavourable for maritime researches, he shaped his course back to Port Jackson, surveying the coast as far as Wilson's Promontory as accurately as the weather would permit.

Mr. Grant had it next in charge to carry lieutenant-colonel Paterson to Hunter's River, which, from the abundance of coal found on its banks, has

now obtained the name of Coal River. This river, as colonel Collins informs us, was first discovered by lieutenant Shortland of the royal navy in 1797, who brought to Port Jackson specimens of the coal. The colonel, assisted by Dr. Harris, surgeon of the New South Wales corps, and ensign Borellier, was to make a survey of the river, and to gain a knowledge of its natural productions. A number of workmen were added to the party for the purpose of cutting and sawing timber, digging and loading coal, &c. The mouth of the river is in lat. 32° 55', and affords a harbour of many miles extent, well sheltered from every wind. The coal appears in different strata of various qualities and degrees of thickness from side to side of a mountain, and is so plentiful, that the schooner *Frances* which came with them, sailed back for Port Jackson with forty tons of coal on board, eleven days after their arrival, though only one man had been employed to dig the mine. Colonel Paterson, Mr. Grant, and the other gentlemen ascended the river between seventy and eighty miles, and did not return till they had passed several rapids, which obliged them to get out and drag the boat up. They were then probably not very far from its source; for it is described to be not broader than the Thames at Kingston, much lower down. Like the other rivers of New South Wales, it is subject to great floods; the trees on its banks appearing from the marks left on them to have been immersed in water to the height of forty foot. In the course of this survey they discovered copper and iron ore, the latter rich in metal; a species of flax which colonel Paterson thought valuable; and a tree the wood of which resembles the ash, and, though not so light as the English ash, is a valuable acquisition in a country where the greatest part of the timber hitherto discovered is so heavy as to sink in water.

Having completed the design of their voyage, they returned to Port Jackson. And here lieutenant Grant's voyage of discovery and his command of the *Lady Nelson* terminate. From the time of his arrival at Port Jackson, he had, as he himself complains, met with many mortifications, and had now no prospect of being relieved from them. He, therefore, embraced the first opportunity of returning to Europe, and took his pas-

sage in an old Spanish brig taken on the coast of Peru and sent as a prize into Port Jackson. She was laden with coals and spars, and bound to the Cape of Good Hope by way of Cape Horn. At the Cape he embarked for England, by favour of sir Roger Curtis, in his majesty's ship *Imperieuse*, and arrived safe in his native country after an absence of about two years and a half.

"In this manner," he concludes, "did I make a circumnavigatory voyage of this globe of earth. I accomplished it as far back as the Cape of Good Hope, in vessels which, according to the opinion of some who may be considered as competent judges, were not fit to go to sea. Whilst I had the command of the *Lady Nelson*, she did not lose a single man, and she arrived at Port Jackson without the least damage in hull, masts, sails or rigging, which may in a great measure be attributed to her many excellent qualities.

"If I have in the least contributed to the service of my king and country, I am well satisfied. I had difficulties and disadvantages to struggle with, which those only can conceive who have found themselves in similar situations. My little vessel sailed on her voyage with no creditable report of her fitness for the purpose; and even her successful performance of it did not obtain her that praise which in my humble opinion she merits. To conclude, I must say, that I risked my life and character on the event of the voy-

age, and sailed from England with very little assistance, her inferior size and peculiar construction having deterred those who might have been of the most use from engaging to sail in her."

We cannot help expressing our regret that his abilities as a seaman and his warm zeal for the service have met with so inadequate a return: for, though it must be acknowledged that the addition which he has made to our stock of maritime discovery is not very great, it seems as much as could justly be expected, considering the disadvantages under which he laboured, and the little encouragement he received. We learn from colonel Collins and from occasional hints in the present work, that the *Lady Nelson* has since been put under the command of lieutenant now captain Flinders, and sent to take a more accurate survey of Bass's Strait. Why lieutenant Grant was not employed on this service we are not told.

Besides the chart of the south coast of New Holland, the work is illustrated and embellished by distinct sketches of two boats and a cutter with sliding keels, views of Coal River harbour, and a beautiful coloured figure of the psittacus *ambriatus*, or fringe-crested cockatoo.

ART. VIII. *Letters on Silesia, written during a Tour through that Country in the Years 1800 and 1801. By his Excellency JOHN QUINCY ADAMS, Minister Plenipotentiary from the United States to the Court of Berlin.* 8vo. pp. 387.

SILESIA (in German Schlesien) is a province, or duchy, included between Brandenburg, Poland, Moravia, Hungary, and Bohemia; and is about 300 miles in length and 100 in breadth. Breslaw is its capital, and the Oder its chief river. The country is mountainous, and consequently picturesque; its agricultural produce is rather mineral and subterranean, than seminal and superficial; its manufactures are principally in flax, partly in wool, and partly in glass; its commerce is not speculative, but merely exchanges exotic necessities for domestic superfluities.

This duchy was at first united to the crown of Poland, next to that of Bohemia, then (from 1339 to 1740) to that of Austria, and at length to that of Prussia, which, since the treaty of Dresden concluded in 1745, has possessed, and has deserved the allegiance of the people.

Silesia having been long a bone of contention between the rival houses of Austria and Prussia, is regarded as a trophy by the cabinet of Berlin. Its advantages are proclaimed, its beauties blazoned, its statistical value enhanced with triumphant or malicious patriotism. The queen goes to drink its mineral waters; the painters to circulate its prospects; the politicians to estimate its productions. Silesia! how euphonious its sound; Silesia! how beautiful its landscapes; Silesia! how augmentative its revenue;—Mr. American ambassador, do not quit Europe without having seen Silesia:—and his excellency John Quincy Adams accordingly undertakes, with becoming civility, the excursion.

Of this excursion the particulars are recorded in these letters addressed to the author's brother. A map, and a statistical estimate are added from other sources than personal observation. Such

an addition to English literature will be welcomed, not merely in his own country, but here; less because it contains unknown truth, than because it tells useful truth unaffectedly. One reads an American book with a feeling of refreshment; as one quits the metropolitan saloons and opera-houses in June to seek the fragrance of the country in blooming apple-orchards, or meadows of tedded hay. The distilled perfume of the book-maker's style, which bemusks and be-civets every London composition, and which is become as necessary to us, as his snuff to the idler, is here not sprinkled over every page, and vialled in every sentence. The author is content to write as he learned to speak, without substituting the technical jargon of acquirement to the honest voice of nature. He judges of men and things with none of the enthusiasm of taste, or the paradox of philosophy, but with good sense; and wins his easy way to the reader's sympathy and approval exactly by the straight-forwardness of his course.

The damask table-cloths of Silesia are still an article of luxury which the manufacturers of this country have not learned to rival.—These beautiful wares are made at Hirschberg and Schmiedeberg. The fourteenth letter supplies particulars of the state of this manufactory.

"Upon our arrival here, I hastened, immediately, to deliver a letter I had for a Mr. Hoffman, the clergyman of the place. Unfortunately for us, he was obliged to go early yesterday morning to Hirschberg. He, however, requested his friend, Mr. Frederica, to shew us the objects deserving a stranger's curiosity here, which he has accordingly done. They consist, principally, of linen manufactures, of various kinds; a business which, in proportion to the size of the place, is carried on with more activity here than at Hirschberg. The town contains, at most, five thousand inhabitants; and their exportations amount to about a million dollars annually.

"One of the principal merchants of this town is a Mr. Waldkirch, who is at this time employed in erecting buildings, sufficient for bleaching from twenty to twenty-five thousand pieces of linen, yearly. For this purpose, he has one large house, in which he hangs up the linen which has passed through the bleaching-tubs, instead of stretching it, as is usual elsewhere, upon a grass-plot. He gains, by this, the advantage of being able to perform the process of drying, the whole year round, and is no longer dependent upon the season and the weather. He is likewise introducing, from Ireland, the use of oxygenated muriatic acid (I am not chemist enough

to know precisely what it is), to whiten the linen the better. Here, likewise, we saw the process of dressing the linen, by passing through a tub of starch; the object of which is, to give it stiffness, and a gloss to the eye; but which they have not been accustomed to here, and which they say, perhaps with truth, is rather injurious than beneficial to the linen.

"Another large manufactory is that of white tape, belonging to Mr. Gebauer, which is likewise a recent establishment here. It is a linen manufactory in miniature, the whole process of making it being exactly the same. This however, is more properly a manufactory; as the weaving, as well as the bleaching and dressing, is done here. There are between thirty and forty looms at work; and in each loom, from fifteen to thirty-six pieces of tape are made, in proportion to the width, which varies from about three inches, to a quarter of an inch. The machine, by which so many shuttles are set in motion by one loom, is an English invention, as is without exception, every contrivance for the abridgement of labour which we have yet seen in this province.

"The weaving is likewise performed in the manufactories of printed linens and cottons, and of damask table linen. The printed linens are principally handkerchiefs and shawls; the figures upon which are partly printed by women, and partly made by wooden moulds, the surface of which is first laid upon the colours, ready prepared, and then applied to the linen. In cotton they work very little; and what they make is very much inferior to the English. The table-linen is inferior in quality, and higher in price, than that made in Saxony. This manufactory does not thrive here, and would soon go entirely to ruin, but for the particular encouragement of the government. The damask is made either of linen altogether, or with a mixture of silk, of which they make a sort of table-cloth, much used within the country but not exported elsewhere.

"Another article of manufacture, that we have met here, is what they call creas, a sort of linen, made of yarn instead of thread, and bleached before it is wove. The distinction between yarn and thread is not owing to the difference of the article from which they are spun, but to the manner of spinning; thread is twisted in spinning; yarn is spun out, simply, and consists only of one part. This name of Creas is Spanish, as are those of *Platilles*, and *Estopilles*, by which the different sorts of linen and lawn are designated. Some of the pieces, too, are called *Bretagnes*, and they are rolled up à la *Morlaix*; because the Spaniards were formerly furnished with those articles from manufactories established at *Morlaix*, in the province of *Britanny*. The *Bretagnes* are small pieces of linen, containing just enough to make two shirts, and done up in flat squares, much as you have been used to see cambrics, in our shops. Mr. Waldkirch told me they were obliged to send

them in such pieces, because the Spaniard is so lazy, that he must even have his linen cut out for him, before he will buy it. The pieces à la Morlaix are of sixty Silesian ells, and rolled up very close, as round as a spindle. What they call *Platilles royales* are done up much like Irish linen; folded, and tied round with bands of stiff paper, ornamented with a red ribband, at one end stamped figures upon silver plating, to make it very showy: the love of finery being as strong in the common Spaniard, as his laziness. This same disposition, of judging every thing by the eye, makes it necessary to give the linens, likewise, a fine gloss; and various inventions are used for the purpose: among which, a machine used by Mr. Gentsch, another principal merchant of Schmiedeberg, most attracted our attention. It is put in motion by the means of wheels, which are turned by water, like a common water-mill, and four thick plates of glass, of a circular form, and round edges, are made to pass backwards and forwards, over as many pieces of linen, which by the same process, are made to unroll and pass under them. They really give it a beautiful gloss; but from the extreme pressure they apply to it, must be hurtful to the article itself. Undoubtedly the linen is in its most perfect condition, as it comes from the peasant's hands, when the flax has undergone the operations of spinning and weaving.—If nothing further were done to it, there can be no doubt but it would last double the time. The whole business of bleaching, fulling, mangling, and glossing, is but a continued effort to make the article look fairer, and, at the same time, to rend its texture: it is the art of a prostitute, who paints the deeper, the more she is racked with disease."

From the etymology of the technical terms in use, it appears that the make of linen began in Spain, then migrated to Flanders and its neighbourhood, and next penetrated to Germany. Another paragraph, which will appear curious to commercial readers, shall be extracted from the xviiith letter.

"Mr. Jopfer asked me if I could recommend any mercantile houses to him in New York, Philadelphia, or Baltimore, as perfectly sure houses, to whom he could safely consign linens; and the same question has been asked me by other merchants in these towns; but I have ventured only to name Mr. —, at Boston, and that without knowing whether it would be agreeable to him. I will thank you to send me one or two other names of merchants in each of those towns who do business upon consignments, and who enjoy the most firmly-established credit. But let them be genuine, solid merchants, whose credit is founded upon their character for honesty, and not, as is too common in our country, upon the extravagant extent of their

enterprises. I shall likewise be obliged to you to make some enquiries what was the situation, in point of pecuniary circumstances, of Mr. —, of South Carolina, when he died; for he owed about four thousand pounds sterling to Mr. Hasenclever, who never could obtain the payment of it in his lifetime, and whose daughter has been equally unsuccessful in her application for it since his decease."

We incline to think that this method of advertising the complaints of injured merchants against their correspondents may be rendered conducive to mercantile probity. It is but too true that the interests of very remote and distant connexions are sometimes overlooked by those, who are very careful to merit the good word of neighbours and acquaintance. Merchants are every where great readers, especially of the living languages; and if a few commercial tourists have the information and the courage to denounce the remarkable instances of capitals detained and charges accumulated unjustly, they may found among traders a solicitude for character of the large scale, for cosmopolitical reputation, analogous in its effect to the pursuit of the good opinion of one's neighbours.

The xviiith letter describes a festival novel by its very antiqueness of taste.

"The shortness of my paper and of my time, yesterday abridged my description of the natural ruins at Alersbach, one of the most curious objects we have yet viewed upon this journey. As I was closing my letter, the king and queen passed under our windows, on their way to Fürstenstein: there a double entertainment, combining the fashionable amusements of ancient and modern times, a carousal and a masquerade, was prepared for them.

"The carousal was in a style of great splendour and magnificence. The sixteen knights, the herald, and the banneret, were clad, not in armour, but in the fashionable full dress of the age of Charles V. and Francis I. The ceremonies were performed with rigorous accuracy, according to the usages of chivalry. The exercises of the knights were, in themselves, nothing at all. The highest proof of skill was to take a ring from the hand of a statue, with the point of a spear, upon a horse at full gallop: even this very few of them succeeded in doing. At any riding amphitheatre in Europe, or America, may be seen for half a crown the same things performed with infinitely more skill and address. But the close adherence to the forms usual in the times when knighthood was in its glory; the pomp and solemnity of the representation,

the contrast between the grandeur of the spectacle and the old ruined walls, the relics of five centuries; and between the romantic wildness of the extensive prospect around, and the crowded thousands who were present to see the show; all contributed to produce a pleasing effect. The four most successful knights received medals of different value, proportioned to the degree of the prize they obtained. The queen hung the medals upon their necks. It was expected that after the names of the victors had been proclaimed, and the herald had thrice called out to ask if any knight were yet disposed to dispute the prizes adjudged, a strange knight would appear, and enter the lists to renew the contest for the first medal; but this expectation was disappointed.

"The masked ball was given in the house where the count now resides, an elegant and richly furnished modern building, which was illuminated upon the occasion. There were scarcely any masks in character, and no attempt was made by those that were to support it: upon the whole it was very dull. The principal company consisted of the knights, who had performed at the carousal, and their ladies: three quarters of these, to say the least, were dissatisfied at the issue of the day, in which, as is very common on such occasions, the race was not to the swift, or the battle to the strong; for it was supposed, that the very best riders of the company, failed in obtaining any one of the prizes. Thus the countenances in shade, and the multitude of black dominos, with unmeaning or hideous masks, gave the whole rather the appearance of a funeral procession than of a high festivity. We staved not more than half an hour, and a little after midnight returned to our inn at Waldenburg."

In the account of the public library at Breslaw, the following fact, very interesting to the British antiquary, is stated.

"It contains, besides many large and costly compilations in print, a number of valuable manuscripts, among which is a copy of Froissart's Chronicle, in four large folio volumes, written upon parchment, and adorned with a great number of coloured drawings, executed in the best manner of the age when it was written. Its date is of 1408, and it contains about one third more matter than the printed edition of Froissart, whose editor thought it expedient to omit every thing which he thought would not redound to the honour of the nation. I asked Mr. Scheibal, the present librarian, why he did not publish an edition of the book from this genuine manuscript. He said that such things could be undertaken at this time only in England, and that the work in Germany would not pay the expence of the publication."

Twenty-nine letters of agreeable sim-

plicity fill the first half of this volume: the second half is occupied by a geographical, statistical and historical sketch of Silesia. The account of its learned men will most interest our readers.

"Of the three chief worthies, whose names deserve above the rest to be recorded, Opitz, Wolff, and Garve, that of the second only has been much heard of beyond the bounds of Germany.

"Martin Opitz may truly be considered as the father of German poetry. He was born at Bunzlau in 1597, and died at Dantzic in 1639. He wrote in verse and in prose, in Latin and in German; original translations, and imitations. His original poems consist of an Eulogium upon the God of War; a Description of Mount Vesuvius; Verses in Praise of Bacchus; Panegyrics upon distinguished Persons; his contemporaries; Epithalamiums, Funeral Songs, Elegies, Odes, Sonnets, Epigrams, &c. His translations, of tragedies from Sophocles and Seneca; of the Psalms, Solomon's Song, and the Lamentations; of Cato's Distichs, and from sundry other classics. He likewise put the Treatise of Grotius, upon the Truth of the Christian Religion, into German verse. He published, in prose, a Treatise upon German Prosody; and although the poets of the present age have introduced a greater variety of measures, with all the forms of the Latin and Lyric epic and lyric verse, as well as the English blank verse; yet, for the great essentials of poetical genius and harmonious numbers, it is said by competent judges that he has been surpassed by none of the German poets of the present age. His most common measure of verse is the alexandrine, which in his age was much used by the English poets; though afterwards, with reason, abandoned by them, as too formal and monotonous: it is the measure of Drayton's Polyolbion.

"Christian Wolff, one of the most eminent moral philosophers of the last century, was born at Breslaw in 1679, and received his early education at the Magdalen school in that town, as Opitz had done before. Being the son of a poor, though reputable tanner, he had not the means of pursuing his studies to the extent which his inclinations urged; but it is the peculiar prerogative of genius, not only to burst through all restraints of this nature, but often to turn them to the greatest account. Wolff happened to be the owner of a single book, which was Euclid's Elements, with a comment by Clavius; this, for the want of others from which to satiate his thirst of knowledge, he was obliged to study incessantly. When this had fixed the application of his mind to geometry, he procured, by frequenting the public library, the means of studying a system of algebra by the same Clavius. While he was thus employed, his curiosity often induced his attendance at the public disputations held in the

catholic colleges, and his taking a part in them. He says himself that the concurrence of these circumstances first led him to the idea, that geometrical demonstration was no more than a series of duly connected syllogisms, such as he was in the habit of using to support his theses at the disputations. This one idea was the foundation of all his fame, and the origin of the method which he always pursued in his philosophical works—that of adopting the forms of geometrical reasoning to the subjects of moral philosophy. With some difficulty, and by pecuniary assistance from the magistrates of his native place, he succeeded in procuring the advantage of instruction at the university of Jena, and afterwards that of Leipzig. His first publication was a probationary dissertation to obtain the degree of master of arts. In this treatise he unfolded his system of applying mathematics to moral philosophy; a system to which he adhered in all his subsequent voluminous writings. At Leipzig he became acquainted with Leibnitz, and adopted his theory, so much celebrated and so much ridiculed, of the *pre-established harmony*. In 1707, Wolff became professor of mathematics and natural philosophy at Halle, where, by the superior splendor of his reputation, and weight of influence, he excited the malevolence and envy of two professors, his colleagues, named Lange and Gundling. They attacked, and procured others to attack his writings; but finding themselves unsuccessful in that field, they tried another with happier effect. They had appealed to the king of Prussia, Frederick William I. father of the great Frederick, and protector of the university, stating the necessity of suppressing Wolff's doctrine of pre-established harmony, which they contended was tantamount to fatalism. The king, who knew as little about one as the other, and thought it only a dispute concerning hard words, favoured Wolff the most, as the most profitable professor, and prohibited all further attack against him. Lange and Gundling, however, by working with the logic of a sort of court buffoon, who was likewise president of the Academy of Sciences, upon the sagacity of two generals, at length succeeded in making the king comprehend, that pre-established harmony made man a mere machine, and of course made it perfectly a blameless action in a soldier to desert. To confirm this ingenious theory, the two generals complained, that since the promulgation of those pernicious doctrines, the desertion among the troops had actually increased to an alarming degree. There is no penetration so acute, no address so well applied, as that of dulness, inspired by malice and envy, and working for the ruin of genius. The rivals of Wolff had touched the true string to the king's heart. He was now sure that pre-established harmony meant atheism, or high treason, or both, and instantly dismissed Wolff from his professorship, with

an order to withdraw from Halle within 24 hours, and from the Prussian territories within two days, upon pain of death. The banished philosopher found, however, a new patron in the king of Sweden, then landgrave of Hesse Cassel, who gave him a professorship at Marburg, with the same rights and distinctions he had enjoyed at Halle. The Prussian university was deserted by most of its students; and Frederick William began to doubt of the pernicious tendency of pre-established harmony. At this stage of the business, in the true spirit of despotism, hang first and then try, he ordered four ecclesiastics of Berlin to examine and make report upon the writings of Wolff. The report was altogether favourable; and the king, at two different periods, in 1733 and 1739, made advances and proposals to draw back the professor to Halle, which he with proper spirit and dignity rejected. At the invitation of Frederick II. however, upon his accession, and with the king of Sweden's consent, he returned, and was reinstated at Halle, with a handsome salary, the title of privy counsellor, and the liberty of lecturing as he should think proper, without limitation. He afterwards was appointed chancellor of the university, and, in 1745, was created a baron by the elector of Bavaria. His fame and his doctrines were now triumphant in every part of the learned world; but found, before his death, more formidable enemies in Maupertuis and Voltaire than Lange and Gundling had been. He died in 1754. The credit of his philosophy began already to decline; and at this day thousands and thousands of readers, perfectly familiar with Voltaire's ridicule of pre-established harmony, know not that it was pointed more at Wolff than against Leibnitz.

Christian Garve was born at Breslau in 1742, and educated at the universities of Halle and Leipzig, where he was for some time professor of moral philosophy. The latter part of his life he spent in his native city, where he died in the year 1799. His works are numerous, originals and translations; but almost wholly upon ethical subjects. His translation and comment upon Cicero's Offices, done at the request of Frederick II. is said to be such as if it had been dictated by the very genius of the Roman philosopher. His review of Mendelssohn's *Phædon*, and his remarks upon Ferguson's *Moral Philosophy*, these writers declare they would rather have written than the books themselves. Among his most celebrated productions is a *Treatise upon the Agreement between Morals and Politics*. The last work he published was *Anecdotes of Frederick II. and of his Conversations with him*. He is certainly to be esteemed one of the first names in German literature."

To characterize a book executed with propriety (the 259th page ought however to have been struck out at the print-

ing office) is less easy, than where the features are marked, or the manner original. Not considering the author as one whose right it is, uncensured, to be dull; we do not wish to be so civil as to prove unjust. We have derived some amuse-

ment if not delight from his narrative, and some information if not instruction from his facts: and in general we have noticed his style with content, his materials with satisfaction, and his reflexions with acquiescence.

ART. IX. *A Tour through the British West Indies in the Years 1802 and 1803, giving a particular Account of the Bahama Isles.* By DANIEL M'KINNEEN, Esq. 8vo. pp. 272.

FEW literary travellers have of late years visited our colonial possessions, either in the east or in the west. The spirit of enterprise which supplies them with new adventures is rarely connected with the love of letters, and for curiosity they are too distant, the climate too hazardous, and the objects themselves not sufficiently inviting. This is more particularly true of the West than of the East Indies: the original islanders have long since been extirpated, their language has perished with them, and they were in too rude a state of society to have left any monuments of art or power. Having extirpated these unhappy and unoffending people by cruelties that will for ever remain the foul reproach of their history, the Europeans continue to supply their place and keep up a forced and scanty population by means as atrocious as the first depopulation. Man therefore presents nothing to tempt the traveller, for to the philosopher these islands offer nothing but what is humiliating and melancholy, either in their past history, their present state, or their future prospects. The beauties of nature are indeed unequalled there, but that inducement is more than counteracted by the dreadful pestilence, which seems destined to root out a race that has for so many generations so wantonly and wickedly abused its power, and defied the judgment of Almighty God.

We feel therefore obliged to Mr. M'Kinnen for the volume now before us: he who communicates information to the public is entitled to their gratitude, and from such writers we are willing and glad to learn.

This gentleman left England in the summer of 1802. During the passage, though the air in the lower regions generally came from the east, he observed an upper stratum of thin clouds continually moving from the westward. A remarkable instance of the exhilarating effects of climate is mentioned; a young

person labouring under a severe pulmonary affection, which had confined him all the early part of the passage to his bed, on approaching the tropic, appeared, as it were, suddenly to wake from a painful dream, and with extravagant signs of joy ran about the deck, exclaiming, that an oppressive load had been taken from his head. Invalids who have themselves experienced the delightful feelings induced by a genial atmosphere, will readily believe this statement.

Our traveller, or rather voyager, first landed at Barbadoes.

"The present appearance of the town I must confess disappointed and displeased me very much on landing. As few nations can be put in the least competition with the English for cleanliness, and all the external signs of comfort about their habitations, I was sensibly struck with the disagreeable aspect of a place of so much consequence in the West Indies as Bridge Town. Its streets in a great measure unpaved; the decayed and warped figure of the wooden houses; the dirty and unfinished fronts of the brick dwellings, with smutty timbers and staggering piazzas, excite at first an idea that the national character was totally vitiated or lost in this torrid climate. But a little reflection satisfied me that it might be ascribed altogether to the influence of causes which do not in the least derogate from the colonial taste for cleanliness and comfort. The perpetual heat, interrupted only by occasional showers of heavy rain, succeeded by an immediate blaze of sunshine, cannot fail to penetrate and consume any substance constantly exposed to the weather. Hence the crumbling and dilapidated appearance of all the buildings,—particularly about their roofs and basements, which are more severely affected by the heat and damps. The strong exhalations also and mingled odours of the streets, which immediately follow the rain, are not a little disagreeable to a new-comer; for an intelligent nose may analyze the essences of rum, sugar, and molasses, blending with the fragrance of fruits and vegetables, and the fetid effluvia of mud and negro population. It is further to be considered, that most of the principal inhabitants of the towns intend their dwellings merely as places of temporary residence, till

they have acquired the means of removing to a more temperate climate, and naturally feel less solicitous to dispose of their money in objects of unprofitable and temporary concern. And a third cause, which operates most powerfully to give the West India towns an air of poverty and filth, is the great proportion of houses with which they are crowded, belonging to people of colour and emancipated slaves, whose means will rarely enable them to build any thing better than a shed; and who are happy to take possession of and patch up the wrecks of houses that otherwise would be deserted."

The surrounding scenery, however, is beautiful, not from any grand features of nature, but from the richness of tropical plants and the costume of the cultivated landscape, so novel to an European eye.

"Along the shore to the north of Bridge Town I found the road extremely picturesque. It leads through a long avenue of shady cocoa-nut trees, over-arched by their palmated and spacious leaves, and fenced on each side by prickly pears, or the blades of aloes. In occasional openings, or through the stems of the trees, you behold the master's dwelling-houses with the negro-huts adjoining; and over a rich vale, abounding with cotton-shrubs and maize, the hills at a small distance spotted with wind-mills, sugar-works, and a few lofty cabbage trees, or cocoa-nuts. At times the road approaches the sea and leads along the beach, frequently overspread by cedars or manchineel. It then winds into the plantations, where the cultivated parterres of cotton and tropical plants are often relieved by groups of cocoa-nuts and plaintains, the leaves of which in the form of squares or quadrangular figures, have a singular effect in the landscape.

"It is not an unusual thing to see a team of as many as sixteen or even twenty diminutive oxen labouring with a small load, and three or four lusty negroes occupied in a work that one man with a single horse and cart could perform with ease in England. The same debility pervades all ranks. You meet in the roads and avenues of the town riders in loose linen dresses and broad-brimmed umbrella hats, their horses gently ambling or pacing; a black running footman perhaps with his hand twisted in the horse's tail, following; and a distance of twelve or fourteen miles is a journey of no inconsiderable exertion for the day."

When Grainger wrote his poem of the Sugar-Cane, he celebrated Barbadoes as its favourite soil. The soil must then have been more fertile than at present; for this and some other of the Caribbean islands are supposed to be sensibly on the decline. The fact is, the new set-

tlements offer a new soil, whereas in the old ones the planters have to manure an exhausted one.

"The most agreeable situations in the country are certainly those *to windward* (which is a term universally used in the West Indies to denote the east, from whence the wind generally blows); and the spots commonly chosen for building are those which are highest and most exposed to the draught of air. Some of the country houses are well contrived for all the purposes of comfort and coolness. But the mode of building generally practised might be greatly improved upon; nor should I apprehend one need go further for a perfect example than that of the native Indians in the construction of their dwellings. I was shown a model of a house with all their domestic conveniences imported from South America. The sides represented a wicker work of bamboo canes, and the roof a tight thatch, I believe of *palmeto* leaves; thus admitting the breeze horizontally in every direction, and excluding the rain at top. Their beds were a loose elastic net-work, like the hammocks of the Charaibs, who made them of cotton, and of a texture remarkably neat and durable. The only objection I found to the model of the house was, that it did not provide against an admission of rain, or the sun's rays, in an oblique direction (which might easily be done by substituting the moveable lattice-work resembling Venetian blinds, now particularly in use); nor of the damps affecting always the lower parts of the West India houses, and which ought necessarily to be constructed of more solid materials. No doubt the aborigines, advancing towards civilization, as these beginnings evidently show, had become studious of those comforts and conveniences which soften the rigour of the tropical sun, and which their experience would have gradually discovered much more effectually than the knowledge of the Europeans, whose inveterate habits and ideas cannot easily assimilate with the climate."

The plough, it is observed, is certainly a great relief to negroes where it has been introduced; yet all its operations are necessarily slothful and expensive. Mr. M'Kinnen speaks of these unhappy people like a man whose natural good sense and good feelings are continually counteracted by a recollection of the personal civilities which he himself has experienced from the planters. He witnessed the arrival of a Guinea ship: the slaves crowded to look through the port-holes, and hailed the sight of land with a chorus of wild and joyful music, which, he says, was singularly affecting to persons who know how to sympathize with them

in their emotions! A *gang* of sixty negroes whom he saw at work appeared to be in good spirits, while the black drivers, with whips in their hands, stood over them directing and stimulating the work; and he takes care to inform us, that the drivers found no occasion to exercise their whips. He does not mention that when, in 1801, lord Seaforth recommended to the assembly of this island, that the murder of a slave should be made felony, the present punishment being only a fine of eleven pounds four shillings sterling, that christian assembly, at the motion of Robert James Haynes, esquire, returned for answer, that they understood their interests, and knew how to repel insult and assert their rights. Mr. M'Kinnen doubtless conceived that it would be making an ill return for that generous hospitality which he experienced, to have noticed this memorable answer, which stands upon record in our parliamentary reports. But Mr. Robert James Haynes and his worthy majority, who think proper to assert the right of murdering negroes at a fine of eleven pounds four shillings each, may be assured that their good dinners will not be allowed as a set off when their accounts come to be examined in the courts below.

I have tried, says an Englishman of inquiring mind and truly English feelings, in a letter which lies before us; I have tried to enter into conversation with the negroes, in the hope of obtaining information respecting their own country, but always without success. If I ask, how long have you been in this country, the answer is always, *long enough!*—Have you left any family or friends behind you? yes, or no, and *don't boder!* has been all I could get. Unless I were to remain some time among them, could gain their good will, and conquer that habitual feeling of anger and dislike which I believe they feel for all white people, I despair of learning any thing. Perhaps anger and dislike may be improper words; but they seem to think you cannot ask them questions from any kind motive. If it were not for constantly meeting these slaves, so dressed and so *marked** that you cannot help seeing and knowing they are such, I know no climate or spot in the world which I should prefer to the mountains close to us. Good God! if these islands

were but peopled, as England is, by free and happy beings!—What a contrast to the tame and blunted feelings of Mr. M'Kinnen!

From Barbadoes Mr. M'Kinnen proceeded, by St. Vincent's, St. Lucia and Martinique, to Dominica; he notices the small coffee plantations in this latter island, enclosed with high fences to protect the shrubs from the wind, and situated on the acclivities, and sometimes even on the mountain tops; they appeared, he says, to great advantage from the sea. Had he approached nearer, he would have found the effect more singular than picturesque; for as the coffee is always planted either at right angles or diagonally, the sides and summits of mountains, apparently inaccessible, seem covered with a net work of dark green.

"The English in Dominica are confined to the coast, there being few or none who cultivate ten miles inland. Almost all the coffee is raised by the French, small planters with from one to ten negroes; you see their houses among the mountains appearing as if on the brows of the precipices; they never go to the town (Roseau) but to sell their produce, and then twenty or thirty join together, with as many negroes as they can muster among them, and bring it down upon their heads. The English planters there say, "We could not live in the way they do!" so much simpler and wiser is their way of life. Their climate is delightful, says a sailor, then suffering himself under a tropical summer; it is so cold that they are obliged to sleep in blankets."

Antigua, the next place which Mr. M'Kinnen visited, is the seat of government for the Leeward Islands. On this occasion the author makes the following remarks.

"It has been asked, indeed, Why may not the government of all our windward possessions, partaking so essentially of the same laws, customs, and manners, be consolidated in the same individual legislative and executive bodies? It must be confessed that a chain of islands of as great an extent in the British empire in the West Indies, is at present in that predicament, (viz. the Bahamas). There is also a British colony (Jamaica), in which the attendance of the remote members at the seat of legislature is more inconvenient by land, than their attendance at a central spot might be found in these colonies by sea. On the one hand, it might be supposed that such a legislative body, in the ratio of the extent of country it embraced, would be

* With hot irons.

more respectable, liberal, and enlightened; and the administration of one would be less expensive than of several governments; while the colonial establishments would derive that superiority of energy and power which a whole would possess over the aggregate of its parts taken individually. To this, however, it might fairly be objected, that, setting aside considerations of personal inconvenience in the attendance of the members, there would be a deficiency of local knowledge; and that many delays and inconveniences would result from distant communications, which are not felt in this species of domestic legislation. No doubt, if such a project were conceived, the vanity of those persons who figure in the present epitomes of parliamentary government, would be inclined to oppose a scheme to exclude themselves from any part of the drama. But the experience of the present age has too fatally proved the fallacy of speculations indulged by cabinet politicians; and demonstrated that practice differs as much from theory in matters of political science, as in agriculture, or objects of speculative experiment in the common pursuits of life. It may be alleged, that this is a sort of franchise which the inhabitants of these little islands have enjoyed, by charter, from their first settlement, and in which they have as much right to protection by law, as any of the corporations of Great Britain in their municipal privileges. But above all, the delicate and heterogeneous structure of society in these communities renders it extremely dangerous and impolitic, upon the most plausible speculations, to hazard the fallible experiment of a change.—*Paries uli proximus ardet.*"

To these reasons may be added, the possible danger of uniting these islands by a general congress, particularly when the disposition of their late assemblies be considered.

We must mention to the honour of the Antigua planters, that they have afforded the first example of a relaxation of their code in favour of the slaves, by extending to them the trial by jury in criminal cases. The Moravian missionaries have also been greatly encouraged here. This island, since Mr. M'Kinnen's account was written, has suffered severely from the yellow fever. Our sailors, with their characteristic humour, in the midst of its ravages, have given the burying ground a name from the negro who attends there, and call it Pompey's Par-
k! It is a circumstance peculiarly unfavourable both to health and comfort, that the principal towns in the West Indies are situated on the leeward coasts, for the convenience of the shipping. Our English towns indeed are greatly

inferior to those which the French have built; for the French colonists generally consider themselves as settled for life, and wisely provide for their habitual comforts accordingly.

Of Jamaica little is said. Mr. M'Kinnen's visit was too short to admit of any thing more than a superficial glance at some few interesting scenes, and he, therefore, with a commendable forbearance, abstains from offering any general remarks. The effect of heat there on our northern animals is remarkable. He saw a black horse in a friend's stable, which, in the course of a few months, has become perfectly brown; and many of the imported sheep, in the same gentleman's pen, were half stript of their wool, which becomes gradually converted into hair. The Turkey buzzard, or carrion crow of Jamaica, is esteemed of so much consequence in cleansing the country from putrifying animal substances, that its life is protected by a law of the island.

The greater and more novel part of this volume relates to the Bahamas, islands which, from the intricacy of the navigation between them, and the unproductive nature of the soil, have attracted, perhaps, less notice than any other parts of the British empire. The greater islands, or rather groupes of islands, may be esteemed fourteen in number; the smaller, it has been computed, amount to at least seven hundred.

"These small oblong bodies of land, bounding the Atlantic Ocean, on the north-east of the large island of Cuba, and reaching over an extent of ocean commensurate with its length, rise almost perpendicularly from an immense depth of water, and seem to have been formed, if external appearances may be trusted, from an accumulation of shells, or small calcareous grains of sand. The land generally seems low, and its surface and figure throughout the islands is very nearly the same. At the utmost depths to which the inhabitants have penetrated, nothing has been found but calcareous rock, and sometimes an intermixture of shells. At a small distance from the shores, a reef of rocks in many of the islands is observed to follow the direction of the land, and form the boundary of the soundings: without this rampart the ocean is often immediately unfathomable; within it, the bottom is, either of a beautiful white sand, or cleaved with heads (as they are termed) of rocks covered with sea-weed."

Turks Islands, the first in the groupe,

enumerating them in their longitudinal inclination from south-east to north-west, take their name from a dwarfish species of the *cactus*, vulgarly called the Turk's head, from its resemblance to a turban. Some years ago an English postmaster sent off a letter, which was directed to these islands, to Constantinople. Though small, they are of some consequence from the quantity of salt produced there. The calcareous rock, of which the land is composed, lies generally in horizontal layers; from the violent action of the sea, which has evidently, and perhaps recently, beaten over them, the surface appears every where worn, fretted, and broken into holes, or often deep excavations: hence the sea water finds a passage, and has formed in many parts of the interior extensive *salinas*, or salt-ponds. As the hot and dry season commences, the salt begins to crystallize and subside in solid cakes; it remains then only to break the crystals, and rake the salt on shore; and by this easy mode a single labourer may rake from forty to sixty bushels in a day. The principal pond is considerably more than a mile in length, but the process is facilitated by making small pans.

"The resident inhabitants are few in number. Before the American war they amounted to about eighteen white heads of families, and forty slaves; since which period there probably has been little increase. I mention the resident inhabitants; for in the early part of the year, when the salt begins to make, a number of periodical visitants, from the Bermudas, come over for the purpose of raking it. All those who are present on the tenth of February being enumerated, allotments of the ponds are made, and staked off to each person, in proportion to the number of hands given in to be employed in raking salt for the ensuing season. The amount of these annual visitors cannot be calculated with precision. Early this year two hundred had arrived; and I was informed they sometimes numbered between one and two thousand. The pans which the salt-rakers generally lay out are not all of equal dimensions, but depend on each individual's judgment or experience. I saw, elsewhere, some nearly sixty feet square; from whence it was calculated, I do not know with what exactness, that at least five hundred bushels of salt might be raked in a good season. But in Turks Islands the pans are generally smaller: they are filled with the brine about six inches deep, or so as to cover a man's ancles, and a moveable machine, like the wheel of a water mill, but turned by a handle, throws the water from

the pond into a gutter, from which the pan is conveniently and readily supplied."

The Americans are the principal customers; they carry away the salt in their own bottoms, paying a duty of 2s. 6d. Bahama currency, per ton, to the crown, and the receipts of the last year amounted to 2230l. sterling. The colonial government has imposed a farther tax, which the inhabitants resist, insisting that, from their situation, they more conveniently belong to the colony of the Bermudas; and that his majesty has sanctioned in them a sort of palatinate government, by appointing an agent of the crown to reside there.

The Heneagas and Hogsties, though in a very frequented and dangerous part of the sea, have never as yet been correctly surveyed.

"They are minutely known only to those persons called wreckers, who are licensed by the governor of the Bahamas, and cruise amongst those islands for the benefit of salvage, which they receive on all property they may chance to rescue from the waves. Some cocoa-nut trees have lately been planted on one of these keys, as a warning to mariners; but it is doubted whether the wreckers, whose business it is to prey on the disasters of the unwary, will suffer them to grow up, even should the soil permit.

"Happening, in the course of one of my passages through the Bahamas, to fall in with a wrecker, I held as long a conversation with him as his haste would permit, and was inquisitive on the subject of his occupation. I will set down the dialogue as it took place.

"Q. From whence came you?

"A. (as it caught my ear) From Providence—last from Philimingo Bay in Icumei, (a familiar way of pronouncing Flamingo Bay, in Exuma).

"Q. Where are you bound to?

"A. On a racking voyage to Quby (Cuba) and the westward.

"Q. Are there many of you in this quarter?

"A. Morgan, I, and Phinander (Fernandez):—parted company awhile ago.

"Q. What success in cruising?

"A. Middling, but middling.

"Q. We have seen very few wreckers to the eastward—are there many to the westward?

"A. We lay with forty sail four months along Floriday shore.

"Q. Forty sail! Then certainly you must have had many opportunities of being essentially servicable to vessels passing the gulf stream, by directing them to keep off from places of danger, with which you made it your business to become acquainted?

"A. Not much of that—they went on generally in the night.

"Q. But then you might have afforded them timely notice, by making beacons on shore, or showing your lights?

"A. No, no (laughing): we always put them out for a better chance by night.

"Q. But would there not have been more humanity in showing them their danger?

"A. I did not go there for humanity: I went *racking*."

In Crooked Island Mr. M'Kinnen describes a beautiful cavern.

"At the base of a cliff facing the shore, the rock, which is of a loose friable texture, appears to have been exposed to the violent action of the breakers, and the cavities have been shaped in grotesque figures, and embossed or wrought into holes, every where smoothed by the lambent water. The principal cave is at some few paces from this beautiful grotto, with which it has apparently no communication, and you are obliged to enter it by descending from an aperture in the rock above. Within this cave the devastation of the water, evident in various places throughout the island, has left more remarkable traces. In some spots the top appears as if completely demolished; in others it is worn and fretted into regular cavities and shapes, giving it an air of Gothic ceiling, and the stalactites and incrustations on the side walls (if they may be so called) have a damp and mouldy appearance, tinged with occasional hues of green and light blue. In various parts the wild fig trees, which are particularly fond of moisture, have penetrated into the recesses, and shot their bearded roots like clusters of columns on the sides, or through the holes in the roof, which admit the light, and in some places the sun's rays. It extends, in a variety of capricious and romantic figures, to a distance which has never been yet traced; and the imagination, prone to the marvellous, has led some persons to believe that it runs nearly across the island. The bottom was covered with a concretion, many feet deep, of some elastic substance resembling mould, but which is not possessed of any vegetative power. A philosophic gentleman conceived it was an accumulation, for many ages, of the dung of the bats which swarm in the dark recesses of this singular cave. Perhaps it might be going too far back for a cause, to ascribe it to a deposit of marine substances at some very remote period by the sea."

Another grotto of the same character, from the semblance of arched ceiling in ruins, and the cluster of columns in relief on the sides, has been called the Abbey.

Nassau, the seat of government for the Bahamas, is in the island of New

Providence, and the pavement of its streets, in some parts, is the solid surface of a stone quarry. The inhabitants prospered during the late war, and are, with becoming liberality, ornamenting their town by public buildings; and an agricultural society has been recently established under the patronage of the legislature. In 1801 this town contained 1590 white inhabitants, 752 free people of colour, and 3861 slaves, a fearful majority on the side of the oppressed! This was the head quarters of the pirates at the beginning of the last century. A curious account is given of John Teach, the famous Black Beard, who was some time master, or emperor, of this island.

"In person, as well as disposition, this desperado, who was a native of England, seems to have been qualified for the chief of a gang of thieves. The effect of his beard, which gave a natural ferocity to his countenance, he was always solicitous to heighten, by suffering it to grow to an immoderate length, and twisting it about in small tails, like a Rambilles wig; whence he derived the name of Black Beard. His portrait in time of action is described as that of a complete fury; with three brace of pistols in holsters, slung over his shoulders like bandoliers, and lighted matches under his hat, sticking out over each of his ears. All authority, as well as admiration, amongst the pirates was conferred on those who, committing every outrage on humanity, displayed the greatest audacity and extravagance. Black Beard's pretensions to an elevated rank in the estimation of his associates, may be conceived from the character of his jokes. Having often exhibited himself before them as a daemon, he determined once to show them a hell of his own creation. For this purpose he collected a quantity of sulphur and combustible materials between the decks of his vessel; when, kindling a flame and shutting down the hatches upon his crew, he involved himself with them literally in fire and brimstone. With oaths and frantic gestures he then acted the part of the devil, as little affected by the smoke as if he had been born in the infernal regions; till his companions, nearly suffocated and fainting, compelled him to release them. His convivial humour was of a similar cast. In one of his extasies, whilst heated with liquor and sitting in his cabin, he took a pistol in each hand; then, cocking them under the table, blew out the candles, and, crossing his hands, fired on each side at his companions: one of them received a shot which maimed him for life. His gallantry also was of the same complexion as his vein of humour. He had fourteen wives, if they may be so called. But his conduct towards one of them appears to have been too unfeeling and unmanly to admit of description.

The English government, having determined to clear the sea of these ruffians, directed some ships of war to effect that purpose in the early part of last century. Black Beard at that time was lurking in a small vessel, in the creeks and shallows of an inlet near Cape Hatteras, in North Carolina. But the chief magistrate of that province having long connived at his robberies, the sufferers gave information to the governor of Virginia, and the naval force on that station was directed to assist in the extermination of the pirates. The intrepidity displayed in this service by a lieutenant of the name of Maynard, at least equal to that of the rover, and in a better cause, deserves a circumstantial relation.

"From the nature of Black Beard's position, in a sloop of little draught of water, on a coast abounding with creeks, and remarkable for the number and intricacy of its shoals, with which he had made himself intimately acquainted, it was deemed impossible to approach him in vessels of any force. Two hired sloops were therefore manned from the *Pearl* and *Lime* frigates, in the Chesapeake, and put under the command of the gallant officer before named, with instructions to hunt down and destroy this pirate wherever he should be found. On the 17th of November, in the year 1718, this force sailed from James River, and in the evening of the 21st came to an inlet in North Carolina, where Black Beard was discovered at a distance lying in wait for his prey. The sudden appearance of an enemy preparing to attack him occasioned some surprise; but his sloop mounting several guns, and being manned with twenty-five of his desperate followers, he determined to make a resolute defence; and, having prepared his vessel over night for action, sat down to his bottle, stimulating his spirits to that pitch of phrenzy by which only he could rescue himself in a contest for his life. The navigation of the inlet was so difficult that Maynard's sloops were repeatedly grounded in the approach; and the pirate, with his experience of the soundings, possessed considerable advantage in manœuvring, which enabled him for some time to maintain a running fight. His vessel, however, in her turn having at length grounded, and the close engagement becoming now inevitable, he reserved her guns to pour in a destructive fire on the sloops as they advanced to board him. This he so successfully executed, that twenty-nine men of Maynard's small number were either killed or wounded

by the first broadside, and one of the sloops for a time disabled. But notwithstanding this severe loss, the lieutenant persevered in his resolution to grapple with his enemy, or perish in the attempt. Observing that his own sloop, which was still fit for action, drew more water than the pirate's, he ordered all her ballast to be thrown out, and directing his men to conceal themselves between decks, took the helm in person; and steered directly aboard of his antagonist, who continued inextricably fixed on the shoal. This desperate wretch, previously aware of his danger, and determined never to expiate his crimes in the hands of justice, had posted one of his banditti with a lighted match over his powder magazine, to blow up his vessel in the last extremity. Luckily in this design he was disappointed by his own ardour and want of circumspection: for, as Maynard approached, having begun the encounter at close quarters by throwing upon his antagonist a number of hand-grenades of his own composition, which produced only a thick smoke, and conceiving that from their destructive agency the sloop's deck had been completely cleared, he leaped over her bows, followed by twelve of his men, and advanced upon the lieutenant, who was the only person then in view. But the men instantly springing up to the relief of their commander, who was now furiously beset, and in imminent danger of his life, a violent contest ensued. Black Beard, after seeing the greater part of his men destroyed at his side, and receiving himself repeated wounds, at length, stepping back to cock a pistol, fainted with the loss of blood, and expired on the spot. Maynard completed his victory by securing the remainder of these desperate wretches, who were compelled to sue for mercy, and a short respite from a less honourable death at the hands of the executioner."

From hence Mr. McKinnen sailed for Charlestown, and here he concludes his tour, hoping that the originality of its principal subject, which gave rise to the undertaking, will be admitted with the candid as some apology for his errors! It is a plain and sensible volume, aiming rather to inform than to amuse, and therefore communicating information which a more lively traveller might not have taken the trouble to collect.

ART. X. *Travels from Hamburg, through Westphalia, Holland, and the Netherlands, to Paris.* By THOMAS HOLCROFT. 2 vols. 4to. pp. about 1100.

THE fortunes of this book have been long decided. It has lain for exhibition on the parlour-table of all our polished families. All are agreed with the author in being tired at his Parisian festivals; all have acknowledged that, among

the English books concerning Paris in 1802, this supplies the greatest mass of various and minute intelligence. The hate of John Bull for a French metropolis is welcome corroborated by Mr. Holcroft; he confers the sanction of an

observer on the prejudices of untravelled patriotism.

This account of Paris, however, is too deprecatory—*et in Arcadia ego*—it may be alike remote from an heroic likeness and a caricature: but, with the perverse fidelity of a Dutch painter, the ordinary and disgusting objects are so frequent and prominent in the foreground, while the miracles of art and the monuments of magnificence are only seen from afar in dim perspective, that a strong and undeniable resemblance is made to operate as an unfavourable likeness.

Mr. Holcroft had visited France in 1783, and falls into his old route at Amiens, whose cathedral deserved his admiration. He dwells on the subsequent prospects about Clermont; then the rich view of the vale of Montmorenci, and notices the harlequin appearance of landscape in French cultivated country. There are no hedges; so that vast sweeps of crop meet the eye at once; and as the number of small proprietors is great, the plots of field are often parcelled out like dole-lands in petty compartments, where the crimson sanfoin, the blue flax, the yellow radish, the green barley, and the brown vineyard, form a ludicrous *salmagundi*, a gaudy chequered patch-work, put together by utility in derision of the picturesque. The land lost in hedges and ditches is immense in Great Britain; but the labour saved in watching cattle is probably more than equivalent; besides, the ditches serve as drains, and the hedges grow fuel. This conspicuous difference in our rural economy is not so much the result of opposite inference in the farmers, as of the different state of the laws about trespass.

Mr. Holcroft heaves a sigh over the crumbling magnificence of Chantilly. Is it not bad taste to build and inhabit such vast palaces? When filled with guests, the master leads the life of an innkeeper: when empty, that of a ghost in a mausoleum. Personal happiness is better consulted by accommodations more modest; and personal glory is better consulted by erecting *public* works, a bridge, a church, a museum, a temple of merit, a colossal statue, or a college. In Mercier's year 2440 there is a good chapter, entitled *Le Prince Aubergiste*; suppose the state of society refined to the utmost, what would be the fittest destination of these giants, who cover so many acres? to exercise gratuitous hos-

pitality is his answer, to keep a caravan-sary. Great houses are short-lived structures; they seldom please the heir of the builder, they are little seen by travellers, and contribute but in a small degree to the reputation of a country for magnificence. The monuments of art should be placed in towns, where they will often be enjoyed; not in remote forests, where they waste their grandeur on the desert air. Who would take the reputation of building, for himself alone, a Houghton, or a Chantilly? well-comer that of dispersing its materials.

Paris is approached through St. Denis, or, as it is called in the revolutionary road-books, through Franciade. It narrowly escaped a shorter name. A man of letters, suspected of invicemism, was summoned before the police-officers of Robespierre. *Ou demeurez vous?—A Saint Denis.—Fi donc, il n'y a plus de saints—Bien, à Denis—Eh! il n'y a plus de DI—A Ni donc.*

It was worth while to have stopped at Saint Denis, and to have visited the very beautiful Gothic church, in which the former dynasties of French sovereigns lay interred. Their graves have been rifled, their mould dispersed, and their tombs, if remarkable for the costume or excellence of their sculpture, transferred to the paltry conservatory of Gothic art at the Petits-Augustins in Paris. Forsaken of its august tenants, the church itself seems careless of existence; its vaulted roof is broken in; the rains of heaven water the mossy rubbish of its altar; owls flit through the fretwork of its windows: but the stately magnificence of this empty echoing ruin far transcends, in solemnity of impression, the Grecian elegance of the pantheon. Had the kings suffered, as in our Westminster-abbey, the ashes of poets and philosophers to repose by their side, the tombs of Voltaire, Helvetius, and Rousseau would, during the revolutionary fanaticism, have preserved from profanation the royal dead. The proud spirit of exclusion generates a rival intolerance; and both parties miss honours and gratifications, which both might have enjoyed in concert and in peace. The statue of James II. still stands as quietly behind Whitehall, as if the model had never been expelled from a throne.

An engraved inside view of the church of Saint Denis would have been valua-

ble to the artist, and the opportunity of delineation may not long exist; for it is plainly the interest of the intruded dynasty, never to recal the attention and imagination of the French to their antique line of kings.

At entering the streets of Paris Mr. Holcroft is struck with their cavernous appearance. This is a just remark. The houses are too high for the intervening width. Architects should lay down rules for the proportion of streets. A narrow street should be bounded by low houses, a broad street by tall ones. The precise proportion of height covered by the eye might nearly be ascertained. In many parts of Oxford-street the houses are too low. The finest street in Europe is the high street of Edinburgh; its proportions are so just and so colossal. The width of a square is there compressed between gigantic houses almost into the likeness of a lane. Portland-place is too short for a street, and too long for a square: but if the more regular and symmetric portion were detached and bounded by two tall obelisks, the space so separated would become a well-proportioned area.

Mr. Holcroft complains that, although he arrived in a diligence at the inn, no one seemed to expect its arrival. Why this want of punctuality in the public conveyances? It is a grievance which, for our own sakes, the French should be taught to correct. Because government manages the diligences. Give liberty to individual competition, and travelling will soon become on the continent what it is in Great Britain. The French are always publishing plans and invoking government for the organization of the posts, of the schools, of the hospitals, of the water works; let them all be abandoned wholly and resolutely to the voluntary association of individuals; they will then have as good travelling, as good schools, as good hospitals, and as ready a supply of water, as their stage of intercourse, of civilization, of benevolence, and of cleanliness can require. Our endowed free schools in England do no good, but harm: they keep down the price of education, which if better rewarded would be better conducted; and they hitch into genteel life a number of young men, who are lost to industry, and difficult to station for want of capital to subsist on, while in waiting for professional employ. We should lose, it is thought, without them

some evolutions of genius. No. Genius is not so much adapted for the purposes of practical life, as for those of national illustration; and we lose more genius by making it drudge in later life for subsistence, than if it had been early trained to earn its living, and left to educate itself a little later. A common cause of the shipwreck of genius is the dissipation of its attention: this is best resisted by uncongenial employment during youth.

Mr. Holcroft takes his first breakfast at a coffee-house, and finds fault with it. He chose ill; for surely the coffee-houses of Paris are more splendid, as neat, and not less attentively served than the coffee-houses in London. He is pleased with the waiter for accepting the perquisite without any remark, and prefers this to the London practice of receiving too little with insolence, and too much with servility. How is the traveller to learn at Paris what he ought to give? It is instructive to incur insolence for one's meanness, and consolatory to obtain gratitude for one's prodigality. The cause of this difference does not depend on the character of the two nations, so much as on the French practice of flinging whatever is received by a waiter into a common box, whose contents are divided in certain proportions among all the waiters. The individual is little affected by an act of liberality or of niggardliness, and has no personal interest in pleasing or displeasing.

The dress of the French is stated to be slovenly. In the wealthier classes certainly not. But these form a comparatively thin class in French society. The laundress is a costly dropper in; yet clean linen is become very general; but the habit of passing evening after evening at the spectacles or public places, may tend to destroy that personal responsibility for one's appearance, which the habit of family and friendly parties so much contributes to evolve. Call on a Frenchman, or meet him, and he is in dishabille; but he never presents himself so. An Englishman has to present himself at breakfast before the ladies, and must begin the day at the toilet; but in a French family each breakfasts alone, the hour of shaving is late in the forenoon. The time of dressing once arrived, few traces of slovenliness are to be detected, in those who dine at the coffee-house, who attend the public walks, or the higher order of theatres.

Both the women and the men bathe very frequently at all seasons. Their slovenliness rather respects the apartment than the person: they use their rooms as if they were in hired lodgings, and were not responsible for any dirt they make or endure. This arises from the military education of their exemplary classes, who pass their youth in hired lodgings, and preserve the habits there generated. Until the late revolution in our manners produced by volunteering, the working order of the people have never affected to be gentlemen; their clothes were whole and good, but had not the fashionable cut; the distinction was obvious in the street. But among the French, not only the tailor, but the mason, the carpenter, the glazier, assumes the exterior of the gentleman; as soon as these artisans are included in the estimate of national manners, the average degree of slovenliness and imperfection must be found lower, than while observation was fixed on a more select class. This inclusion of the vulgar Mr. Holcroft makes in many of his delineations; he depicts a class below the middle, and describes *le peuple* as the people. Plato idealizes, Lucian characterizes, Aristophanes satirizes the Athenians; and all borrow features from what they saw and knew. But to take the nature which suited the purpose of the comic poet, and to describe it with the gravity of the philosopher Nigrinus, would mislead, and would render incredible the sketches of Plato.

Mr. Holcroft appears to have been first struck with Paris on entering it from the *barrière de Chaillot*, a toll-gate in the *Versailles* road. And surely it might well be taken for the entrance of fairyland; for the worthy portal of an enchanted paradise. Its situation commands a prospect feebly pictured in the words of Milton.

On each side an imperial city stood,
With towers and temples proudly elevate,
On plain and hill with palaces adorn'd,
Porches and theatres, baths, aqueducts,
Statues and trophies, and triumphal arcs,
Gardens and groves by shining waters lav'd:
Th' imperial palace, compass huge and high,

The structure, skill of noblest architects,
With haughty battlements conspicuous far,
Turrets and terraces; domes, glittering spires,

Many a fair edifice besides, more like
Houses of Gods.

Mr. Holcroft next undertakes to groupe and to detail this assemblage of hewn stone; he begins with the quays, or kays, for the French, like ourselves, owe the word to the Dutch *kaay*, which is a derivative of *kaayen*, to hawl. If the terras of Somerset-house and the terras of the Adelphi-buildings were connected by other similar terrasses, skirting edifices of equal majesty, so as to form one long street open to the Thames, and walled with palaces, this street would rival the kays of Paris. Half a mile of such orderly building as the Louvre on one side of the river; on the other the beautifully colonnaded mint, the college of four nations, the passport office; and in front, the fork of the Seine opening over the Pont-neuf two interminable vistas of building, between which aspire the turrets of Notre Dame, and beside which peers, on the flat shore, the dome of the corn hall, and, on the hilly side, the dome of the Pantheon.—form a picturesque assemblage of architectural beauty, no where to be surpassed. Let others admire alpine scenery, whitening cataracts, and pyramidal mountains hiding in the clouds their useless magnitude; give me stones which mind has moved, and shapen into habitations for myriads of men; give me rivers which bridges have yoked, and navigation beswims. I like the view of large cities. The ages which have been necessary to nurse and rear them into their present immensity; the quantity of human labour which has been employed to produce this vast convenient tenantable arrangement; the study, the refinement, the art, the intellect, which were required to impress so tasteful an exterior form, where the sculpture of every capital carries back the imagination to Athens and to Rome; the thousand roads and water-courses, the extensive cultivation and commerce, which the habitations of so condensed and thronging a population imply; the great events of which these cities have been the nest and the seat; the imperial authority which they exercise over distant men and distant ages, both as to opinions, laws and institutions,—all crowd on the soul, and become associated with the walls and roofs, the pinnacles and spires, the domes and columns, and bridges, above, about, and underneath.

This sort of prospect, far the most delightful which the surface of the earth can supply, is enjoyed on a grander

scale, from Blackfriars bridge; but the view in London is too vast to admit of any attention to beauties of detail; works of sculpture and architecture, even, form a more subordinate portion of the whole; hence that train of ideas which carries back the imagination to classical antiquity, is less necessarily and less powerfully excited; but the immeasurably wider extent of builded space, houses rising above houses, streets stretching beyond streets, palaces, theatres, temples climbing from among the endless mass of edifice, further than the eye can trace in any direction; and more than all, the majestic Thames, with the ideas of world-encompassing commerce and empire which that winding forest of masts is adapted to excite, give it on the whole a more stimulant effect. The view of Paris is the most beautiful, that of London the most sublime.

Mr. Holcroft quits the architectural monuments of Paris with too little notice, to dissent on the moral monuments of its ignorance. The street inscriptions and shop boards display much false spelling and bad grammar. A less equivocal mark of general ineducation is the number of writing stalls, where notes and private letters are indited for those who have occasion to correspond, and have not learnt the use of the pen. This is a notorious and degrading feature of French culture. The Sunday schools and evening schools, so common in this country for the instruction of the lowest of the poor, have not been introduced in France. The lines of commercial industry being there less numerous, the necessity of learning to read, write, and cypher is less felt. The public religion, not being conducted in the vernacular dialect, and not exacting from the congregation any loud reading of responses and choral doxologies, offers no weekly motive to the young for endeavouring to take a part in it. Surely it would be rational to lay a tax on children for the support of parish-schools, and to exempt those from it who at eight can read, who at nine can write, who at ten can cypher. The ignorance of the multitude is of all political grievances the greatest; no reformatory is possible where the voice of the printing press is unintelligible. The excessive rage for theatres, spectacles, shows, lectures, results from this diffusive ignorance, which can only profit by speeches and exhibitions; they are forms of instruction for the illiterate.

London could not be governed by its debating societies during the ferment of any revolution; the masters of printed eloquence would be the inspirers of its populace; and this form of influence has a slower and more enduring action. It is safer for governments, which have time, to devise replies and counteraction; and it is safer for the people, because it survives the apostacy of leaders, and leaves a cause as strong as before the champions had deserted. Much of the failure of the French revolution is to be attributed to this local accident: its conductors indeed were bound to know how ignorant a people they had to serve; but many of the intended benefits could have been conferred elsewhere by analogous proceedings to those of the constituting assembly. The Parisian populace cared about what was passing, merely because it tended to elevate and surprise. The quackery of every description of pretenders to notice in France is another consequence and symptom of this pitiable ignorance; there is a sort of low puffing which as certainly ruins a popular author in England, as it makes him in France; yet even in this country discrimination has much to learn, and often confounds notoriety with celebrity. Of the higher order of intellectual merit, which the croud does not attempt to appreciate, the French are quick in judging skilfully; quicker than the English.

Mr. Holcroft justly censures, as troublesome and disgusting, the number of street stalls in Paris, both on the Boulevards and the quays. Persons bring their wares in the morning, spread them on the ground or on tressels, so as to interrupt the foot way; and at night carry them home, to be exposed another day somewhere else. This practice deserves severe animadversion, and ought to be resisted by the magistrate. All hawkers, foggers, and pedlars, not expecting the same customer twice, dispose of damaged wares at the full price, and exact an undue profit. Such shops, therefore, favour fraudulent contracts. The opportunity of selling without paying rent for a shop, defers and resists a rise of rental throughout Paris; and thus intercepts a demand for ground floors, and for additional streets of building. The fixed shopkeeper is not only less extortionary to his customer, but he is more taxable to the state, and more punctual to his creditor. Thus every

order of society suffers by this chance-selling. Dr. Johnson did great service to this country by his memorable sentence: "I always deal at a stately shop; it is not there worth while to take petty advantages." When the Parisians make the same determination, and purchase nothing at by-places, their shops too will improve; and they will find that a nation of shopkeepers is more respectable than a nation of shoplifters.

Among the singularities of the Palais-royal, Mr. Holcroft notices the blind man's coffee-house.

"One of these musical cellars is called *Café des Aveugles*. The master of this coffee-house is blind, the musicians are blind, and doubtless if they could but have conveniently served their customers, the waiters would also have been chosen from the blind. Nothing amuses a Parisian so much as that which he can talk of with astonishment. He generally possesses real sensibility; and, when he can mingle sentiment and compassion with his wonder, it is the summit of pleasure.

"Among the rest, I visited this cellar. I listened to the musicians: he that led the band played solus, and sometimes played finely; the rest performed passably well; it was far from a contemptible orchestra. I looked at them, remembered they were selected from the scholars of M. Haüy, a man who has dedicated himself to the service of the blind: compassion for their fate, the recollection how unhappy they might have been, had no humane brother stood forth as their protector, and the feeling of their comparative happiness, were all affecting sensations. I left the *Café des Aveugles*, not with astonishment at what the blind can perform, of that I was well aware; nor at the intricacies of a superb cavern, to which by scooping out something more like holes than spacious vaults it seems to pretend; but, with a glowing sense of the divine effects of benevolence, and a firm conviction that they will, hereafter, overspread and humanize the world."

The account of the Palais-royal is flat: it is better described in the *Varieties of Literature*. A long arcaded court, of exquisitely beautiful architecture, is planted with parallel alleys of lime-trees, and thus supplies for dry or wet weather an equally convenient walk. Sheltered shops, chiefly for books, fashions, jewelry, and refreshments, surround the piazza, and preserve the appearance of a fair perpetually thronged. In large towns it is convenient to have such places, (Exeter Change is a coarse

parody,) where one can go a shopping in wet weather, and where one can walk dry as in cloisters; and it is highly probable that in this climate, where the want of covered walks is more frequent than in Paris, an edifice similar to the Palais-royal would pay itself in London by the great rental of the shops, and would speedily become an agreeable and fashionable lounge. The architect of the Palais-royal should have chosen a colonnade for his lower story, the arcades intercept so much light as to render the warehouses behind them inconveniently dark. The gambling rooms on the second floor are very splendid; it is perhaps wise for young men to be accustomed to approach and to trifle with the tables of fortune; the habit of risking small amounts, such as it is decorous to venture, and not inconvenient to lose, is the best training for self-command.

Among the public gardens of Paris, surely the Tuileries were entitled to very distinct and peculiar notice. No artificial walk in Europe is equally delightful. Bounded at one extremity by the majestic and ancient palace of the French sovereigns; on the other by the beautiful place of Concord, whose modern colonnaded structures embellish the offskip; with one terras commanding a view of the clear green waters of the Seine, its bridges, and kays; and the other shadowed by tall trees; every object within ken is a study for the artist. Innumerable modern statues of marble and bronze border or terminate the wide vistas; they are chiefly works of the age of Louis XIV. and are good copies of celebrated antiques, representing the Muses, Apollo, Mercury, Diana, Meleager, and the wood-gods. A few, such as those of Cæsar and Alexander, ought rather to have stood in the palace than in its garden. The avenues are agreeably interrupted by marble basins, or pools, peopled with glittering gold fish, and crowned with jets d'eau, whose waters, tossed to the sky in useful columns, scatter, at the caprice of the zephyrs, coolness and verdure through the twilight alleys of the lofty grove, or amuse the eye with rainbow-girded showers. The reader, or declaimer, can take refuge in lonely shades; the lounge can jostle through crouds of well-drest beauty. Coffee, chocolate, ices, and sorbets are offered beneath the pavilions of the terras; and at a later hour music

beckons to the complex feasts of the restaurateur.

The gardens of the Luxembourg also form a fine walk: the trees are older, the alleys darker and lonelier: many fresh statues of Chaudet and Julien are to be placed there. The English plan of gardening makes a better prospect for a painter than these formal arrangements of trees and statues. But in order to accommodate many walkers in a warm climate, there must be no turf and much shade: the pleasure derived from the view of sculpture is different from that afforded by picturesque groups of trees and shrubbery; but it is not less real, or less founded in nature: so that the French garden, justly as it may be censured at Versailles where there was room to be natural, is in fact the wisest plan for constructing a public walk at Paris. Our pleasures of the eye depend on the associated ideas called up by the objects present. An American was observing to me that he abhorred the look of an English park, it put him in mind of uncleaned country, where serpents and beasts of prey and dangerous damps lay hid; but he liked strait hedges, avenues, and roads which implied the dominion of man. This stamp of civilization cannot be effaced from the boundaries of a metropolitan garden, why should it from the centre?

Mr. Holcroft has occasion to describe a Parisian illumination; it produces more effect than the London method of lighting. Little attempt is made by private individuals to arrest attention. The public walks and buildings are wonderfully splendid. The lights in use consist of wooden boxes, like bottle-sliders, filled to the brim with grease, and containing a large wick. They are arranged on the outside of the houses. You see every architrave and window-sill of the long and regular palace of the Tuileries thickly dotted with these torches up to the summit of its pyramidal pavilions, every frontoon and arch regularly framed with them, and in every nich and arcade a depending globular screw of lights—so as to form a building of tongues of fire—and these wavering in the wind, as if the earthly solidity of that huge edifice was no more, and in its place stood a luminous spectre of flame, imitating its form, and shining with the sunny glories of resurrection.

The 63d chapter describes a fair held in the court of the Louvre consecrated

to the display of French industry. There are three important manufactories at or near Paris which produce articles that we cannot yet equal. (1) The looking-glass-manufactory, which for vastness and cheapness of plates is said to excel a similar institution near Blackfriars-bridge. (2) The porcelain manufactory at Seve, where the symmetry of the building, the combination of accomplished artists, and the exquisite material, execution and form of the ware are equally worthy of praise. (3) The tapestry manufactory at the Gobelins, where the drawing of the painter is rivalled and his colouring surpassed, in a tissue of dyed wool. Some jewellers engrave the inside of glass ewers with the perfection of a Cameo; it is a pity to squander such art on a material so frail.

A just observation occurs in p. 320: "No man can promise himself that any portable object shall be stationary in Paris." They new-furnish their squares with fresh works of art, as we new-furnish a saloon. The horses from Venice were once at the Invalides, now in the place Carousel. The four allegorical figures representing quarters of the world, were once in the place Victoire, and are now in the Invalides. Countless statues and pictures have been brought from Versailles to decorate the Tuileries and the Louvre. Now Versailles is to be fitted up again, and other pictures and statues are to be carried thither. The national library, though spaciouly lodged and conveniently arranged, is to occupy rooms in the Louvre of a more stately exterior appearance. These changes however have commonly an adequate motive. The progress of embellishment since the year 1790 is obvious, since 1783 still greater. New ways have been cleared, new bridges built, and new market-places opened on the site of demolished convents. Private palaces which were confiscated by the nation have received a useful destination. No building of eminent beauty but is become the home of some public institution; no eminent national establishment, but is harboured in some admirable edifice. The hospital called the Hotel-dieu, the exchange, and the post-office are among the meanest of the Parisian public buildings. In London too the post-office disappoints: it should be transferred to Moorfields, where the nightly parade of mail-coaches would

have space to expand; and Bethlem hospital should be stationed in a remoter and lonelier spot. It is true the Parisians have only the shell of an admiralty, only the shell of courts of justice, only the shell of a senate and legislative body; but these shells are far finer than those which inclose the analogous bodies in London.

At p. 335 Mr. Holcroft notices the inscription on the Invalides——

Indivisibility of the French Republic:
Liberty! Equality! Fraternity!

and observes that at one of the public festivals the word Bonaparte had been put up so as to cover almost wholly the second line. He was struck by the apt coincidence, but remarked no sensation in other observers. A similar instance might have been noticed on the palace of the Tuileries. In the pavilion inscribed LIBERTY dwell the guards; in the pavilion inscribed EQUALITY dwells Bonaparte. On the pantheon is written AUX GRANDS HOMMES LA PATRIE RECONNAISSANTE: it contains not a single statue. Does this betray the want of greatness, or the want of gratitude?

Mr. Holcroft inveighs against French vanity. This is not a word of easy definition. Eager desire of the applause of others is a leading trait of French character; but this desire almost always operates in the same direction as benevolence: for, whenever people know what actions are most conducive to their benefit, they bestow on such actions their applause: so that it is merely the result of ignorance in the applauders, when they do not obtain useful conduct for their praise. English pride is said to be satisfied with its own approbation: but there is not the same security that individual will shall correspond with general interest, or utility, as there is that the will of numbers shall correspond with it: does it not follow that the love of praise is a more desirable motive of conduct in the generality, than the pursuit of self-satisfaction? The error of Frenchmen is to be too short-sighted in the gratification they strive for; and to value higher the praise of the moment than that eventual praise which aggrandizes for life. They are too soon hurried away by the *civium ardor prava jubentium*, and too soon checked by the frown of the tyrant.

This eager desire of applause is al-

most always accompanied with a disagreeable quality, which in strictness ought to be called *arrogance*, that is, with the perpetual assertion of a claim to have merited the approbation of others in a higher degree than they admit. Mr. Holcroft justly says at page 370,

“ In the fine arts the French will not allow any modern people, the Italians excepted, to be named; and in the highest of those arts, poetry, particularly the drama, they claim exclusive sovereignty. The Italians are treated as buffoons; the Germans and English as barbarians; they do not examine, they deride and despise. By this conduct every nation feels itself insulted; for of all the fine arts poetry is the most generally fascinating; and of all the species of poetry, the fascination of the drama is the greatest.”

A curious experiment on human nature has been made during our own time in Germany, which may assist in deciding the long-pending question between the Grecian and the Gothic drama. In consequence of the passion of the great king of Prussia for French literature, all the fine tragedies of the French were long ago translated into German alexandrines, many of them by distinguished poets, such as Weisse, and were performed at Dresden, Berlin, and throughout Germany. Sulzer and Lessing, two excellent Greek scholars, published about the same period their theoretical criticism, and investigated the theory of dramatic art, in a manner, which no French critic, except Diderot, has any pretensions to have rivalled. Invited by fashion to lean toward Greek and French models, and cautioned by works of imperishable criticism against any real imprudence, what have the German dramatists done? Göthe, content with proving by his *Iphigenia in Tauris* what he could in Greekness of manner surpass Racine, quits that mode of composition for the native natural gothic modern drama, and endeavours to vie with Shakespeare by his *Egmont*, and his *Godfred of Berlichingen*. Schiller and Kotzebue, names as immortal as their language, have composed their finest tragedies in perfect contempt of the unities of time and place. Lessing alone leans to the French precautions, and Lessing is found to produce a comparatively feeble effect. With models of both sorts before them, with the whole extant mass of critical literature

in active circulation among them, the Germans have from theory and from experience given the preference to the gothic drama. Its changes of scene delight the spectator's eye; the prolongation of time renders it possible to dramatize with probability events of greater moment, interest, and complexity, than can be squeezed into a French tragedy; and the whole plan of dialogue is more dramatic. A French tragedy begins and ends with epic poetry, but a gothic play preserves throughout the same consistent method of delineation.

If the poet does his business worse, the manager does it better in France than in England. He does not hire a theatre too large for an audience to hear in. He causes the subordinate parts to be acted with propriety. His scenery is adapted, and his dresses are far more learnedly and attentively in costume than in an English theatre. He can despise finery, and dress a Greek plain: Every stool or chair in Cimna has the Roman moulding: the parts even of the dumb waiters are studied.

Mr. Holcroft notices the extraordinary love of the French for dogs: this taste is probably connected with the lewdness of the French disposition: there is no animal whose demonstrations of affection so frequently assume an indecent character as those of the dog: from observing the dog the Dutch philosopher Hemsterhuis drew the inference that all the benevolent affections are modifications of lust. Among the rich, men and women, have all their lap-dogs; among the poor very large dogs are kept in such numbers, that they must sensibly affect the consumption of provisions. Dog-carts are common, greens are brought to market by dogs, children are drawn by dogs. One would not be surprised to hear of a riot of the dogs in Paris making themselves masters of the butchery, and plundering the shambles in flocks. It is not good for men to live among dogs: the dog has a deal of base servility, which still fawns on the master who is lugging his ears, or lashing his hide: the dog behaves well to whom he fears, but tyrannizes over inferior animals whom he can worry.

"It is a frequent remark of the English who have visited Paris," says Mr. Holcroft, "that the lower classes of the English are by no means equal in readiness of reply and quickness of conception to the common people of France."

This quickness, this plasticity; this adaptability of character is also a feature of the common people in Scotland: it seems to depend on the imperfect division of labour which prevails in poor countries. The young must be fitted to turn their hands to any thing, as the phrase is, where the chance of specific success, the demand for appropriate labour, is small. All savages have this versatility of talent. In manufacturing towns it prevails least. Take a Frenchman of any class in society, and fling him into any other however opposite, and he will be more at home in his new place, be it a great rise or a great fall, than a native of any other country. Our women acquit themselves well in sudden changes from prosperity to adversity, or from adversity to prosperity; but our men have not the suppleness of Frenchmen. This is an advantage especially in revolutionary times: it is perhaps accompanied with an inability to advance themselves decisively by persevering uniform efforts in a single undeviating direction: at least the French produce a vast crop of sudden merit in any line that becomes of national demand, and a comparatively small crop of those enduring, separate and singular exertions, which accumulate into stationary utility. Their efforts seem those of competition and emulation, not those of disinterested ambition.

"The neighbourhood of grandeur and beggary is every where apparent," (says our author). Far less than formerly. The neighbourhood of grandeur is become very scarce. The fairest hotels of the nobility have been consecrated to the use of the state by the magical inscription "Liberty and Equality." The second-rate palaces are subdivided into private dwellings, and commonly contain four or more independent families. The rents of villas at Passy, Auteuil, &c. have greatly diminished; those of Parisian houses little. The French, like the Edinburghers, occupy *flats*: each family has its whole conveniences on the same floor: at bottom and at top dwell the poor, in the second story the middle class. This method of arrangement implies dirty stair-cases, and thorough-fare bed-rooms, and a consequent indifference, from habit, to what we consider as the uncleanness and indelicacy of such passages. The apartments are larger, and furnished in a grander, purer, and less finical taste than those of the corresponding classes in English so-

ciety. The French spend less in hospitality, more in lodgement than the English. The aim is at rank, not at comfort. Misery, as well as superfluity has diminished. The *gutsgettes*, or ale-houses of the multitude, thrive and are improved. Bare feet and wooden shoes have disappeared. In consequence of the great demand for men in the armies of the republic the wages of labour throughout France have risen, in the provinces one fourth, in Paris one third. I have seen in the pit at the opera, a plasterer who had been at work in my apartment. Many sorts of labour formerly done by men are now undertaken by women, such as sweeping apartments, cooking even, and fetching water. Shop-keeping, letting chairs in the public churches, weaving, footing, and grafting silk stockings, letting drawers to bathers, seaming for the tailors, painting decorations on furniture, are mostly performed by women, many of whom live unmarried and rear a family with considerable decorum and facility. In some printing-offices women are employed. There is little domestic education; children are put out to nurse, put out to school, and taken home with beggarly elements of education, as soon as they can be made to earn any thing. The loss of infant life is prodigious: the nurses about Paris outhiered Herod. Adultery is on the decrease; it has ceased to be reputable in France: men begin to feel that there is a want of dignity in begging for what they can buy. This is the first step to every reformation. There can be no very strong parental affection in the husband of a suspected woman; of course little attention to educate and to provide for the offspring. Economy, industry, the principles of justice in the distribution of property, can never take root in a family, whose cradle is supposed to contain a changeling substituted by the mother. Filial affection scarcely originates where its object is uncertain or infamous: and does not last to repay the debt of infancy to age. Adultery prevails most where the men are numerous and poor: it is recurred to as a cheap plan of indulgence, which the labour, no otherwise to be turned to account, of a given quantity of seductive attentions will purchase: it abounds therefore in Italy, and in Spain: but in rich countries, and in times of war, it naturally abates. Coarser sins have not decreased: in the creed of French epi-

curism, continence is the only unnatural vice. Books, prints, and exhibitions of the most exceptionable kind are frequent in the Palais-royal.

The best school in Paris is the *Ecole Polytechnique*. It embraces, besides the classical languages, the encyclopedic sciences. Drawing is taught to every individual, as we teach writing. Collections of instruments to facilitate instruction are deposited at the institution. The first professors in Paris lecture there—Monge, Fourcroy, Berthollet: it is conducted after the manner of a Scottish university, and is especially attentive to the mathematical and military sciences. It was intended to consist of picked boys, who headed the classes of inferior schools; but interest at court can introduce the desirable proportion of dullness. This school, like every thing French, is made a show: the lecture-rooms are superb, the apparatus dazzling, the building noble, the teachers celebrated, and strangers struggle for permission to be present at a lecture.

The *Ecole Veterinaire* is also in good hands. It is situated at Charenton; and supplied not only with an admirable collection of exquisite anatomical preparations and injections of animals and monsters: but with land, on which Spanish sheep, Java hogs, Arabian horses, and other improved breeds of cattle are reared for presents to the prefects of departments. Thus the new races are speedily diffused over the surface of France. Great praise is due to Mr. Godine junior for the courtesy with which strangers are received, and the intelligence with which they are instructed. The profession of veterinary surgeon is become general in France: every regiment of cavalry has one, who often holds a commission besides.

La Morgue, a grated chamber in which the dead bodies of suicides and of other victims to suspicious accidents are exposed to be owned, is described by Mr. Holcroft as empty on the average about twice in a month. Now as there are often two or more dead bodies, it may be inferred, that about a death per day of this kind is detected in Paris. What the coroner's register would state to be the average number of suicides and unaccountable deaths in London is unknown; but probably it bears as large a proportion to the population. If Paris be supposed to contain 550,000 inhabitants, one voluntary or sudden death per day is

about one in fifteen hundred persons yearly. This is not much. There is more humanity in visiting the rash self-destroyer at home, than in thus dragging his carcase to indecent exposure and contemptuous burial. For the tenderness of personal and family morality to stamp suicide with displeasure is natural; but the magistrate has no right to be angry with those, who, being tired of the banquet of life, withdraw from a place which others covet. The subterfuges to avoid confiscation often bring, in England, the reputation of insanity on families, where there was only incurable personal disease, or unexpected incurable poverty. In the year viii. there were but 130 dead bodies, and in the year ix. but 190 brought to La Morgue; but this is understood to be below the average: of these, from ten to twelve had perished by the violence of others. If the common soldiers killed in fair duel with each other be included in this reckoning, it reduces within narrow limits the annual number of murders.

Mr. Holcroft's account of the state of religion at Paris is given in these words:

"Government has organized religion. At the head of the church no pope is placed; no cardinal governs under him: the chief consul of France will not admit of competitor in church or state; he can brook no controul; he can imagine no understanding sufficiently vast to give him instruction.

"Citizen Portalis, lately an emigrant, acts under the supreme Bonaparte; by him *les affaires des cultes* are superintended.

"And what manner of man is citizen Portalis?

"His political career is too public to need any report of mine concerning its progress: but his private opinions are, perhaps, something less notorious.

"After he fled from France, he visited various cities of Germany; where the general tone of his conversation declared him to be what is called entirely free from religious prejudices; for him no opinion, merely as an opinion, was too licentious. But this was not because he wished to probe error, and to profit by acquired knowledge: he held it a folly to talk of corrupt ages, or corrupt nations. Though every fact of historical and individual experience prove the pernicious falsehood of the opinion, he maintained that men are and ever were the same; and that, being acted upon solely by self interest, the art of governing them is the art of profiting by their selfishness. Popery he affirmed to be the only state religion; because, as he emphatically added, it is a sieve that will suffer any politics to pass.

"Citizen Portalis is become the secret and one of the most intimate counsellors of the chief consul.

"That these, and the whole train of their relative opinions, were the daily topics of his conversation I have the word of a man of mild manners, strict probity, and no less famous for the powers of his mind than the purity of his morals.

"Under politicians so profound, the church has been wrested from the precarious patronage of the pious; and once more joined to the state. What the sum of the benefits may be, which the state is to receive from religion and religion from the state, time must determine: present appearances augur but faintly. That lordly host, whose voices combined inspired even majesty with tremendous awe, and so frequently drove ignorance frantic, is now replaced by twelve parochial churches, one for each municipality, and twenty-seven chapels of ease, for the catholic worship.

"The protestants are allowed three chapels; the total for catholic and protestant is forty-two; and beside these there is at present no other place of religious worship in Paris.

"And are these churches and chapels duly and respectfully attended?

"This I made a constant object of enquiry.

"As masses, private and public, vespers, and other ceremonies are performing through perhaps one half of the day, the churches are open one half of the day; the churches are open, and you seldom can enter them but a few scattered beings are seen kneeling round this or that petty side altar, and interceding, if words muttered can be called intercession, with the holy Virgin. But these solitary beings are much the greatest number of them, old women: the young of either sex are seldom seen there; except brought to high mass by their parents, or attracted by some ceremony, or church festival.

"At high mass itself, the old are much more numerous than the young, and the women than the men.

"In proportion as the crowd is attracted the congregation is disorderly. There are no seats, a very few within the choir excepted for persons in office; but, the choir being open, a multitude of rush-bottomed chairs, exceeding rude and generally old and dirty, stand ready to be hired; I forget if at a half-penny or a penny each; and this is a source of the church revenue.

"At every part of the service, as well in sermon time as during mass, numbers are in motion: people come and go, make the church their thoroughfare, are silent or talkative, dirty or clean, and act with the most perfect indifference with respect to time, place, or other circumstance.

"Behind the preacher a prompter is seated; who as is the practice at the theatre, whispers the word, if the actor blunders in his part.

"During the sermon, the superintendents of the chairs make the round of their customers, to collect the sons.

"If the people are thus ignorant and rest-

less, incapable from habit, temper, and thoughtlessness, of decent order, the priests themselves surely afford them neither countenance nor example?

"The priests themselves have the perfect appearance of machines; that proceed through a regular absolute clock-work set of motions, without any power of variety, or token of feeling. Various parcels of them are performing various ceremonies, in different parts of the church, at the same time. Here in the choir, it is high mass: before an altar, yonder, on the left, some private mass for a departed soul is hurried over: by the side of this, or opposite as it may happen, some other ceremony, of marriage, baptism, or burial, is performing. In another compartment a school is kept; and the pupils have, not only the ghostly and mundane admonitions of the priest their teacher, by which to profit, but, the whole scene before them for contemplation and instruction.

"Would you then have the world believe that a body of men, still held in veneration by a great part of France, and assuming even heavenly sanctity, are but the exhibitions of shows; which can only amuse children, while they utterly disgrace wisdom and traduce virtue?

"Let the world enquire into facts, and think for itself: if any man do not venerate the benefactors of the world, it can only be because he is not aware that they are so. Monks are but men, and men but imitators. It is taken for granted that things, which have been sanctioned by long practice, must have much good sense in them, though they may contain a mixture of mistake; and, in a majority of instances, this opinion will be true: in others, it will be a prejudice pregnant with mischief.

"Few minds have that degree of stimulus which is necessary to carry them through a severe investigation of facts, and afterward to enable them to make deductions so clear, and so forcible, that they shall convince others as well as themselves.

"Boys have been indiscriminately prompted, and always by selfish motives, to follow the profession of monk or priest, which profession they are taught; yet they have been supposed to act from divine inspiration. Are boys indiscriminately inspired: indiscriminately capable of teaching wisdom and virtue? Fatal experience has proved they are not. Gifts so great are rare indeed!

"Many a priest knows not how he became a priest; suspects not that there can be any error, in things which the parroted wisdom of mankind have taught him to consider as sacred; and, with great innocence of intention, would hold that man as a monster, who should tell him that the functions, which he daily performs as no less than the emanations of divine wisdom, are the extreme of absurdity, the inventions of selfishness in a state of insanity, and totally destructive of those simple and pure moral principles which

the gospel contains; and which the worst man on earth reveres; how much soever he may infringe them."

Mr. Holcroft then does not believe that religion is about to strike root at Paris. Let him recollect that the catholic religion, wherever it has been patronized by the state, has been found uniformly progressive. It favours ignorance in the multitude, and is adapted to the ignorance it diffuses. Portalis may profess to restore popery, because it is useful to the magistrate: he could not else have reconciled the ruling orders to their parts in the exhibition; but his employer is sincere. Bonaparte had a Corsican not a French education, and his reading has not extended far enough to supercede the prejudices of his infancy. He has prophesied and will accomplish the conversion of Monge, and other distinguished infidels. The Egyptian proclamation was the work of his staff of *savans*, and was probably signed, unread. The new generation of Frenchmen are not proselytes to infidelity, but brought up in it; they have therefore, none of the zeal of converts, and some of the boyish ambition to appear wiser than their fathers. They may take for granted the fallacy of religion; but their impiety is blind faith: and they are very likely to find out with Tertullian, that it is vastly more ingenious to be a christian. From one sect to another the passage is difficult, it must be disputed at every stand: but from admitting nothing to admitting every thing the change is equally compatible with incuriosity. Marmontel, Laharpe, and the translator of Herodotus have apostatized from unbelief. Religious books increase in demand. In the neighbourhood of Notre Dame new editions of the *Esprit de Gerson*, and other manuals of devotion are exposed to sale with visible success. The jew lumberers unpack once more the altar-candlesticks; the pious buy them at second-hand, and present with triumphant glee to their churches these furbished trophies of hell subdued. Necklaces are strung like rosaries, and decorated with a cross. The courtiers know that to attend mass is a recommendation at the Tuileries: fashion is omnipotent over a Frenchman's belief, it is *la grace efficace*. Cuvier, the best comparative anatomist in Paris, permits himself to question in his lectures the doctrine of final causes; he is not willingly employed by the govern-

ment to lecture in the schools of the state; at the Lyceum his emoluments result from subscription. Lalande and his calendar are going out of fashion. Even the accommodating Volney has been insulted. But Chateau-briand, and the christianists, are noticed as great men; the poets are all turned hymn-makers; of Voltaire and the half-forgotten deistical writers, women seek an account in Barruel, as we in Leland. The lowest superstitions are profusely practised; indulgencies are proclaimed on wall bills; penny-presents of painted gays are hung up by the devout in the church of Montmartre, which is become a place of pilgrimage. Sacred dramas, such as the Esther of Racine, have been revived at the opera; the death of Abel is frequently played at the French theatre; it must be owned, however, that where Cain, like the Ixion of Euripides, defies the thunderer, many of the audience seemed to applaud not only Talma, but the sentiment; and that, when the thunder-cloud descends, the actors had contrived to personate the unseen Jehovah by a broken-voiced old man, whose squeaking put the pit in a titter. There is still an antichristian faction in Paris, powerful in the armies and in the professions, friendly to liberty, and very hostile to the usurper. A Julian they could have borne; but a Constantine they abhor. The Bourbons have the folly to hope in the clergy; else—

Mr. Holcroft, with real penetration, notices, as the most characteristic trait in Bonaparte's character—instantaneity of decision. The vigilant intolerance with which the press and the theatre are guarded, and individuals are removed into exile, is recorded with fidelity. Moreau, educated to the bar, and attached to the purest theories of civil liberty, had greatly the overweight of popularity; but his indecisive cautious procrastination, when he had the army of the Rhine at his devotion, and had no chance of ultimate safety but in risking a battle, lost the liberty, and saved the religion of his country. Bonaparte has chosen to retain in the restored church of France the liberty of divorce, which leads many to suppose that he intends to repudiate the empress, whenever an opportunity offers of allying himself with any of the royal families of Europe.

Mr. Holcroft reserves for his concluding chapters the repositories of antique

sculpture and modern painting, lately enriched by Bonaparte with the plunder of Italy. When it is considered that the agreements of the French general with the conquered cities, were mostly made for a hundred works of art to be picked by his commissioners, it will be perceived that almost every thing deposited in these galleries must be of first rate merit and value. The contiguity of so much excellence may somewhat weaken the effect and dim the celebrity of productions, which the Italian travellers have so often described with enthusiasm; but it is certainly the finest collection of art ever brought together on the earth. The whole catalogue sold at the door better deserved translation and incorporation in this work than those *programmes* of festivals, of which so many are given. Mr. Holcroft displays original and just views in art, in assigning to Philip of Champagne a rank hardly yet recognized. He paints from nature, and like nature: most of his countrymen seem to have studied only in a gallery of sculpture: they join together busts and limbs of well-known statues, and copy passion from the tragic masks of Le Brun. Like our West, Le Brun excelled in composition and in drawing, and his colouring is more forward, but his expression is affected and theatrical. The paintings of Poussin produce little effect on the walls of a gallery; they are minute, and the colouring is grey and watery: his deluge is admirable, but his sunshine English. Yet for the furniture of an apartment there is no painter so desirable as Poussin: the longer his pictures are studied, the more feeling, the more learning, the more intellect is continually unfolding itself to the observer: the vigilance of his accomplished mind is displayed on the minutest objects of his pencil. His physiognomies are antique and statue-like; his figures are placed too much in a row, as if he were giving a design for a basso-relievo; but he exerts great ingenuity in telling his story, and in varying the truly pathetic expression of his figures.

The living painters of the French are less formidable rivals to our own than their deceased predecessors. Gérard now passes for the best, then David, then Vincout. It has been the custom of the French school to copy the antique sculpture perpetually: this teaches drawing, and gives to their contour a precision

and definiteness : but it accustoms the imagination to the lineless face of the statues, and to stiff and angular attitudes : French paintings never deceive the eye into an opinion of prominence ; strong lights and shades, and vivid colouring are systematically shunned. A Belisarius, clasping his dying guide, whom a serpent has mortally bitten, is esteemed the master-piece of Gerard.

We regret the absence of a list of antique statues as given in the guide-books. The Diana from Versailles has never been sufficiently praised : almost in the presence of the Apollo she asserts a sisterly resemblance.

For those merits which the useful arts bestow it is impossible not to prefer London to Paris : but for the charms derived from fine art, Paris has clearly the advantage. To us it seems strange to attempt luxury before one has attained convenience ; and to overlook utility in the pursuit of beauty ; but such is the character of French civilization.

How very capital a collection of copperplates is attached to the national library ought to have been noticed : the engraved stones, or cameos, and the medals are about to be placed under separate superintendants.

In the collection of minerals kept at the mint is a specimen of basalt inscribed with arrow-head characters : it should

be united to the intaglios of the national library.

The church of the Invalides, so exquisitely adorned with fresco paintings and marble floors, and remarkable for the sepulchre of Turenne, is hurried over with too fugitive a glance. This hospital appears a noble establishment ; but, like Chelsea, it is in fact a foolish luxury. If the buildings and grounds were sold, their capital funded, and the expences lavished on the maintenance of the inmates were also added to the same fund, double the number of persons could be provided for at home in the bosom of their families. It is not to one another that these cripples can delight to shoulder the crutch and show how fields were won.

In making a second edition of his work, we wish Mr. Holcroft would limit its matter to the description of Paris, that he would throw out some of the antiquarian matter and some of the proclamations, and bring together all his remarks on a given topic in order to preclude dilatation and repetition. Perhaps a few omissions could be supplied from other sources. He would then have furnished a volume replete with good sense, with information, with entertainment, and with circumspection ; by its topic interesting, by its illustrations splendid.

ART. XI. *Travels in China, containing Descriptions, Observations and Comparisons, made and collected in the Course of a short Residence at the Imperial Palace of Tuen-min-Yuen, and on a subsequent Journey through the Country from Peking to Canton.* By JOHN BARROW, Esq. late private Secretary to the Earl of Macclesfield. 4to. pp. 630.

WHATEVER may have been the commercial effects of our embassy to China, literature has reaped ample advantages from it. The drawings of Mr. Alexander, and the work of Mr. Barrow, have communicated more information concerning this extraordinary empire and its inhabitants, than could be collected from all our former travellers.

Mr. Barrow in his preliminary chapter disclaims all intention of dwelling on those subjects which have been already treated on by sir George Staunton, his object is to shew the Chinese as they really are, and to lay before the reader such facts as may enable him to settle in his own mind the point of rank which China may be considered to hold in the scale of civilized nations. By the early travel-

lers, China had been represented as in a far higher degree of civilization than Europe ; it is here well observed, that those travellers represented it truly, but that during the two centuries and a half which have elapsed, Europe has been progressive in all the arts of life, while China has stood still.

The first part of the Chinese dominions which the squadron touched was one of the islands of the Chusan Archipelago. It was the best in the groupe, and the most populous, except that of Chusan, a native told them that it contained ten thousand inhabitants ; but the English discovered afterwards that this was an indefinite phrase of amplification, and that when a Chinese means to speak expressly of ten thousand, he always says

nine thousand nine hundred and ninety-nine.

The country ships were now seen in considerable numbers sailing along the coast of the main land. They were generally laden with small timber, piled dangerously high upon the decks; beams which were too long to be upon the deck of a single ship, were laid across the decks of two lashed together. These ships are very ill adapted for such tempestuous seas. The form of the hull is like the new moon; the bow is a square flat surface, the same as the stern, without any cut water, and without any keel; the two ends of the ship rise to a great height above the deck; each mast consists of a single piece of timber, and has a single sail of matting, stretched by means of bamboos, and frequently made to furl like a fan; the rudder is so placed that it can be taken up on approaching sands and shallows. They can sail within three and a half, or four points of the wind; but lose this advantage over European ships by drifting to leeward, in consequence of the round and clumsy shape of the bottom, and their want of keel. The Chinese keep no reckoning, and have no idea of drawing charts. They keep as near the shore as possible, and never lose sight of it, except in voyages where they must fairly put out to sea: they then, let the wind be fair or foul, keep the head of the ship pointing, as nearly as possible, towards the port by means of the compass; an instrument which, beyond all doubt, came from Asia to Europe, and was probably brought from China by Marco Polo. Behind the compass is usually placed a little temple with an altar, on which is continually kept burning a spiral taper of wax, tallow, and sandal-wood dust, which serves, like Alfred's time-lights, to measure the twelve portions of the day. It is also an act of piety to keep this taper burning; the needle seems to be regarded as something divine, and on every appearance of a change of weather they burn incense before it. When a ship leaves Canton for a foreign voyage, it is considered as an equal chance that she will never return, and in fact ten or twelve thousand persons from that single port are supposed to perish annually by shipwreck. The coast navigation also is so dangerous, that the internal communication by means of rivers and canals, between the two extremities of the empire, was opened because many of the ships employed to transport the taxes paid

in kind to the northern capital foundered on the way.

Yet, in early times, it is certain that the Chinese were an adventurous and colonizing people. M de Guignes believes that about the seventh century of our era they carried on a trade to the west coast of North America. Wrecks of Chinese vessels were found by the early Spanish navigators in different parts of this western coast, where the nations were more civilized than in the interior and eastern parts. Mr. Barrow should have referred to his authorities in this part of his work. Even at Rio Janeiro this gentleman observed in the native Brazilians a very strong resemblance to the Chinese in their persons. It appears from Prouse, that the island of Tcho-ka, or Saghalien, in the Tartarian sea, has been peopled by the Chinese. They traded formerly with Bussora, and many places in the Persian gulph still bear Chinese names. *In some of the voyages* (here again we have to regret the want of references) it is observed, that a colony of Chinese had probably settled in Sofala, the descendants of whom were, in the time of the writers, easily distinguished from the other nations by their colour and features. But the ruins in Sofala are said, by Barros, to resemble those in Upper Egypt, and this whiter race would be more probably of the Coptic or Jewish origin. Marco Polo certainly visited Madagascar in a Chinese ship. Mr. Barrow even suspects that the unmixed Hottentots are of Chinese family. The resemblance, as it appears in his annexed portraits, is very striking, and the Dutch themselves call this people Chinese Hottentots, from the obvious similarity. Sumatra probably, and Ceylon certainly, was colonized by the same enterprising race; the Chingalese, indeed, acknowledge their descent, a fact with which Mr. Barrow seems not to have been acquainted. Ceylon derives its name from them. A fleet of eighty Chinese had been wrecked between that island and the continent, and the straits where they perished were therefore called Chilam, signifying the destruction of the Chinese. The Moors softened it into Cilan, and applied it to the island itself, not knowing its true name: from them the Portuguese made it Ceilam, and we retain their pronunciation in the unenglish manner wherewith we nasalize the last syllable of Ceylon. The Chingalese were so called by the other inhabitants of Ceylon, as meaning the Chinese of Gallé;

for they were a mixed breed speaking the language of these colonizing conquerors, who withdrew to that mountainous district when the Chinese abandoned their intercourse with India altogether, as destructive of their fleets and people. These circumstances are here selected on the authority of Barros. Mr. Barrow's digression is very curious, and affords strong proof that the state of China is materially different now from what it was some centuries ago.

A small brig was sent forward to Chusan to take on board the pilots, who according to the Imperial order were expected to be found ready to embark. But though this was one of the best and most frequented ports in China, no other means of procuring them could be devised than by sending out soldiers to collect all the persons in that place who had ever visited Tien-sing by sea; the poor wretches were brought before the governor, and dropping on their knees were examined in that attitude as to their qualifications. Two were at last found who were thought qualified; they pleaded earnestly to be excused, saying that they had quitted the sea for many years, and were now comfortably settled in trade which would be ruined by their absence. In spite of all their pleas they were pressed into the service, and after all, the English found them of little or no use. They could not be made to comprehend the difference in the draught of water between their own ships and ours, which in the latter was as many fathoms as feet in the former, although they were palpably shewn by a piece of rope the depth which was required.

The passage up the Pei-ho, or White River, in the country yachts, convinced our people of the Hospitality of the natives, and of their extraordinary numbers, but conveyed no idea of great wealth or comfort among them, or of great abundance in the country. Both sexes here crowded indiscriminately to see them. The dress of the women was calculated to shew the foot and ankle, which for singularity, it is observed, may challenge the whole world, the foot having been cramped in its growth to the length of four or five inches, and the ankle being generally swollen in the same proportion that the foot is diminished. This deformity is produced by bandaging the toes of the infant under the sole of the foot, and retaining them in that position till they literally grow into and become a part of

it; and by forcing the heel forward till it is entirely obliterated. As none of the earliest travellers mention this strange custom, Mr. Barrow conjectures that it has been introduced since their time. The people were cheerful and dirty. Only a small proportion of the land was cultivated. The cottages very mean, without any appearance of comfort, and thinly scattered; seldom standing alone, but generally collected into small villages. The rivers seem to be better peopled than the land. In the distance of ninety miles upon this small branch of a river, Mr. Barrow computed, that there were floating not fewer than 100,000 souls.

The approach to Peking is admirably described. The external appearance of this great city is by no means answerable to the expectation which a European traveller would have formed of the capital of China. None of the buildings overtop the walls, though these are not above thirty feet high; not even a chimney is seen rising above the roofs of the houses, which are all nearly of the same height, and all straight lines, so that the whole has the appearance and the regularity of a large encampment.

"Although the approach to Peking afforded little that was interesting, we had no sooner passed the gate and opened out the broad street, than a very singular and novel appearance was exhibited. We saw before us a line of buildings on each side of a wide street, consisting entirely of shops and warehouses, the particular goods of which were brought out and displayed in groups in front of the houses. Before these were generally erected large wooden pillars, whose tops were much higher than the eaves of the houses, bearing inscriptions in gilt characters, setting forth the nature of the wares to be sold, and the honest reputation of the seller; and, to attract the more notice, they were generally hung with various coloured flags and streamers, and ribbons, from top to bottom, biting the appearance of a line of soldiers dressed, as we sometimes see their colours of all the different nations. The sides of the houses were not painted in the several colours which were painted, consisting generally or green, mixed with gold: appeared to us singular enough, the sale that made the greatest show for the dead. The most splendid coffin furniture would make but if placed beside that intended for Chinese. These machines are than three inches thick and two ours. Next to those our notice by the brilliant appearance of the

and the marriage cars, both covered with ornamental canopies.

"At the four points where the great streets intersect one another were erected those singular buildings, sometimes of stone but generally of wood, which have been called triumphal arches, but which, in fact, are monuments to the memory of those who had deserved well of the community, or who had attained an unusual longevity. They consist invariably of a large central gateway, with a smaller one on each side, all covered with narrow roofs; and, like the houses, they are painted, varnished, and gilt in the most splendid manner.

"The multitude of moveable workshops of tinkers and barbers, cobblers and blacksmiths; the tents and booths where tea and fruit, rice, and other eatables were exposed for sale, with the wares and merchandize arrayed before the doors, had contracted this spacious street to a narrow road in the middle, just wide enough for two of our little vehicles to pass each other. The cavalcade of officers and soldiers that preceded the embassy, the processions of men in office attended by their numerous retinues, bearing umbrellas and flags, painted lanterns and a variety of strange insignia of their rank and station, different trains that were accompanying, with lamentable cries, corpses to their graves, and, with squalling music, brides to their husbands, the troops of dromedaries laden with coals from Tartary, the wheel-barrow and hand-carts stuffed with vegetables, occupied nearly the whole of this middle space in one continued line, leaving very little room for the cavalcade of the embassy to pass. All was in motion. The sides of the street were filled with an immense concourse of people, buying and selling and bartering their different commodities. The hurry and confused noises of this mixed multitude, proceeding from the loud bawling of those who were crying their wares, the wrangling of others, with every now and then a strange twanging noise like the jarring of a cracked Jew's harp, the barber's signal made by his tweezers, the mirth and the laughter that prevailed in every groupe, could scarcely be exceeded by the brokers in the Bank rotunda, or by the Jews and old women in *Rosemary-lane*. Pedlars with their packs, and jugglers, and conjurors, and fortune-tellers, mountebanks, and quack doctors, comedians, and musicians, left no space unoccupied. The Tartar soldiers, with their whips, kept with difficulty a clear passage for the embassy to move slowly forward; so slow, indeed, that although we entered the eastern gate at half past nine, it was near twelve before we arrived at the western.

"Although an extraordinary crowd might be expected to assemble on such a particular occasion, on the same principle of curiosity as could not fail to attract a crowd of spectators in London, yet there was a most remarkable and a striking difference observable between a London and a Pekin populace. In the for-

mer the whole attention and soul of the multitude would have been wrapt up in the novel spectacle; all would have been idlers. In Pekin, the show was but an accessory, every one pursued his business, at the same time he gratified his curiosity. In fact, it appeared that, on every day throughout the whole year, there was the same noise and bustle, and crowd in the capital of China. I scarcely ever passed the western gate, which happened twice, or oftener, in the week, that I had not to wait a considerable time before the passage was free, particularly in the morning, notwithstanding the exertions of two or three soldiers with their whips to clear the way. The crowd, however, was entirely confined to the great streets, which are the only outlets of the city. In the cross lanes, all was still and quiet."

No Chinese women were to be seen in the streets of Pekin, though the female Tartars seemed to enjoy full liberty. None of the streets were paved, a defect the more remarkable, as the road to the city is paved with stones of granite from six to sixteen feet in length, and proportionately broad, which must have been brought at least sixty miles. No kind of filth was to be seen in the streets; all this, be it of whatever kind it may, is collected in large earthen jars, of which every family has one, and the gardeners' carts which supply the city with vegetables, return laden with this liquid manure, so that the city enjoys the full odour of agricultural economy. In the provinces these precious articles are made into cakes thicker than our crumpets, and dried in the sun; then sent to the capital, where the gardeners purchase them, and dissolve them in urine for manure. The police is very strict. At the end of every cross street, and at certain distances in it sentry boxes are placed, and few of these streets are without a guardhouse. The proprietor of every tenth house is answerable for the good conduct of his nine neighbours; this villainous system, which is carried to its utmost length in Japan, was once the custom in England.

While the ambassador went into Tartary to be introduced, Mr. Barrow remained near Pekin, having apartments in the palace of Yuen-min-yuen; he had permission to visit the city whenever he thought proper, and prudently chose to have none but Chinese servants, that his knowledge of the language might be improved. His lodgings were mean and miserable, but bad as they were, they were what one of the ministers or state

ing the
rope.
a bril-
ch they
sky blue
hat ap-
les for
e cor-
ror

occupied when the emperor was at this residence. Here the largest and most valuable of the presents were to be fitted up for the sovereign's inspection, and they attracted an infinite number of beholders.

"The two elegant carriages made by Hatchett puzzled the Chinese more than any of the other presents. Nothing of the kind had ever been seen at the capital; and the disputes among themselves as to the part which was intended for the seat of the emperor were whimsical enough. The hammer-cloth that covered the box of the winter carriage had a smart edging, and was ornamented with festoons of roses. Its splendid appearance and elevated situation determined it at once, in the opinion of the majority, to be the emperor's seat; but a difficulty arose how to appropriate the inside of the carriage. They examined the windows, the blinds, and the screens, and at last concluded, that it could be for nobody but his ladies. The old eunuch came to me for information, and when he learned that the fine elevated box was to be the seat of the man who managed the horses, and that the emperor's place was within, he asked me with a sneer, if I supposed the *Ta-wung-tee* would suffer any man to sit higher than himself, and to turn his back towards him? and he wished to know if we could not contrive to have the coach-box removed and placed somewhere behind the body of the carriage."

A planetarium completely puzzled the president of the tribunal of mathematics, as the Jesuits have denominated the board at which he presides. A few Portuguese missionaries are members of the board, their business is to supply the astronomical part of the national almanack, the astrology being managed by a committee of their Chinese associates. These Europeans were not much more skilful than the natives; they honestly confessed that they were more indebted to the *Connoissances de tems* of Paris than to their own calculations, and as the revolution had cut off this resource, they considered a set of the nautical almanack calculated for the meridian of Greenwich up to the year 1800, as an invaluable present. These missionaries, however, on the whole, are represented in a favourable light.

The Tartar officers had heard of sword blades which would cut iron bars without injuring the edge, and so great was their astonishment on proving the fact, that they could scarcely credit what they saw. Gill's sword blades, Mr. Barrow thinks, might be advantageously introduced in the regular course of trade through Canton.

"Among the presents carried into Tartary was a collection of prints, chiefly portraits of English nobility and distinguished persons; and to make the present more acceptable, they were bound up in three volumes in yellow Morocco. The emperor was so pleased with this collection, that he sent it express to *Yuen-min-yuen* to have the name, rank, and office of each portrait translated into the Manchoo and Chinese languages. The Tartar writer got on pretty well, but the Chinese secretary was not a little puzzled with the B, the D, and the R, that so frequently recurred in the English names. The duke of Marlborough was *Tao-ke Ma-ul-po-loo*, and Bedford was transformed to *Pe-te-fo-ul-te*. But here a more serious difficulty occurred than that of writing the name. The rank was also to be written down, and on coming to the portrait of this nobleman (which was a proof impression of the print, engraved from a picture by sir Joshua Reynolds, when the late duke of Bedford was a youth), I told the Chinese to write him down a *Ta-gin*, or great man of the second order. He instantly observed, that I surely meant his father was a *Ta-gin*. I then explained to him that according to our laws, the son succeeded to the rank of the father, and that with us it was by no means necessary, in order to obtain the first rank in the country, that a man should be of a certain age, be possessed of superior talents, or suitable qualifications. That there were sometimes conducive to high honours, yet that a great part of the legislative body of the nation were entitled to their rank and situation by birth. They laughed heartily at the idea of a man being born a legislator, when it required so many years of close application to enable one of their countrymen to pass his examination for the very lowest order of state-officers. As, however, the descendants of Confucius continue to enjoy a sort of nominal rank, and as their emperor can also confer an hereditary dignity, without entitling to office, emolument, or exclusive privilege, they considered his grace might be one of this description, and wrote down his rank accordingly; but they positively refused to give him the title of *Ta-gin*, or great man, asking me, if I thought their emperor was so stupid as not to know the impossibility of a little boy having attained the rank of a great man."

The news from Gehol, that lord Macartney had refused to perform the nine prostrations before the emperor, threw all the officers at *Yuen-min-yuen* into dismay, and Mr. Barrow and his companions felt the effects of their ill humour in their table, which was very materially affected by it, both in the number and quality of dishes. This, however, wore off, though the old eunuch of the palace used to call them proud head-strong Englishmen.

The famous gardens of the palace Mr. Barrow could only visit by stealth; what little he saw was such as to induce a very favourable opinion, though they fall very short of the extravagant descriptions which sir William Chambers has given of Chinese gardening. Gardening, however, seems to be of all arts that which they have studied most successfully. Lord Macartney's account of the imperial park at Gehol, contains the highest praises of their good taste and knowledge of the picturesque. But except in this single art, the Chinese are wretchedly below the rank which was heretofore assigned to them among civilized nations. The women are in a state of abject slavery. In infancy, by a preposterous and cruel fashion, they are crippled, and, as if this was not a sufficient means of confinement, it is made a moral crime for a woman to be seen abroad. The wives and daughters of the lower class, indeed, are not thus immured, but the drudgery of agricultural labour falls upon them; they drag the plough and the harrow, while their husbands are gambling or idling; and there is reason to believe that sometimes a woman is yoked to the same plough with an ass. Even at home the wife must neither eat at the same table, nor sit in the same room with her lord and master; and boys at the age of nine or ten are entirely separated from their sisters. For mental pursuits the women are totally unqualified, and to fill up their tedious hours smoking is the usual expedient. Love of course cannot exist in a country where there is this grievous disparity between the sexes. The bridegroom always bargains for his intended bride with her parents; she herself has no choice, her price is paid, she is locked up in a close chair, and sent to a man whom she has never seen, who, if he does not like her when he unlocks the door, may turn the key again, and send her back to her parents, if he chuses to forfeit what she has cost him, and a sum of the same value. If she be found guilty of adultery she may be sold for a slave, the method by which girls are punished for having been debauched. Polygamy is customary among the great: the poor of every country where it is permitted are prevented by their poverty from having more wives than one; but as one of its constant effects, the most detestable of all crimes is so common, that it is publicly avowed by many of the first officers of state.

There are no social pleasures in China, for gambling is a selfish one. The upper rank stupify themselves at home with opium. The people are free from drunkenness, but they are also without those friendly and cheerful feelings which, though they sometimes lead to it, produce more good than evil. There are no meetings for dancing or feats of activity, none even for religious worship; the Chinese are without a sabbath, the same solitary and dissocializing system pervading their devotion and their private life. All ranks are addicted to gaming, with cards, dice, or at the game of the fingers, the *morra* of the Italians, which is mentioned by Cicero. Cockfighting, with which a few despicable Englishmen are still permitted to disgrace their country, is eagerly pursued by the upper classes in China: they train quails for the same wicked purpose, and having found a species of *gryllus*, that will attack each other with such ferocity as seldom to quit their hold without bringing away a limb of their antagonist, they keep these insects for the pleasure of seeing them devour each other; and during the summer months scarcely a boy is to be seen without his cage. Cruel amusements are as much a cause as an effect of national cruelty. Their punishments consist in inflicting mere physical pain, they produce no shame, for shame is a sentiment whereof they know nothing. Compassion also seems to be a feeling with which they are wholly unacquainted, and as if their hearts were not hard enough already, one of the most absurd laws that ever disgraced a criminal code contributes to harden them still more. Whoever takes a wounded man under his care in the hope of healing him, or of alleviating his sufferings, is liable to be punished with death if the man die, unless he can produce an undeniable evidence how the wound was made, or that he survived it forty days. The poor wretches, therefore, who by any accident are dangerously hurt, are left to die in the streets.

The horrible practice of infanticide is not indeed expressly allowed by the laws, but it is sanctioned by them, as no punishment is provided for it: and it may indeed be considered as a legitimate consequence of that paternal despotism to which their whole system of government refers. The son is the absolute property of his father, he is his slave, and may be sold at his pleasure but when human

beings are once considered as mere animals, any West India planter can tell how cheaply their lives are held; and a proprietor may be allowed to calculate how many he can conveniently rear.

"It is, however, tacitly considered as a part of the duty of the police of Pekin to employ certain persons to go their rounds, at an early hour in the morning, with carts, in order to pick up such bodies of infants as may have been thrown out into the streets in the course of the night. No enquiries are made, but the bodies are carried to a common pit without the city walls, into which all those that may be living, as well as those that are dead, are said to be thrown promiscuously. At this horrible pit of destruction the Roman Catholic missionaries, established at Pekin, attend by turns, as a part of the duties of their office, in order, as one of them expressed himself to me on this subject, to chuse among them those that are the most *lively*, to make future proselytes, and by the administration of baptism to such of the rest as might be still alive, *pour leur sauver l'ame*. The Mahomedans, who, at the time that their services were useful in assisting to prepare the national calendar, had a powerful influence at court, did much better: those zealous bigots to a religion, whose least distinguishing feature is that of humanity, were however, on these occasions, the means of saving the *lives* of all the little innocents they possibly could save from this maw of death, which was an humane act, although it might be for the purpose of bringing them up in the principles of their own faith. I was assured by one of the Christian missionaries, with whom I had daily conversation during a residence of five weeks within the walls of the emperor's palace at *Yuen-min-yuen*, and who took his turn in attending, *pour leur sauver l'ame*, that such scenes were sometimes exhibited on these occasions as to make the feeling mind shudder with horror. When I mention that dogs and swine are let loose in all the narrow streets of the capital, the reader may conceive what will sometimes necessarily happen to the exposed infants, before the police-carts can pick them up."

Upon an average twenty-four infants are thus found dead, or dying, every morning in the streets of Pekin!

These unfavourable features, says Mr. Barrow, in the character of a people whose natural disposition is neither ferocious nor morose, but on the contrary mild, obliging, and cheerful, can be attributed only to the habits in which they have been trained, and to the heavy hand of power perpetually hanging over them! Never have we seen the vices of any people more fairly stated or more candidly considered than in the volume

before us. The proverbial knavery of the Chinese in their dealings with Europeans partly proceeds from retaliation, partly because a merchant, a *buying and selling man*, as they call him, is considered as the lowest character in the country, as one who will cheat if he can, and whose trade it is to create and then supply artificial wants.

"The gaudy watches of indifferent workmanship, fabricated purposely for the Chinese market and once in universal demand, are now scarcely asked for. One gentleman in the honourable East India company's employ took it into his head that cuckoo clocks might prove a saleable article in China, and accordingly laid in a large assortment, which more than answered his most sanguine expectations. But as these wooden machines were constructed for sale only, and not for use, the cuckoo clocks became all mute long before the second arrival of this gentleman with another cargo. His clocks were now not only unsaleable, but the former purchasers threatened to return theirs upon his hands, which would certainly have been done, had not a thought entered his head, that not only pacified his former customers, but procured him also other purchasers for his second cargo: he convinced them by undeniable authorities, that the cuckoo was a very odd kind of a bird which sung only at certain seasons of the year, and assured them that whenever the proper time arrived, all the cuckoos they had purchased would once again 'tune their melodious throats.' After this it would only be fair to allow the Chinese sometimes to trick the European purchaser with a wooden ham instead of a real one."

England, we fear, could produce blacker anecdotes of commercial knavery than China. Large fortunes have been accumulated in this country by manufacturing bad guns for the African trade, which sooner or later are sure to burst and to maim or kill the purchaser. But it is not from such instances of individual villany that the national character is to be estimated. It may also be remarked with respect to the tricks practised at Canton, that the worst people of every nation are always to be found in its sea-ports; and also that the Chinese only extend that principle of over-reaching which is openly practised in our own country by all gentlemen dealers in horse-flesh.

Some valuable extracts from lord Macartney's journal are given in this volume, and a hope expressed that the whole may one day be communicated to the public. In one part of these the

Chinese comedy is described, and the diversions given at court in honour of the emperor's birth-day; they were somewhat in the style of Sadler's Wells, but very inferior, only the fire-works exceeded any thing in Europe or in any other part of the world; for they have the art of colouring flame, probably by the combustion of metals. Their drama is very like a *buglesque* on the Italian opera, just as absurd in its principles, and supplied with performers by the same atrocious means, though such means are more necessary to the Chinese theatre, no women being suffered to appear in public. Having no change of scene, they have a very ingenious method of representing change of place. If it be necessary to send a general on a distant expedition, he mounts a stick, takes two or three turns round the stage, brandishes a little whip, and sings a song; when this is ended he stops short, and recommences his recitative, and the journey is supposed to be performed. To represent a walled city, a parcel of soldiers lie in a heap to be scrambled over by the storming party. Thus easily do the spectators

admit the excuse

Of time, of numbers, and due course of things
Which cannot in their huge and proper life
Be there presented.

Their dramas are as despicable in composition as in stage management. They complain as we do, that a depraved taste for modern productions prevails; but there seems no reason for believing that their classical stock pieces are materially better than the gross and disgusting medleys of filth and barbarity which delight the present generation.

The account of the Chinese language is exceedingly curious. In this part of the work Mr. Barrow acknowledges his obligations to sir George Staunton, from whose rare or rather unequalled erudition in this particular subject, England and Europe have much to expect and hope. The characters of this language on which so much has been ignorantly or superficially written are here most perspicuously explained.

"Certain signs expressing simple objects or ideas may be considered as the roots or primitives of this language. These are few in number, not exceeding two hundred and twelve, one of which, or its abbreviation, will be found to compose a part of every character in that language; and may, therefore, be con-

sidered as the *key* to the character into which it enters. The eye soon becomes accustomed to fix upon the particular key, or root, of the most complicated characters, in some of which are not fewer than sixty or seventy distinct lines and points. The right line, the curved line, and a point, are the rudiments of all the characters. These, variously combined with one another, have been extended from time to time, as occasion might require, to nearly eighty thousand different characters.

"To explain the manner in which their dictionaries are arranged will serve to convey a correct notion of the nature of this extraordinary language. All the two hundred and twelve roots or keys are drawn fair and distinct on the head of the page, beginning with the most simple, or that which contains the fewest number of lines or points, and proceeding to the most complicated; and on the margins of the page are marked the numeral characters one, two, three, &c. which signify, that the *root* or *key* at the top will be found to be combined on that page with one, two, three, &c. lines or points. Suppose, for example, a learner should meet with an unknown character, in which he perceives that the simple sign expressing *water* is the *key* or *root*, and that it contains, besides this root, six additional points and lines. He immediately turns over his dictionary to the place where the character *water* stands on the top of the page, and proceeding with his eye directed to the margin, until the numeral character *six* occurs, he will soon perceive the one in question; for all the characters in the language, belonging to the *root water*, and composed of *six* other lines and points, will follow successively in this place. The name or sound of the character is placed immediately after it, expressed in such others as are supposed to be most familiar; and, in the method made use of for conveying this information, the Chinese have discovered some faint and very imperfect ideas of alphabetic writing, by splitting the monosyllabic sound into a dissyllable, and again compressing the dissyllable into a simple sound. One instance will serve to explain this method. Suppose the name of the character under consideration to be *ping*. If no single character be thought sufficiently simple to express the sound *ping*, immediately after it will be placed two well-known characters *pe* and *ing*; but as every character in the language has a monosyllabic sound, it will readily be concluded, that *pe* and *ing*, when compressed into one syllable, must be pronounced *ping*. After these, the meaning or explanation follows, in the clearest and most easy characters that can be employed.

"When, indeed, a considerable progress has been made in the language, the general meaning of many of the characters may be pretty nearly guessed at by the eye alone, as they will mostly be found to have some reference, either immediate or remote, though very often in a figurative sense, to the signi-

fication of the *key* or *root*; in the same manner as in the classification of objects in natural history, every species may be referred to its proper genus. The signs, for instance, expressing the *hand* and the *heart*, are two *roots*, and all the works of art, the different trades and manufactures, arrange themselves under the first, and all the passions, affections, and sentiments of the mind are under the latter. The root of an *unit* or *one* comprehends all the characters expressive of unity, concord, harmony, and the like. Thus, if I observe a character compounded of the two simple *roots*, *one* and *heart*, I have no difficulty in concluding that its signification is *unanimity*; but, if the sign of a *negative* should also appear in the same character, the meaning will be reversed to *discord* or *dissention*, literally *not one heart*. Many proper names of persons have the character signifying *man* for their key or root, and all foreign names have the character *mouth* or *voice* annexed, which shews at once that the character is a proper name employed only to express sound without any particular meaning."

"The sounds and various inflections incident to languages in general, are not necessary to be attended to in the study of the Chinese characters. They speak equally strong to a person who is deaf and dumb, as the most copious language could do to one in the full enjoyment of all his senses. It is a language addressed entirely to the eye, and not to the ear. Just as a piece of music laid before several persons of different nations of Europe would be employed by each in the same key, the same measure, and the same air, so would Chinese characters be equally understood by the natives of Japan, Tunkin, and Cochin-China; yet each would give them different names or sounds that would be wholly unintelligible to one another. When, on the present voyage, we stopped at Pulo Condore, the inhabitants, being Cochin-Chinese, had no difficulty in corresponding by writing, with our Chinese interpreters, though they could not interchange one intelligible word."

The plan of bishop Wilkins, it is observed, for a universal character, though more systematic and more philosophical, is so similar to that upon which the Chinese language is constructed, that it will convey a very complete idea of it. The roots are only 212 in number, but their combinations have been extended to 50,000 different characters. A European can only make out 342 monosyllabic sounds in this whole language; a native, by the help of aspirates, intonations, and accentuations, can increase them to 1331: a number so small, when compared to the written vocabulary, that, on an ave-

rage, 60 characters of so many different significations must necessarily be called by the same monosyllabic name. Hence a composition, if read, would be totally unintelligible to the ear, and must be seen to be understood. If a Chinese has not made himself intelligible, he draws the character, or its root, in the air, with his finger or fan, and the ambiguity is removed.

The system of education is slow and laborious, and destructive of any thing like genius. The boys begin at about six years old to learn by name a certain number of easy characters without any regard to the meaning; for the name has no reference whatever to the meaning. The only object of the scholar is to acquire the sound; five or six years are employed in this stupifying process. A regular bred scholar is required to get by heart a very large volume of the works of Confucius so perfectly, that he may be able to turn to any passage from hearing the sound of the character only, without having one single idea of their signification. The next step is to form the characters, which requires four years more, and the last step is to analyse them by the help of the dictionary; so that at the end of his education he first begins to comprehend the use of the written characters. In proof of the absurdity of this wretched process, if any proof were necessary, it is stated that sir Geo. Staunton, at the age of twelve years, and in little more than twelve months, not only acquired a good colloquial knowledge of the language, but had learned to write it with such accuracy, that all the diplomatic papers of the embassy addressed to the Chinese government, were copied by him.

The excellence of a composition depends on three points; that every character be neatly and accurately made; that each character be well chosen, and not in vulgar use; and that the same character do not occur twice in the same composition. Fine writing, therefore, would be a literal term of praise. The beauty of an expression depends entirely on the choice of the character, not on any selection or arrangement of sounds. This whimsical taste would render poetry impossible, even if the natives were not by their habits, and their want of all the better and nobler feelings, made totally incapable of that noblest of all human arts. Poets, however, they have, after their own fashion. The emperor

Kien Long was considered the best of modern times, and the following ode, in praise of tea, is the most celebrated of his compositions. It has been painted on all the teapots in the empire.

"On a slow fire set a tripod, whose colour and texture shew its long use; fill it with clean snow water; boil it as long as would be necessary to turn fish white, and crayfish red; throw it upon the delicate leaves of choice tea, in a cup of *yaoé* (a particular sort of porcelain). Let it remain as long as the vapour rises in a cloud, and leaves only a thin mist floating on the surface. At your ease, drink this precious liquor, which will chase away the five causes of trouble. We can taste and feel, but not describe, the state of repose produced by a liquor thus prepared."

Some ludicrous errors, into which Europeans have been betrayed by their ignorance of Chinese manners and arts, are noticed in this volume. The famous lines or marks on the back of the tortoise, which, by one of the missionaries, were supposed to contain the sublimest doctrines of philosophy, are nothing but the schoolboy's musical square. And a copper coin which was found in an Irish bog, explained in the *Collectanea Hibernica*, proves to have been a common coin of the last emperor Kien Long: though a very able antiquary had pronounced the characters on the face to be ancient Syriac, and those on the reverse, talismanic symbols, and inferred that it must either have been imported into Ireland by the Phœnicians, or manufactured in the country, in which case the Irish must have had an oriental alphabet; in either case, he adds, these medals contribute more to authenticate the ancient history of Ireland, than all the volumes that have been written on the subject.

Astronomy is little understood by the Chinese, though they affect to value it highly. The main business of their astronomical board is to prepare the national almanack; of this, whatever is scientific, is made up by the missionaries from European almanacks, and the chief business of the native sages, is to mark the lucky and unlucky days. An eclipse occasions a public mourning, and gongs, and kettle drums, and trumpets, are sounded to frighten away the dragon, lest he should swallow the moon. It is no part of the system of Chinese government to interfere with the superstition of the people, so that this is solely the effect of ignorance. When Kublai Khan con-

quered the country, he invited learned men from every part of the world; and chiefly by the help of Mohammedans, who were not then the brutalized race that they are at present, he surveyed the empire, adjusted the chronology, and corrected the astronomical observations; he imported mathematical and astronomical instruments from Balk and Samarcand, and repaired the great canal. This is acknowledged by the Chinese annalists.

They know as little of earth as of heaven, fully believing, as they were taught above two thousand years ago, that the heaven is round; the earth a square fixed in the middle; the other four elements placed at its four sides: water to the north, fire to the south, wood to the east, and metal to the west; and they believe the stars to be stuck, like so many nails, at equal distances from the earth, in the blue vault of heaven. For the good maps of their own country which they now possess, they are indebted to the Jesuits.

They were certainly acquainted with gunpowder before it was known in Europe. Mr. Barrow quotes Mariana from bishop Watson, to prove that it was first used at the siege of Algeziras in 1342, but it had been used before this by the Spanish Moors. Zurita mentions it in the year 1331, as exciting great terror when employed by the king of Granada. It is remarkable that the balls discharged at Algeziras seem to have been red-hot; if the chronicle, who is Mariana's authority, be accurate in his expression—*venian ardiendo como fuego*, they came burning like fire. But though the Chinese know the use of gunpowder, there is reason to believe that, like the other eastern nations, they were unacquainted with the art of casting cannon, and that their matchlocks were imitated from the Portuguese. That their printing should have continued in its present imperfect state is more the fault of the language, than of the people; the component parts of the characters are sufficiently simple, but the difficulty of putting them together upon the frame, into the multitude of forms of which they are capable, Mr. Barrow thinks is perhaps not to be surmounted. The Romans were more stupid in this respect.

The power of imitation which they possess is truly remarkable; a Chinese at Canton, on being shewn an European watch, though he had never seen any

thing of the kind before, undertook to make one like it, and succeeded; only the main spring which he could not make was furnished him. All those ingenious pieces of mechanism which were formerly sent to China from the repositories of Coxe and Merlin, are now fabricated at Canton as well as in London, and at one third of the expence. Of this imitative power a ludicrous instance is related by Mr. Price. In the course of a very long passage to China, the chaplain's cassock had been so often patched and mended, that it was necessary to have a new one; it was therefore sent to a tailor at Canton, that he might make another by it. He so accurately copied every patch and darn of the old one, that, except by the freshness of the new cloth, it was impossible to tell one from the other. This ingenuity would probably long ago have introduced many improvements into the country, had it not been counteracted by the contented ignorance of the government, and the contempt for Europeans which it has so successfully inculcated. A native of Canton who began a ship upon the English model, was obliged to destroy it.

Their music is despicable; of all their instruments there being not one that is tolerable to an European ear. A Chinese band generally plays, or endeavours to play, in unison; but they never attempt to play in separate parts, confining their art to the melody only. Du Halde relates an ingenious trick to which this custom gave occasion. A king of Tsi was very fond of the instrument called Yu, and assembled three hundred men to play upon it in concert: a fellow who understood nothing of the matter, thought that, with a little impudence, he might pass in the crowd; accordingly he offered his services, and received wages safely for a long time. But the next king happened to be a still greater lover of the instrument Yu, than his predecessor, and he chose to hear each of the three hundred performers play singly. Several popular Chinese airs are given in this volume; they themselves have no other notion of noting down music, than that of employing a character expressing the name of every note in the scale, and even this imperfect way they learned from Pereira the Jesuit. Of their painting we have specimens enough in Europe; for though these be not the work of the best artists, they sufficiently show what progress has been made in

the art of design. Their architecture is well explained as imitating a tent, the curved roof of all their dwellings, and the wooden pillars in imitation of the poles, forming a colonade round the brick walls, clearly denote the origin, and from this original form they have never ventured to deviate. Their temples are mostly constructed upon the same plan, with the addition of a second, and sometimes a third roof, one above the other. The whole of their architecture indeed, "says this traveller," is as unsightly as unsolid; without elegance or convenience of design, and without any settled proportion, mean in its appearance and clumsy in the workmanship. This censure is perhaps too harsh; the inconvenience of their dwellings Mr. Barrow had experienced, and the meanness of appearance may probably result from bad workmanship and poor materials; but the view of a mandarin's house which he has given, is certainly picturesque, as indeed the buildings mostly appear in the prints published with sir George Staunton's account. The village in the same plate might be mistaken for an English one. Mr. Barrow could not discover for what the pagodas were intended; they are now decaying, and no new ones erected; that in Kew Gardens is not inferior to the very best which he saw. Their knowledge of medicine is contemptible, and quackery flourishes as successfully there, as in England.

The hired sophists of tyranny in Europe have laboured to prove the propriety of absolute power in the sovereign, by deducing it from what they are pleased to call the patriarchal system of parental authority. In China, the government is actually established upon this system; the son is the slave of the father, the subject the slave of the emperor. The Great Father is a title which the emperor takes; and being thus placed above any earthly controul, he is supposed to be also above earthly descent, and therefore, as a natural consequence, he sometimes styles himself the sole ruler of the world, and the son of heaven. The late emperor Kien Long, seemed indeed, in his latter years, to have been himself the dupe of this impiety, which was designed to impose upon the people. His reign had been unusually long and fortunate, and he conceived that the Lama had condescended to become incarnate in his person. This system, or more properly

speaking, this language is carried through all the subdivisions of power; the head of every province, city, or office, is considered as the father; but, Mr. Barrow says, this fatherly care and affection in the governors, and filial duty and reverence in the governed, would, with much more propriety, be expressed by the terms of tyranny, oppression, and injustice in the one, and by fear, deceit, and disobedience in the other.

To curb any disposition to abuse this parental power in the monarch, a singular check has been devised:

"This is the appointment of the censorate, an office filled by two persons, who have the power of remonstrating freely against any illegal or unconstitutional act about to be committed, or sanctioned by the emperor. And although it may well be supposed, that these men are extremely cautious in the exercise of the power delegated to them, by virtue of their office, and in the discharge of this disagreeable part of their duty, yet they have another task to perform, on which their own posthumous fame is not less involved than that of their master, and in the execution of which they run less risk of giving offence. They are the historiographers of the empire; or, more correctly speaking, the biographers of the emperor.

"Their employment, in this capacity consists chiefly in collecting the sentiments of the monarch, in recording his speeches and memorable sayings, and in noting down the most prominent of his private actions, and the remarkable occurrences of his reign. These records are lodged in a large chest, which is kept in that part of the palace where the tribunals of government are held, and which is supposed not to be opened until the decease of the emperor; and, if any thing material to the injury of his character and reputation is found to be recorded, the publication of it is delayed, out of delicacy to his family, till two or three generations have passed away, and sometimes till the expiration of the dynasty; by this indulgence they pretend, that a more faithful relation is likely to be obtained, in which neither fear nor flattery could have operated to disguise the truth.

"An institution, so remarkable and singular in its kind in an arbitrary government, could not fail to carry with it a very powerful influence upon the decisions of the monarch, and to make him solicitous to act, on all occasions, in such a manner, as would be most likely to secure a good name, and to transmit his character unsullied and sacred to posterity. The records of their history are said to mention a story of an emperor, of the dynasty or family of *Tang*, who, from a consciousness of having, in several instances, transgressed the bounds of his authority, was de-

termined to take a peep into the historical chest, where he knew he should find all his actions recorded. Having made use of a variety of arguments, in order to convince the two censors that there could be nothing improper in the step he was about to take, as, among other things, he assured them, he was actuated with the desire only of being made acquainted with his greatest faults, as the first step to amendment; one of these gentlemen is said to have answered him very nobly, to this effect: "It is true your majesty has committed a number of errors, and it has been the principal duty of our employment to take notice of them; a duty," continued he, "which further obliges us to inform posterity of the conversation which your majesty has this day very improperly held with us."

The press in China, we are told, is as free as in England; but Mr. Barrow's notions of the freedom of the press seem to be taken from the days of archbishop Laud and Mr. Pitt; for this liberty, he says, seems to excite no apprehensions in the government. The summary mode of punishing any breach of good morals, *without the formality of a trial*, makes a positive prohibition against printing unnecessary, being itself sufficient to restrain the licentiousness of the press. *The printer, the vender, and the reader of any libellous publication are all equally liable to be flogged with the bamboo.* So much for the liberty of the press in China! The censorial board of the inquisition is mercy, when compared with such freedom.

A short account of the laws is given, which it is the less necessary to notice, as a compendium of the complete code is likely to appear in an able and faithful English translation. We have searched the volume in vain for an account of the state of property; a most important subject, which will of course be fully explained in these institutes. Birth and fortune are of no weight in China; learning alone, such as it is, leads to office and distinction. But such learning as can neither soften the manners or strengthen the intellects is of little avail, and the officers of government carry on a system of plunder far more oppressive than the regular taxation. They who have acquired riches by their trade or possession, dare not openly enjoy them, for the officer of the district would find no difficulty in bringing the wealthy within the pale of the sumptuary laws. To repress this act, a system of espionage has been established; the magistrates keep watch upon each other, and secret in-

spection upon all. No viceroy can hold his office longer than three years, no servant of the crown form a family alliance in the place where he commands, nor obtain an office of importance in the place where he was born. These precautions sufficiently show the extent of the evil.

That a government should have continued without any material change for above two thousand years, is certainly a singular phenomenon in history, and the wonder is increased by the magnitude of the empire. Its unambitious character, and its situation, having no formidable neighbours, have contributed to secure it; but the main cause of its stability has been the wise plan of interesting all the learned in its cause. The disturbances which occasionally arise, are produced by famine, an evil to which this great empire is miserably exposed. To alleviate this evil government stores up a part of the grain which it receives in taxation, for all taxes are paid in kind; the people have no other relief, and this, which in itself is insufficient, is impeded by those impertinent and oppressive delays, which are not peculiar to the public offices of China. It is however the desire of government, as it is the interest, to administer effectual relief, and whenever it appears that an officer has withheld the relief from the poor, either through neglect or malice, the punishment is justly severe, even sometimes extending to the life of the culprit.

Taxation is fixed and certain; the main and enviable blessing of this government. No new assessment is ever required, except in cases of rebellion, when an additional contribution is sometimes demanded from the neighbouring provinces; and it happens quite as often that the land tax or rent, is remitted in such districts as have suffered by drought or inundation. The annual value of the whole is about sixty-six millions, not more than double the revenue of Great Britain, *exclusive* of the poor-rate and parochial taxes. The civil and military establishments, and all the incidental and extraordinary expences are paid on the spot, and the surplus revenue remitted to Peking, amounting to about twelve millions. The military force is stated to consist of eighteen hundred thousand men; the whole expences of this great establishment Lord Macartney calculated at little short of fifty millions sterling. But it must be remembered, that

Ann. Rev. Vol. III.

in China soldiers do not cease to be useful. They are parcelled out in the smaller towns, villages, and hamlets, where they act as jailors, constables, thieftakers, assistants to magistrates, subordinate collectors of the taxes, guards to the granaries, and are employed in a variety of different ways under the civil magistracy and police. They are posted in little forts all along the public roads, canals, and rivers, at the distance of three or four miles asunder; thus they prevent robberies, and carry dispatches to and from the capital, there being no other post. Every soldier has his portion of land which he cultivates: such a provision induces them to marry, and the married men are never removed from their station.

It is, however, probable, that some convulsion is brooding in this great empire. The Tartar family on the throne retain a national prejudice which it was formerly their policy to conceal: though the conquerors adopted the dress, the manners, and the opinions of the conquered, they have not sufficiently blended with the mass of the people; the court is now becoming partial to its own race; all offices of importance are given to Tartars, and the Tartar language is likely to become prevalent at court. This partiality is not regarded by the people with indifference; secret societies of united Chinese have been formed, and it appears by the last accounts that a very serious rebellion had broken out, with one of the family of the last Chinese emperors at the head, who had assumed the imperial yellow. To predict its fate would be impossible; this only is certain, that from a change of dynasty no good results, and the expence of lives and tranquillity at which such a change must be purchased, is actual loss. Such revolutions we deprecate as sincerely as Mr. Barrow, but we have not, like him, that horror of the enlightened doctrines of the rights of man, which he expresses in a manner so little consistent with his usual good sense and good manners. We have expressed our difference of opinion on this head, in reviewing his *Travels in Africa*; and will therefore here only repeat our hope, that a system, which, like that of the Chinese government, and indeed all the Asiatic governments, totally prevents all improvement, all increase of knowledge and happiness, may be radically destroyed.

G

"The primitive religion of China, or, at least, those opinions, rites, and ceremonies, that prevailed in the time of Confucius, (and before that period all seems to be fable and uncertainty) may be pretty nearly ascertained from the writings that are ascribed to that philosopher. He maintains in his physics, that 'out of nothing there cannot possibly be produced any thing;—that material bodies must have existed from all eternity;—that the cause, (*lee reason*) or principle of things, must have had a co-existence with the things themselves;—that therefore, this cause is also eternal, infinite, indestructible, without limits, omnipotent and omnipresent;—that the central point of influence (*strength*) from whence this cause principally acts, is the blue firmament (*tien*) from whence its emanations spread over the whole universe;—that it is, therefore, the supreme duty of the prince, in the name of his subjects, to present offerings to *tien*, and particularly at the equinoxes, the one for obtaining a propitious seed-time, and the other a plentiful harvest.'

"Other parts of the doctrine of Confucius were well calculated to keep alive the superstitious notions that still prevail among the multitude. He taught them to believe that the human body was composed of two principles; the one light, invisible, and ascending; the other gross, palpable, and descending; that the separation of these two principles causes the death of man; that at this awful period, the light and spiritual part of the human body ascends into the air, whilst the gross and corporeal matter sinks into the earth. The word *death*, in fact, never enters into the philosophy of Confucius; nor, indeed, on common occasions is it employed by the Chinese of the present day. When a person departs this life, the common expression is, *he has returned to his family*. And although the body resolves itself in the course of time into its primitive elements; and becomes a part of the universe; yet, he contended, the spirits of such as had performed their duty in life were permitted to visit their ancient habitations, or such places as might be appointed for receiving the homage of their descendants, on whom they had the power of conferring benefactions. On this ground, it became the indispensable duty of every good man to observe a strict obedience of the performance of sacred rites in the temple, consecrated to the memory of ancestors. He maintained, that all such as neglected this great branch of moral duty would be punished for their neglect, after death, by their spiritual part being deprived of the privilege of visiting the hall of ancestors; and, consequently, of the pleasure arising from the homage bestowed by their descendants."

The system of Confucius, or Congfoo-tse as the name should be written, is pure Pantheism. What is most remark-

able is, that his disciples should never have attached any superstition to their master. They regard him as a philosopher, who, by the strength of his own intellect, had attained to the knowledge of the truth, and who is worthy of reverence as the benefactor of mankind, because he has enlightened them. Two other sects, more adapted to human folly, have established themselves. That of the Tao-tze, or *Sons of Immortals*, is not very clearly explained. Its founder Lao Kung, by the account which is here given, would be more properly classed with Mainaduc, than with the founders of new religions. He maintained that enjoyment should be the main object of man, and that he could make man immortal by certain preparations taken from the three kingdoms of nature. Many princes are said to have been poisoned with this liquor of life. That such an imposture should maintain its credit for more than one generation appears incredible. Whether or not this part of the system is still believed we are not told; but the priests of Lao Kung still continue a separate body; they devote themselves to a state of celibacy, and associate in convents. Their temples are crowded with images, which represent the different passions, or the benefactors of the particular monastery, or the deceased brethren; to these images they offer no homage. This account must be accurate; but if that of Lao Kung's system be accurate also, it is very extraordinary that the practice of the disciples should so materially differ from the doctrines of the founder.

The other superstition is that of Fo, or Budha, which is so widely diffused over the east. Formerly these hostile sects struggled for the mastery, each aiming to be established by favour of the court eunuchs. They often took arms against each other, monasteries were burnt, and thousands destroyed; but as the people took no part in the contest, leaving it entirely to the priests, such wars were rather useful than prejudicial to the state. The present dynasty has reconciled the two parties by the sure method of neglecting both. The court religion is that of the Lama, whose priests are paid and maintained as a part of the imperial establishment: to this superstition also the Tartar officers of state are attached.

Their burying grounds are strikingly described.

"A plain, extending beyond the reach of sight, opened out on the left of the river, upon which were observed many thousands of small sandy tumuli, of a conical form, resembling those hillocks which in myriads are thrown up on the continent of Africa by the *termites* or white ants. In several parts of this plain were small buildings, in the form of dwelling-houses, but not exceeding four or five feet in height; in other places were circular, semicircular, and square enclosures of stone-work, and here and there were interspersed small pillars of stone or brick, and other erections of every variety of form. This was the first common burying-ground that we had observed, except a very small one at Tong-ichoo; and the tumuli and the different erections marked out the mansions of the dead. In many parts of this extensive enclosure we met with massy coffins lying upon the surface, some new, others newly painted, but none in a mouldering state. It was explained to us, by our interpreter, that some of these coffins had been deposited there, until the proper advice should be obtained from the priest, or the oracle consulted, or from casting lots, as to the most propitious place of interment, and the most favourable day for performing the obsequies; some were placed there till the pecuniary circumstances of the surviving relatives would enable them to bestow a suitable interment, and others were left to dry and moulder, to a certain degree, in order to be burnt, and the ashes collected and put into stone jars or other receptacles. (On no occasion do the Chinese bury their dead within the precincts of a city or town, much less within the walls of their temples; but always deposit them at a proper distance from the dwellings of the living, in which respect they have more discretion than the Europeans.

"The bank of the river, being one of the enclosing fences to the burying-ground, was ornamented with beautiful weeping willows, which, with a few solitary cypresses interspersed among the tombs, were the only trees that appeared in this part of the country.

"In a corner of the cemetery was a temple, built after the usual plan, with an altar in the center; and a number of deities moulded in clay were ranged on each side on some pedestals. We observed no priests; but an elderly lady was very busily employed in throwing the sticks of fate, in order to obtain a lucky number, in which, however, she failed. During the operation of shaking the cup, her countenance betrayed a greater degree of eagerness and anxiety than usually appears on the face of a Chinese; and she left the temple in a peevish and muttering tone, sufficiently expressive of the greatness of her disappointment, which, it seems, was no less than a refusal, on the part of the oracle, to hold out the hope of her being blessed with a second husband. Till this circumstance had been explained to us by the keeper of the temple, it was concluded, that the old lady had been muttering imprecations against us for disturbing her in the midst of her devotions."

Though nearly a fourth part of the whole country consists of uncultivated lands, it is probable that the population is not over-rated at 333 millions. Enormous as the aggregate appears, yet this population is to that of Great Britain only as 256 to 120, or in a proportion somewhat greater than two to one. Mr. Barrow has set this point in a clear light, and sufficiently proved, in confutation of the common opinion, that China is not over-stocked.

The latter chapter describes the journey from Pekin to Canton. This article has been extended to so great length, that we have no room to notice its details further. We have said enough of the volume to evince its excellence. Bruce's is the only work of equal value which has appeared during the present reign—we had almost said during the last century.

ANV. XII. *Travels from Berlin, through Switzerland, to Paris, in the year 1804. By AUGUSTUS VON KOTZEBUE. Translated from the German. 12mo. 3 vols. pp. 700.*

THERE is a misnomer in the running title, and indeed in the title-page itself, of these amusing little volumes. The former is "*Recollections from Paris*;" now every line testifies that it was written on the spot, and not from recollection. As to the title-page, the reader will be disappointed if he expects a detailed account of Kotzebue's "*Travels from Berlin through Switzerland*." Four-score lightly printed duodecimo pages embrace every title of the journey: it was

probably a rapid one—Kotzebue popped his head out of the carriage every now and then, and if any thing chanced to strike his fancy, it went into his pocket-book, and was, in all likelihood, transferred verbatim to his proof-sheets. The last time we accompanied Kotzebue on his travels it was northward, to the deserts of Siberia: he is quite a different man on this southern excursion; every thing smiles, all nature wears the face of cheerfulness, saddened only occasionally by a

sentimental tear. The *Saïon* roads, indeed, are unmercifully rough, and an author, particularly a dramatic one, must be excused if he is a little angry at being interrupted by a hard jolt, in the very middle perhaps of a compound epithet!

In travelling among the romantic scenery of Switzerland, Kotzebue has scarcely treated us with a description: he is wise. "A person (says he) ought to see Switzerland with his own eyes, just as he ought to hear a concert with his own ears: he who paints countries with words, does still less than the person *who hums a symphony*."

The country about Zurich is very beautiful; its walks might even "tempt the gouty to exercise."

"Gesner's monument is a performance of such simplicity and neatness, that you can scarcely withhold the tribute of a tear. It is a pity that the French chasseurs, who have now no other opportunity to perpetuate their name, endeavour to do it upon this marble. In many parts I found scrawled the 13th regiment of chasseurs, which is really as opposite to the world of *Idyls*, as a musket to a rose-tree.

"In the library there are a great many books: an ordinary traveller can seldom say more of such an establishment. A couple of letters, in the hand-writing of the celebrated Jane Grey, interested me. They are on religious subjects, in very good Latin, and as finely written as if by the hand of a writing-master."

"The temper of the Swiss still resembles the ruffled surface of the deep, out of which a subterranean fire has suddenly projected some rocks, against which the confined surges dash their impotent spray. The walls of the public-houses are often covered with bitter sallies, which are sometimes not without point.

"The Swiss cherish the most inveterate hatred against general Andermatt, the bombarder of Zurich. He lives retired at his country house, where he is screened from the general contempt."

Leaving Geneva, the road by fort L'Ecluse, through Bellegarde, Nantua, and over Mont Cordon, is the wildest and most romantic imaginable: notwithstanding his determination, Kotzebue cannot refrain from describing the situation of that solitary fortress, frowning over the dark-blue waters of the Rhône, which murmur at its feet; nor

surely was it possible for the most indifferent traveller to pass by without describing that awful phenomenon, the Loss of the Rhône. It is now three years since we visited this scene of wildness and apparent ruin, and stood on those sublime but perilous points of rock, one foot in France and the other in Savoy, from which we saw the angry Rhône fretting between our feet. It was in the depth of winter when we travelled this fearful road: oftentimes was our carriage enveloped in the clouds which issued from a defile of mountains on the right; they rolled after each other, and when they had escaped from the hills, we saw them make a sullen descent below us, and watched them hovering over the valley, till a succeeding volume of mist interrupted the view: the impression made upon our minds on beholding those vast and confused masses of rock which engulf the Rhône, was probably rendered more solemn and more grateful by the congenial gloom which chanced to overspread the scene.*

Kotzebue dedicates *three pages* to the city of Lyons, which he calls an "enormous shop," because something is exposed to sale in almost every house, and then he hurries on to Paris, which, to our astonishment, he says, "you may enter as unmolested as your own house; no custom-house officers, no sentinels, no searching, no enquiries respecting your name, quality, or business; the stranger reaches his inn without being noticed by any one, and even there he is not asked for his passport." Vol. I. p. 85. And are the gates of Paris in truth thus unsuspectingly thrown open? It is with difficulty that we can give credit to the statement.

Arrived at Paris; what can we learn from Kotzebue, which many, very many of our own countrymen, who visited that gay and profligate metropolis during the short breathing-time of peace, have not already told us? The manners and amusements of the Parisians high and low, their quackeries, from the programme of the government to the mendicant jugglers upon the Pont-neuf, their museums, galleries, libraries, theatres, their opera, their frescati, all have been described to us a hundred times. We must not repeat the tale so often told.

* For a minute description of this singular phenomenon, and an examination into the probable causes which produce it, we refer our readers to Saussure's "*Voyages dans les Alpes*," chap. xvii. § 402, et seq.

Kotzebue's descriptions are brief, but lively, characteristic, and correct. We shall select a few anecdotes.

The boxes of Bonaparte at the different theatres are, of course, very richly decorated; "among other ornaments is a gold star, which is sometimes on the top and sometimes at the bottom of the box. It is said that he believes in a star of fortune, on which he places more reliance than on his own great genius." When *his imperial majesty* condescends to speak, Kotzebue says, that "a placid smile gives a grace to his mouth, and produces confidence in the person whom he addresses. It was exactly the same," he continues, "with Paul I. whose *pleasant countenance was irresistible!*" May we take the liberty of presuming, that this irresistible benignity of Paul's countenance was not altogether apparent till after Kotzebue's return from his excursion to Siberia? Probably it was conspicuous enough during his interview with the emperor, when the latter sent for him to translate into German his celebrated challenge to the belligerent crowned heads of Europe, and their respective ministers.

"Now I am speaking of Paul, I ought not to omit mentioning, that the first consul had some conversation with me concerning this unfortunate monarch, and testified his sincere regard for him. 'He was a hot-headed prince,' said he, among other things, 'but he had an excellent heart.'

"The American minister stood at some distance from me, and if I remember rightly, I was conversing with him concerning the commerce of his country. This afforded that gentleman an opportunity of dropping a slight hint how desirable the return of peace would be. Bonaparte shrugged his shoulders, as if he meant to say, 'It is not my fault.' Some words on this subject even seemed ready to escape his lips, but he repressed them, and proceeded. He spoke with great ease and frankness on various topics, and when he approached me a second time, the stage was likewise brought on the carpet. He called us Germans melancholy; and expressed his opinion, that the moving, sentimental comedies were in some measure injurious to French tragedy; adding, that he was not fond of weeping, &c."

"When the chief consul suddenly set out on his journey to the coast, nobody knew any thing of his intention until a few hours previous to his departure. He is even said to have sent papers to the ministers the same morning, requesting they would make a report upon them the following day. He briefly informed two of his adjutants that

they were to attend him on his journey, asking them whether they required much time to prepare for it. Conceiving that he would allow them at least a few days, they replied in the negative. 'Well,' said Bonaparte, 'then take your swords and hats.' In fact, directions had just been given to put the horses to the carriage, and the courier, who was to order the relays, had set off only a quarter of an hour before.

"This active man cannot conceive, nor endure, that any person should be ill; a trait of character which he possesses in common with Paul I. On this account, all his retinue provide a stock of medicines when they attend him on a journey, as they would otherwise not have time to procure any."

Kotzebue's trip to Paris was made in 1804: no Englishman has paid a voluntary visit to it since the renewal of the war. Political caricatures are as numerous there as here.

"In some of these wretched productions, Mr. Pitt is represented riding on his majesty's back, on the sea shore, peeping at the French ships in the offing; here the sovereign leaps over the channel, and in his jump loses his crown; there he picks up a number of paper oases, on which the names of his dominions are written, but unable to hold them all, he lets some of them fall. Hanover is already on the ground, Ireland just tumbling, and Malta appears very loose. Here the English are seen flying before a cloud of dust, raised by a flock of sheep, and there Mr. Pitt exercising his troops, all of whom have pigs' heads. The caricature which may perhaps be called the wittiest, is the following: a maker of trusses for ruptures presents the king with a new truss, on which is written, *observation des traités*, the observance of treaties. At his majesty's feet lie two broken bandages, one bearing the inscription *forces navales*, or naval forces; the other *levée en masse*, rising in a mass."

We must pass over much that is amusing, and illustrative of modern manners in Paris, in order to notice the curious account which Kotzebue has given in his third volume of an impudent adventurer, who has succeeded, in different parts of the republic, in imposing on the populace as the dauphin of France. In his process of telling the story, Kotzebue seems to have half persuaded himself into a belief of it.

Jean Marie Hervagault is the son of a taylor at St. Lo; it must not be concealed, however, that by some he is suspected to be a natural son of the late duke of Valentinois. A youth of no education, but possessing an ample share

of penetration and impudence; his features bear a strong resemblance to those of Louis XVI. In September, 1796, he left his father's house, and strolled about the country as a vagabond, declaring himself to be the son of a family of rank, reduced to distress by the revolution. His youth and well-simulated innocence left no room for suspicion, and he was every where relieved. However he was unlucky enough to be taken up as a vagrant at Cherbourg; but his father, apprised of his fate, obtained his release and brought him home. He strolled away a second time, and deceived many persons of rank, while he passed sometimes as the distant relative of an emperor, sometimes of a king. He was arrested at Bayeaux, in female attire, and conducted to prison, from which his father had the good fortune, a second time, to procure his release. He broke loose again in the year 1797, and again lived by his wits at the houses of men of opulence and credulity. In 1798 he related his story at the castle of Guignancourt; but being suspected, he was once more put under arrest, and sent to Chalons, where he said that his name was Louis Antoine Jean Francois de Langueville; that his father was dead, and that his mother, Madame Sainte Emilie, lived at Benzeville, near Pont Audemar, in the department of Eure.

Confined in the prison of Chalons, he assumed an air of such dignity and mysterious deportment, that in a short time it was whispered about, "It is the dauphin!" The gaoler himself believed the story, advanced him money, and treated him with profound respect; the inhabitants of Chalons, of the privileged orders, vied with each other in supporting this last ill-fated offspring of their kings, and the table of this new Perkin Warbeck was daily spread with all the delicacies of the season.

The vigilance of the magistrates was at length excited, and Hervagault underwent stricter examination; with a refinement of artifice, he now declared, in a manner which was calculated to discredit his assertion, that he was the son of a taylor at St. Lo. His father, on being applied to, confirmed the statement, and the offender was sentenced to one month's imprisonment. The people at Chalons obstinately persevered in believing him to be the son of Louis XVI. In the department of Calvados, our hero was very unfortunate; being at Vire, he

was again arrested, and sentenced to two years' imprisonment. His faithful adherents, however, still continued to support him; and at the expiration of his imprisonment, Madame Seignes went in person in order to reconduct him from Vire to Chalons. The most splendid preparations were made for his reception.

"He arrived, received congratulations, had flowers strewed at his feet, and was treated with the most distinguished respect. In short, the horn of plenty was again most copiously poured out on the taylor's son of St. Lo.

"When the police discovered these proceedings, his partisans, upon deliberation, found it expedient to send the dauphin on his travels. His route was so contrived that he everywhere found confidential friends, who, being previously informed of his supposed high birth, shewed him all the respect due to that exalted station. He was once at Rheims, twice at Vitry le Francois, and often at different country-seats, where balls, concerts, and feasts of every kind, were given in honour of him. At Vitry he was splendidly and conveniently lodged at the house of Madame de Rambecour, whose husband closely followed all his footsteps, waited upon him with the most attentive zeal, and served him like a valet. On St. Louis's day a superb fete was prepared for him, it being the feast of the saint whose name he bore. The ladies sung songs composed in honour of him. In the confidential circles which he frequented, they always called him *mon prince*! his portrait was handed about as that of the dauphin, and it was reported that the pope himself had imprinted a mark on his leg, to know him again by; finally, a letter was handed about from a bishop, in which this deluded prelate writes in expressions of the profoundest respect for this young vagabond; and, by his example, convinced many who were still wavering in their belief. Already was a court formed round Louis XVII; he had immediately his favourites, and was going to nominate those who were to hold the great offices of his household. Many names of consequence were to be found among them. They all glowed with enthusiasm, and prepared to make the greatest sacrifices. Men of birth and rank deemed themselves fortunate in being able to perform the meanest drudgery of menial service for him. Misers turned spendthrifts, that they might have the honour of entertaining him. It was very natural that such proceedings should not escape the eye of a vigilant police. Fouché was informed at Paris of all that was going forward at Vitry; and a warrant put an end to the farce."

Not entirely so. The royal soul of

Hervagault was not to be depressed by adversity; his even and dignified deportment kept alive the mystery. His table was constantly served in the most sumptuous manner: and once he indignantly dashed his mess to the ground, because it only consisted of a chicken, a pigeon, a salad, and a custard. Going to mass, a servant or a page carried his prayer-book and cushion; he appointed a secretary, and made him sign in his name that of Louis Charles. The mayor of Vitry at length found it necessary to keep his prisoner under close confinement, and no one was admitted to the dauphin without a ticket.

It was in the year 1802 that Hervagault was sentenced to four years' imprisonment, in the house of correction at Orléans, as a sharper and an abuser of the credulity of the people. He appealed against this sentence to the government, and the sentence was ordered to be revised at Rheims, when "the aged prelate L. de S. . . . bishop of V. . . . , a man venerable for his integrity, universally respected for the austerity of his manners and his profound learning, expressed his conviction that Hervagault was the real and genuine dauphin. He had even spoken to the surgeons who had anatomised the corpse of the pretended dauphin in the Temple, who had informed him that it was not that of the real one."

This good credulous old prelate had commenced a system of education with the young monarch, and was now only fearful lest his royal pupil should be sentenced to transportation. He drew up a list of persons to whom the fate of the dauphin might with propriety be entrusted; among these were the names of Necker, Madame de Stael, Talleyrand, La Harpe, &c. &c. A project was formed to marry him with a distant relation of the royal family. Hervagault at first seemed to wave the proposal: during his absence from France, after his lucky escape from the Temple, he had been received with the utmost warmth, and with the most lavish honours, at every European court; but it was at Lisbon that he became acquainted with love! The queen, said he, who shewed the most decided partiality for me, promised me the hand of her charming sister, the princess Benedictina, dowager of the prince of Brazil. Her majesty likewise used every endeavour to interest the potentates of Europe in

my fate; to her I stand indebted for a declaration signed by the ambassadors of nine sovereigns, (England, Portugal, the emperor of Germany, the kings of Prussia, Sardinia, Sweden, Denmark, Russia, and the pope,) by which I was formally acknowledged, and promised succour; this declaration must still remain among the archives of the court of Portugal.

Having sworn the oath of fidelity and love, therefore, to the queen of Portugal's "charming sister, the princess Benedictina," it could not be without a pang, a severe struggle between duty and pledged affection, that the young dauphin at last yielded, from political motives, to the entreaties of his friends. He consented, and it was accordingly resolved to make levies of men for his service.

Whilst these negotiations were maturing, the trial of Hervagault was revised in the presence of a crowded court, before the criminal tribunal at Rheims. The enthusiasm of the people was excited to the highest pitch in favor of the royal prisoner: the judges, however, confirmed the original sentence. But this confirmation of the sentence by no means intimidated his friends; the zealous and the loyal prelate, learning that it was intended to bring his illustrious pupil from Rheims to Soissons, determined to rescue him on the road. His plot was detected, himself and his papers were seized; but the government had compassion on his age, and gave him his liberty. Hervagault formed another junto of partisans at Soissons, and at last the government thought proper, says Kotzebue, to make him disappear.

The story which the impostor himself told concerning his escape from the Temple was, that after the fall of Robespierre, the ruling factions were divided among themselves, and many were not disinclined to the restoration of royalty; that overtures were made to the Vandéens by Rouelle, a member of the national convention, and one of the conditions which the former insisted upon was the deliverance of the dauphin. This was consented to conditionally that it should be kept secret for a time, and that another child should be substituted in its place: one Hervagault, a taylor at St. Lo, was bribed by 200,000 francs to sacrifice, for the public good, his son, who very much resembled the real dauphin. The taylor's son accordingly

was one night carried to the Temple in a cart, concealed among a parcel of clean linen, whilst the dauphin was half smothered among the foul table cloths and chemises, which were taken away by the same cart to be washed. The rest of the story is obvious enough; the dauphin was conveyed to the royalist army, and would have been reinstated in his hereditary dignity, but that the negotiations for peace were unfortunately broken off by the perfidy of the republicans. The Quiberon expedition had an unfortunate influence on the fate of the dauphin; and although the republicans had surrendered his person to the royalists for the establishment of a limited monarchy, by way of compromise, still the cabinet of St. James's and the French princes would hear nothing of such degrading stipulations; the unhappy dauphin, therefore, was left to his fate, wandered over Europe, fell in love with "the charming princess Benedictina," returned to France in the disguise of a female, was taken up, &c. &c. Kotzebue asserts, that a great number of persons firmly and implicitly believe, at this moment, that Louis XVII. is alive.

There are two circumstances which appear to be worthy of notice in this strange story:—one is, that whenever the impostor appeared in the character of the dauphin, he was received by the people with the liveliest joy; they testified their respect for the memory of their last and beloved sovereign in the most unrestrained manner, and were in the

highest degree elated at the prospect of re-instating his immediate descendant. The next circumstance worthy of notice in the tale of this ingenious impostor is, that, notwithstanding the general and unequivocal evidence of loyalty which the people displayed, government felt itself so secure that it permitted him to run a long career: whenever he was arrested, he was arrested as a vagrant merely, and as one who had imposed on the credulity of the people; and it was not till after the officious zeal of the doting prelate was employed in devising means to marry his *royal pupil* to a relative of the royal family, till after he had resolved to make levies of men for his service, and to rescue him on the road; that the offence of the impostor was considered in a political point of view, and that government thought it prudent "to make him disappear."

We must not conclude our account of these amusing and lively volumes, without noticing the very zealous and gallant defence which Kotzebue has volunteered in favour of that calumniated beauty, Madame Recamier. Kotzebue was upon terms of intimacy with this celebrated lady, during his residence at Paris. He assures us that her moral character is pure and spotless; that she is a woman of great benevolence and sensibility; that she is affectionate, charitable, unassuming; and that she is not less to be admired for the various excellencies which enrich her mind, than for the consummate beauty of her person.

ART. XIII. *Letters from France, in 1802.* By HENRY REDHEAD YORKE, Esq. 8vo. 2 vols. pp. 368. 394.

THE volumes now before us contain an account of Mr. Yorke's journey from Calais to Paris, and a description of the manners and public establishments in that capital; together with anecdotes or some of the most celebrated actors in the revolution, both natives and foreigners. These topics have already been treated of by so many writers, that it would be unreasonable to look for much novelty of matter. A just and philosophical estimate of the effects of the revolutionary changes which France has undergone, is indeed an important desideratum; but we are inclined to believe that few persons will consider this want as in any

material degree supplied by the present publication.

Mr. Yorke complains in his preface, that, in consequence of his former political connexions, "the unforgiving hand of proscription still weighs heavily upon him in despite of every gratuitous concession, of recantation, public, solemn and uninvited, of seven years of disinterested and ardent zeal in the cause of his king and country." We are of opinion that he will not greatly add to his stock of loyal merit by the long details of his interviews in Paris with Thomas Paine and Joel Barlow; and by his boast that he refused the offer of au

establishment in Paris, with a salary of 750*l.* per annum, if he would write for the government and the *moniteur*: next

to the infamy of accepting such a proposition, is the disgrace of having to refuse it.

ART. XIV. *A Voyage of Discovery to the North Pacific Ocean; in which the Coast of Asia, from the Lat. of 35° North to the Lat. of 52° North, the Island of Inru (commonly known under the Name of the Land of Jesso), the North, South and East Coasts of Japan, the Liemchicux, and the adjacent Isles, as well as the Coast of Corea, have been examined and surveyed. Performed in his Majesty's Sloop Providence, and her Tender, in the Years 1795-6-7-8. By WILLIAM ROBERT BROUGHTON. 4to. pp. 400. 9 plates and charts.*

THE work before us offers to the general reader but few temptations; nor can its value be completely estimated, except by a professed navigator. It is for the most part a transcript of the log-book journal, and contains a particular, and, we suppose, accurate account of the wind, weather, and nautical observations during a voyage of three years. But few opportunities occurred of intercourse with the inhabitants of the countries and islands which were touched at; and the equipment of the expedition consisting only of an astronomer, in addition to the usual complement of a sloop of war, it would be unreasonable to expect any details of natural history.

Captain Broughton sailed from Plymouth on the 15th of February, 1795, and arrived at Rio Janeiro on the 5th of May, having spent a few days of this period at Teneriffe, to complete his supply of sea stores. From Rio Janeiro, after encountering several heavy gales, he reached Port Stephens, in New South Wales, on the 18th of August: here he found four deserters from the neighbouring British settlement, who had lived five miserable years upon the hospitality of the natives, and whom captain Broughton, without much difficulty, persuaded to return with him to Port Jackson; which harbour they entered on the 27th, thus escaping the violence of a tremendous hurricane, which came on a few hours after the *Providence* was safely moored.

On the 13th October captain Broughton quitted Port Jackson, and directing his course to the north of New Zealand, came in sight of Otaheite on the 28th of November; here he anchored for a few days, in order to procure a supply of fresh provisions, and to ascertain the rates of the time-pieces. The only new information that we meet with relative to this favourite island of the English navigators is, that European geese and goats

are naturalised here. From Otaheite captain Broughton sailed to the Sandwich islands, whence he proceeded to Nootka sound, where he arrived on the 17th of March, 1796. The Spanish settlement that had formerly been established here, was abandoned in consequence of the remonstrances of the British court. An American vessel entered this port at the same time with the *Providence*, for the purpose of careening; and by the mutual assistance which the crews of the two ships gave to each other, both vessels were completely repaired and fitted for sea.

On the 21st of May captain Broughton quitted Nootka, and explored the coast to the southward as far as Monterey, where he arrived on the 5th of June. This is the most northern settlement of the Spaniards in America, and has been amply described by La Perouse. Our navigators were here furnished liberally with fresh provisions; but, with true Japanese policy, were prohibited from riding, or even walking, beyond the sea coast; and the astronomer was not allowed to erect a tent for the purpose of observing the rate of the time-pieces.

The voyage had hitherto been conducted in obedience to the orders of the admiralty, by which captain Broughton was further required to survey the southern coast of the south-west part of South America, upon the idea that captain Vancouver, who had similar orders, would not be able to fulfil them. Captain Broughton, however, having received certain intelligence that captain Vancouver had left Monterey eighteen months before, with both the ships under his command in good condition, and having further been informed that he had actually sailed from Valparaiso for this express purpose, conceived himself at liberty to deviate from his instructions, and employ the rest of the voyage in such a manner as appeared to him best calculated for the improvement of

geography and navigation. In consequence, after consultation with his officers, captain Broughton resolved to explore the coast of Asia, from the island of Sakhalin (Segalien of La Perouse) as far as Nanking river, and to complete the examination of those parts of the Japanese islands, which were left unfinished in captain Cook's last voyage.

On the 20th of June the Providence left Monterey bay, and arrived at Karakakooa bay, in the Sandwich islands, on the 6th of July; the rest of the month was spent in this neighbourhood, to refresh the crew, to take in a stock of fresh provisions, and to make those astronomical observations which the barbarism of the Spaniards had prevented from being accomplished at Monterey. The Sandwich islands appear to be in a very turbulent state, on account of the ambition of a chief called Tamaahmaah, who, by the assistance of some deserters from Botany Bay, and the fire-arms and ammunition imprudently sold to him by American and British traders, has conquered and desolated most of the islands in this groupe, and is meditating an expedition to Bola-bola, one of the Society isles. The cattle, goats, and sheep left by captain Vancouver, had multiplied rapidly, and will probably be a valuable resource to future navigators.

On the 7th of September the expedition arrived off Port Nambu on the N. E. coast of Nipon; hence they proceeded to Volcano bay, in the island of Insu or Jesso, at the mouth of the straits of Matamai, which separate this latter island from Nipon. The inhabitants of Volcano bay and the surrounding country, are subject to the Japanese, a few of whom reside among them to prohibit their intercourse with strangers.

"At sunrise the boats were sent in search of water, which was found opposite our situation; and the Japanese who attended, signified it was very good. Several of the natives accompanied us; but the jealousy of this man would not let them approach within a certain distance. They spread mats on the beach, while we were filling water; and entered into conversation with us, smoking small pipes of tobacco at the same time. Their inquiries seemed to allude to our departure, and to shew their anxiety for our going away. On our proceeding towards the village they, strongly objected; and to avoid any difference, we gave up the point.

"We rowed along the beach to the westward about two miles; the country gradually rose in sloping hills, covered with ves-

ture and interspersed with wood. We came to a fine stream of water near some houses; on our landing, the natives with great humility brought us mats to sit upon, and fortunately there was no Japanese present to interrupt their civility. This part of the coast being more convenient for taking in water and wood, I determined to move the ship towards it; and after observing the sun's meridional altitude, we returned on board. During my absence several Japanese had arrived at the village with horses carrying merchandize; in the afternoon they came on board, with some degree of ceremony, to pay us a visit. They were clothed in dark-coloured cottons, with silk sashes round their waists; and each of them wore two sabres richly ornamented with gold and silver, whose scabbards were highly japanned: their sandals were of straw and wood matted. They also carried their pipes and fans with them. They were very particular in enquiring what nation we belonged to, and what our intentions were in coming among them; and as they seemed to comprehend our answers they immediately noted them, having, like the Chinese, Indian ink for that purpose. After smoking out their pipes, and taking some refreshment, they returned on shore. In the evening a junk anchored near us: she was laden with sea-wood (*lucus speccharius*), and sailed the same night."

"In the morning we were visited by a new party of Japanese, superior to the others in dress, and equally so in behaviour. We derived not only pleasure, but information also, from their society. They shewed us a chart of the world, which appeared to have been constructed in Russia; and having a book with them in which were drawn the arms of different countries, they immediately pointed out those of Great Britain, to which country they supposed us to belong. They had also a Russian alphabet, and by what I could understand, one of them had been at Petersburg. We had on board a seaman of that country, who conversed with them in his native language. They permitted me to copy a large chart of the islands to the north of Japan, and promised to bring me one of their own doing the next day. After mutual civilities they went on shore. The master returned in the evening, having found a very good harbour in the N. E. corner of the bay, formed by the apparent island, which he discovered to be a peninsula.

"Fine weather enabled us to get every thing from the shore, and we prepared for going to sea. Our Japanese friends joined our party at dinner, and presented me with a chart of their own doing; in return I gave them captain Cook's general chart of the world, which gratified them extremely. They were curious in making remarks on whatever they saw; and what they could not comprehend, they immediately represented in India ink drawings. They seemed

highly pleased to hear that we intended to depart shortly."

The native inhabitants of this island are thus described.

"The men in general were of a short stature, their legs inclining to bend outwards, and their arms rather short in proportion to their bodies. Their beards were thick and large, covering the greatest part of the face, and inclining to curl. The hair of the head was very bushy, which they cut short before on the forehead, and below the ears: behind it was cut strait. Their bodies were almost universally covered with long black hair; and even in some young children we observed the same appearance. The women have their hair cut short round their heads, but much longer than the men: the backs of their hands and forehead were tattooed, as well as round the mouth. They had strings of glass beads round their necks, and other ornaments. The dress of the men consists of a loose gown, made of the inner bark of the lime tree; it reaches down to their knees, and is fastened round the middle by a belt, in which they carry a tobacco-box, pipe, and knife. Some of them had silver rings in their ears, with beads hanging from them. Their dress is only worn in cold weather, which they slip off and on as may be most convenient: in the hot season they only wear a piece of linen round their waists. The female dress differs little from that of the men, except that their gowns reach to the middle of their legs: some of them were formed of seal or deer skins, adorned with pieces of blue cloth. The features of the women were pleasing, though much disfigured by the mode of cutting their hair. Their behaviour was modest, reserved, and becoming their sex. The children went entirely naked. The men saluted us in the most humble manner, sitting down cross-legged, stroking their beards after stretching forth their hands, and bowing nearly to the ground.

"Their houses were built of wood, and the walls formed of reeds, as well as the thatch. In the centre was the fire-place, and small openings at each end of the roof to carry off the smoke. Over the fire-place copper sauce-pans for cooking were suspended, and a slight scaffolding for drying fish and grain. A platform was raised above the ground, covered with skins and mats, on which they slept. Their dwellings were generally of an oblong form.

"Their food consists chiefly of dried fish, boiled with sea-weed, and mixed with a little oil made from the liver of the sun-fish. They also feed upon several kinds of fruits and vegetables, such as grapes, winter berries, the fruit of the bramble, and others, with millet seed, &c. At the villages they kept young bears and eagles in cages, proba-

bly for food, as we could not prevail upon them to part with any. Indeed their poverty seemed to allow little in the way of barter; for even fish we could seldom procure, though it was their constant employment to catch them. Wild grapes were plentiful, and a species of garlic or chives. Their boats were built chiefly of fir, with upper streaks, increasing their width aloft, and continuing fore and aft, making them sharp at each end. They were sewed together with twisted willows, and the seams filled up with moss. In pulling they made use of skulkers; but, instead of pulling them together, they moved one after the other, which prevented them from going in a strait line. Their nets were made of the twisted bark of the lime tree, dyed with oak bark. Their hooks, harpoons, &c. were procured from the Japanese. The repairing of their boats seems their chief employment, added to their collecting and drying the sea-weed, of which a large quantity is exported to Japan, as a valuable article of food. Birch bark is also an article of commerce.

"The women are employed in weaving cloth for garments, and other necessary domestic work. The smoking tobacco is a favourite amusement with both sexes.

"These people of Insu were tributary, and in great subjection to the Japanese, who prevented them as much as they could from having any intercourse with us; for whenever they appeared, the Japanese drove them away. They appeared a most harmless inoffensive race of men; and we regretted much the jealousy of the Japanese, which entirely prevented us from acquiring the information we wished concerning their customs and manners. They speak in a slow timid manner; and their language contains many Japanese words. There were some trifling plantations of Indian corn and millet, but few other signs of cultivation. This we the more wondered at, as their diet seemed very scanty and precarious; and the ground produced abundance of vegetables, as we observed in the gardens belonging to the Japanese."

From Volcano bay captain Broughton shaped his course to the northward, exploring the coast of Insu, Spanberg's island, and part of the Kurile islands; the weather however becoming very stormy, he was obliged to return to the South; and, after an unsuccessful attempt, on account of incessant heavy gales, to pass through the straits of Matsmai, he arrived off the harbour of Jeddo on the 11th of November: hence he proceeded towards China by the Lieuchieu islands and the north of Formosa, and on the 13th of December, after a very stormy passage, arrived at Macao. Here captain Broughton purchased a

small vessel, to serve as a tender to the *Providence*, and completely repaired his ship.

On the 11th of April, 1797, the expedition quitted Macao, with the intention of surveying the gulf of Tartary. Calms and baffling winds prevented them from making much progress; and, on the 17th of May, the ship most unfortunately struck on a reef of coral-rocks, near the island of Typinsan, one of the Madjicosemah isles, and was lost. The crew and some of the stores were conveyed, by the tender, in safety to Typinsan, where they received every possible assistance and comfort from the inhabitants. Water, wood, wheat, rice, potatoes, canary seed, poultry, and pigs, were supplied in great abundance, without any recompence being demanded, or even expected; but all requests to visit the interior of the island were positively refused. The schooner not being able to accommodate, with any comfort, the crew of the *Providence* in addition to her own, and not being capable of containing the requisite stores for a long voyage, it was necessary to return to Macao as soon as possible. The parting with these hospitable islanders was satisfactory on both sides.

"When the schooner was ready for sailing, accompanied by the officers, we paid our last visit, carrying with us some trifling presents, the most acceptable we had. We endeavoured to make them comprehend how sensible we were of their kind attention, and I believe we succeeded, as they accepted our gifts with great satisfaction, particularly a drawing of the ship and a telescope. After partaking of their refreshments, these venerable old men accompanied us to the beach, where the long-boat, completely rigged, fitted with sails, &c. lay at anchor, ready for their acceptance. They received her with great joy, and directly took possession. Thus did we part most amicably with these humane civilized people, not unaffected by the favours we had received from them in our distressed situation."

Captain Broughton arrived at Macao on the 4th of June; and, after distributing his supernumerary hands among the British vessels in that harbour, sailed a second time in prosecution of his design on the 26th of June, in the schooner alone.

The first place at which captain Broughton touched was the great Lieuchieu island, inhabited by a civilized people, resembling their neighbours of

Typinsan both in their hospitality and suspicion of strangers. Hence he proceeded along the eastern coast of Nipon to Volcano bay, where he arrived on the 12th of August.

"Two days after our arrival we were visited by some Japanese, who came from the town of Matzmai, as we understood them, on purpose to find out of what nation we were, and our intentions in coming here. And on the 18th our old friends arrived; the same we had noticed last year for their civility. They seemed much surprised at seeing us in so small a vessel, and could not well account for our coming here again. As they came expressly to look after us, and to prevent our intercourse with the natives, we had always their company either on board or on shore, where they resided opposite the vessel. They were anxious for our departure, and strongly urged it every day, but in a very civil manner. I had to regret we could not, understand each other better, these men being equally intelligible and communicative. I acquired from them a very complete map of the Japanese islands, with strong injunctions not to acknowledge from whom I procured it; as they explained the parting with it would bring them into disgrace and punishment, were it known."

The weather being now more favourable, the passage of the straits of Matzmai, or Sangar, was attempted with success: many populous villages were seen on the shores, surrounded by cultivated fields, or half concealed by luxuriant woods, and several Japanese trading vessels at anchor in the little creeks and harbours, or sailing in every direction, pleasingly diversified the scene. Having passed the straits, captain Broughton made sail to the north up the gulf of Tartary, coasting along the eastern shore as high as 53° north latitude; when the soundings having gradually decreased to less than two fathoms, and nothing but sandbanks and low land appearing to the north, he turned the ship's head to the southward, and returned down the gulf along the western shore. The season of the year being unfavourable for the examination of the straits that separate Insu from Sakhalin (now known by the name of La Perouse's straits), captain Broughton continued to keep a southerly direction, following the bendings of the Korean coast to the populous island of Tzima, in the straits of Corea, the southern entrance of the sea of Japan. At Tchosan, a harbour on the opposite coast of Corea, the expedition was received with the utmost hospitality, and

furnished gratuitously with the necessary supplies: the inhabitants appeared to be in a high state of civilization; but kept so strict a guard on the strangers, that they were unable to penetrate more than a few hundred yards into the country, and they were daily solicited to hasten their departure.

From Tchosan captain Broughton proceeded to the Yellow Sea; then standing to the east, he examined a cluster of small islands, about 3° north of the Lieuchieu-group, and afterwards made the best of his way, by the usual track to the north of Formosa, to Macao,

where he arrived on the 27th of November. Here the journal terminates.

In consequence of the unfortunate loss of the larger ship, and the delay which this accident occasioned, captain Broughton was unable to execute his plan of survey in its whole extent. Future navigators, however, will feel themselves obliged to him for the elucidation of the straits of Matzmai, of the difficult navigation of the gulf of Tartary, and especially for the chart of the coast of Corea, which had never before been examined by Europeans.

CHAPTER II.

T H E O L O G Y

AND

ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS.

THE theological works of the present year, are, as usual, numerous ; and several of them are of considerable importance.

I. The third and last volume of *The Philoxenian Syriac Version of the New Testament* is at length published; and that valuable work, an honour to the university of Oxford, and to the learned and laborious editor, Dr. White, is completed, after an interval of no less than twenty-six years from the appearance of the first volume. Mr. Fellowes, with unabated zeal for what he deems scriptural truth, has introduced to the public—*The Guide to Immortality, or Memoirs of the Life and Doctrine of Christ by the four Evangelists*, accompanied with copious notes.

II. The editor of a few fragments of the manuscripts of the late Mr. Farmer has done little in the service of sacred criticism :—Mr. Tomlinson in his *Attempt to rescue the holy Scripture from Ridicule*, has, we fear, completely failed, and even counteracted his own laudable design; and an anonymous writer has, with more zeal than ability, compounded *An Antidote to Infidelity*. Our second department is, indeed, very barren.

III. The translation of part of *Dr. Less's History of Religion* by Mr. Kingdon is the most valuable article relating to the evidences of revelation. The posthumous work of *Professor Arthur* contains useful observations upon some branches of natural religion; and Mr. Durham has proved to the world the justice of the decision which awarded him an university prize for his *Essay on the Providence of God*.

IV. The eldest son of the late *Archdeacon Blackburne* has performed a duty owing to his venerable father, and an acceptable service to the public, by publishing the *Works* of that zealous advocate for religious liberty, in seven octavo volumes. Mr. Lloyd, in a work entitled *Christian Theology*, has endeavoured to excite the zeal of his clerical brethren, and to recommend what he regards as important truth. The English Stereotype press has opened with an "*Abstract of the Christian Religion*," a work written by Freylinghausen, a Dutch divine, edited by an English prelate, and sanctioned by the greatest female personage in this kingdom. *Dr. Huntingford, Bishop of Gloucester*, has composed a small work on the long controverted doctrine of the *Trinity*, and Mr. Pitt and Mr. Faber have entered the field now occupied by arminian and calvinistic disputants, and advancing between the lists have endeavoured to mediate a cessation of hostilities.

V. Our list of sermons is long. The preachers are, *Drummond, Hunter, Layard, Cooper, Grose, Warner, Martin, Bowden, Gisborne, Vanburgh, Rogers, and Daubency*. Mr. Clapham has published the second volume of his *Selections chiefly from minor Authors*.

Single sermons have been published by *Bishop Watson, Warren, Kentish, Corrie, Glaze, Belsham, Wood, Disney, Toulmin, and Edwards.*

In the list of practical works we have *Dr. Toulmin's Addresses to Young Men*; and *Mr. Christian's* ironical little tract, entitled the *Fashionable World displayed.*

VI. No books of devotion have appeared.

VII. In the class of works relating to ecclesiastical affairs, the *four last volumes of Dr. Priestley's History of the Christian Church* claim a distinguished place.

The schism amongst the quakers still continues to press upon our notice, and *The Narrative of Events in Ireland, and The Narrative of Events in America,* furnish much curious matter of observation. A small pamphlet has also been published in the north of Britain containing *Reasons for separating from the Church of Scotland.*

Of these and a few of less note we now proceed to give a more complete account.

THE SCRIPTURES.

ART. I. *Actuum Apostolorum et Epistolarum tam Catholicarum quam Paulinarum, Versio Syriaca Philoxeniana, ex Codice MS. Ridleyano in Bibl. Coll. Nov. Oxon. reperto nunc primum edita: cum Interpretatione et Annotationibus JOSEPH WHITE, S. T. P. Ling. Arab. apud Oxonienses Prof. 2 tom. 4to. pp. 317 et 399.*

WHEN the first heralds of the gospel entered upon their important and hazardous undertaking, the language of Greece was generally known, and generally spoken through the great extent of the Roman empire. It was not in this, indeed, that Jesus instructed the listening multitudes, and so spake as to excite the admiration even of his enemies;—it was not in this that the apostles of Jesus struck terror into the breasts of the conscious murderers of that holy and just person—and persuaded thousands of their countrymen to save themselves from that untoward generation: but in this they drew up the faithful narrative of their master's life, and in this composed their epistles, not only to the churches of Macedonia, of Greece, of Ionia, and of Rome, but also such as were sent to the Christians scattered throughout Pontus and Cappadocia, and to the twelve tribes dispersed abroad. Matthew, aware of the circumstances and the wants of the Hebrew Christians, without doubt, as it appears to us, composed his gospel in the vernacular tongue of Judea: and, owing to similar circumstances and similar wants, the Syriac Christians, we imagine, were not long without the scriptures of the New Testament, when they were once formed into a canonical collection, in the kindred dialect spoken to the north of Palestine. We agree with Mr. Marsh, that in all the great cities of Syria, Greek was the current language, and that even, admitting the usefulness of a Syriac trans-

lation, we must not conclude a *per se* ad *esse*:—yet, if it be true that a Christian church was established at Edessa about the middle of the first century, and that the kings of Edessa were early converts to the Christian faith, we see some reason to conclude that circumstances would soon arise which would render a Syriac translation desirable at least, if not necessary. Ridley has conjectured with great plausibility, that the Syriac and the Latin versions, which are acknowledged to be the most ancient, originated from a practice similar to that which prevailed in the Jewish service after the return from the Babylonian captivity, and to which we owe the Targums:

“Cum lingua Syriaca sub Sarcenis desuit esse vernacula, et Arabicæ cessit, mos erat in publicis conventibus post Syriacam lectionem epistolæ et evangelii, eadem lectione Arabicâ interpretari. Similem obtinuisse morem apud Judæos de exilio Babylónico reductos novimus, ut post lectionem Hebræicam, eandem scripturam Chaldaice exponerent; Nehem. viii. 8. quam in Ecclesiam primitivam transiisse discimus. 1 Cor. xiv. 27.—Cum igitur omnis Oriens Græco utebatur Sermone, ut testatur Hieronymus; et Evangelistæ Apostolique quoplibet effulgeret Evangelii lux, sua præconia Græcè edere, non a vero abhorrens videbitur, si credamus quosdam Pastores, in rudiorum gratiam in pagis degentium, quibus Græca lingua (utut generalis nimis erat nota, scripturas quas Græcè legébant, domestico sermone suis singulis interpretatione explicasse: Latine Romæ, et Antiochiæ Syriacæ. Exinde oriretur interpretum varietas, et codicum Græcorum potius para-

phrasis quædam quam fida versio : quod post tot collationes et correctiones institutas et re-fectas, etiam nunc in Simplicii et Vulgata critici discernunt. Hinc autor alterutrius prorsus ignoratur : et varias quidem in utraque lingua credibile est extitisse. Discimus enim ex Augustino scripturas in conventibus lectas fuisse, et deinde explicatas, quas explanationes auditores exceperunt, et in literis tradiderunt."—Ridley de Syr. N. F. Vers. Dissert. p. 22, 30.

Though this be deemed mere conjecture, and acknowledged to have no direct support from history ; yet it is not unreasonable, nor without claims to attention, as affording the means of solving certain difficulties that occur in the subject of the Syriac version.

But however this may have been, there is indisputable evidence to prove that, before the middle of the fourth century, a Syriac version had been made in the dialect of Antioch* of all the books of the New Testament, excepting the second epistle of Peter, the second and third of John, Jude, and the Apocalypse. This version is called by the Syrians *Peshito*, the *literal*, or rather, as Mr. Marsh has observed, the *correct or faithful version*. It has received in later times the title of *Simplex*, and by this is now most generally distinguished. The Syrian Christians ascribe to it a very remote origin. Some of them, if we may believe Postell, have asserted that it was written by Mark, though it is most probable that Mark died before the gospel of John was published. Abulpharagius affirms, that it was made in the days of Thaddæus ; and a Syriac MS. is mentioned by Asseman, as having a subscription explicitly declaring, that " it was finished in the year of the Greeks, 389 ; that is, in the year of Christ 78,

by the hand of the apostle Achæus." If by Achæus be meant Aghæus, the successor of Thaddæus, as is most probable, Dr. Ridley remarks that this subscription must be unworthy of credit, as Aghæus died in 48. An observation by Ridley is of importance upon this part of the subject : " Si esset ab Apostolo vel a viro Hierosolymitano Novi Fœderis Traductio, verisimile est eam fuisse in Dialecto Chaldaicâ, quam Galilæam Syram Postellus appellat, non in Antiochenâ, ut est hodierna Simplex." But if the Syrians have erred in assigning to this version too early a date, many learned Europeans have approached too near to the contrary extreme, and detracted too much from its antiquity. Fuller, Grotius, and Vossius, maintained that it was not made till the sixth and seventh century. Renaudot, Le Long, and Wetstein, supposed that the *Peshito* was no other than a corrected copy of the version of Philoxenus, which we shall soon notice. This opinion the latter maintained in the first edition of his *Prolegomena*, published anonymously ; and though, upon being convinced of his error by our countryman Dr. Kippax, he retracted his opinion in the next edition of his *Prolegomena*, prefixed to his New Testament ; yet he there, very unaccountably, retained an argument against the antiquity of the *Peshito*, which if sound, would bring down its origin to the eighth century. Upon the whole, it appears that a higher date than about the middle of the second century, cannot justly be assigned to it, nor a lower than the middle or beginning of the fourth.

The following remark by Ridley will not be out of place, if inserted here :

* The dialects of the Syriac language were originally three ; the *Aramæan*, the *Nabathæan*, and the *Antiochenian* ; corresponding nearly with the division of the country into Syria Proper, Mesopotamia, and Chaldæa. The first of these dialects was spoken by the Mesopotamians, the second by the people of Nabathæa and the mountainous parts of Assyria, and the last by those of Damascus and Cælo-Syria.

The least pure of these was the *Nabathæan*. The *Aramæan* was brought to considerable perfection at Babylon : in this Daniel and Ezra wrote. After the destruction of Babylon, it was corrupted ; and in this corrupted state is distinguished by the term *Chaldaic*. This was the dialect used by Onkelos and Jonathan in the Targums ; and, probably, that which was spoken by Christ and the Apostles. After the destruction of Jerusalem, fresh impurities were added, and another dialect gradually arose, called by the name of *Jerusalem*. In this were written the *Mistma* about the year 190, and the *Jerusalem Talmud* in the year 230. Some of the school of Tiberias having migrated to Babylon, the *Aramæan* underwent another change, and produced what is called the *Babylonian* dialect. In this was composed the *Babylonian Talmud*, published about the year 500.

The third dialect, or that of *Antioch*, is the most ancient of all ; in this the sacred writings of the Syrians are composed, and most of the works of their learned men.—Ridley's Diss. p. 9, 10.

"Præcipuus hujusce versionis usus est, non ut ipissima Christi verba exprimeret, Chaldaicâ quippe usus est ille dialecto, et hæc Antiochenâ exaratur: sed ut germanus vel verborum vel phrasium in Græco textu sensus melius innotesceret; quod enim apostoli Syriacè conceperunt, licet Græcè scriperunt, ni expositores Syriacè interpretati sunt, unde verior in quibusdam locis sensus, quasi à speculo ad animum reflecti sunt." Dissert. p. 71.

This version was not known in Europe till the sixteenth century, when Moses of Mardia was sent by Ignatius patriarch of the Maronite Christians to acknowledge the supremacy of the Roman pontiff. He was also charged with the commission of getting the Syriac version printed, and for this purpose he brought with him two MSS. not duplicates; but, as Mr. Marsh supposes, one containing the Gospels; the other, the Acts and the Epistles. The former of these is still preserved in the Imperial library at Vienna. Jean Alberti, better known by the name of Widmanstadt, the most accomplished Orientalist in Europe, prevailed, not without difficulty, upon the emperor Ferdinand I. to be at the expence of the impression; and by the joint care and labour of Moses, Widmanstadt and Postell, the Syriac version was handsomely printed at Vienna, A.D. 1555, in 4to. and so as to be a perfect pattern of the Peshito. A thousand copies were struck off, 500 of which the emperor took for himself, 300 were sent into the east, and 200, with 20 dollars, were presented to Moses. This copy is the basis of most of the succeeding editions that have been published. Some unjustifiable liberties have indeed been taken by different editors, and several additions made to the genuine Peshito. Tremellius, who published his valuable edition in 1569, not finding in the Vienna edition, 1 John v. 7. translated it, whence it has been taken by some subsequent editors, and inserted into the text. He also, on the authority of a MS. from the Heidelberg library, altered in many places the text of Widmanstadt. In the edition published in the 5th vol. of the Antwerp Polyglott, several passages were altered from a MS. brought by Postell from the east, and now preserved in the Leyden library. In the year 1627, Lud. de

Dieu published the Apocalypse from a MS. formerly belonging to Scaliger, and now in the university library at Leyden. In 1680 Pococke published at Leyden the four epistles wanting in the old Syriac, from a MS. which he found in the Bodleian library.

In the Paris Polyglott, published in 1628—1645, all these parts were added to the text of the Vienna edition, and many alterations made, as Michaelis concludes, from no better authority than conjecture.

In the London Polyglott, which next appeared, the story of the adulteress was, for the first time, inserted, probably from one of the later copies of the Philoxenian version; to which we must now attend. Whether, as Ridley supposes, "adeo erat deformata Syriaca quæ vulgo terebatur Novi Fœderis Versio, ut novâ, quæ à Græcis fontibus accuratius deduceretur opus esset;" or, as Michaelis conjectures, a desire prevailed of having a version more literal than the Peshito; it is now certain, that in the year 508 a new translation of the Greek Testament into Syriac was undertaken at the suggestion of Philoxenus; or, as he was also called, Xenayas, bishop of Hieropolis or Maberg, by his rural bishop Polycarp.

"Seculo sexto," says Ridley, "jam oriente, in gratiam fortasse Syrorum Orientalium et Interfluvialium suscepta, alia sub auspiciis Philoxeni, a Chorepiscopo suo Polycarpo adornata prodibat; quæ vim Græcorum verborum fideliter exprimens, postea hæc Alexandriæ cum selectissimis Græcis exemplaribus comparata est eorumque variantibus lectionibus instructa. Hæc non in Antiochena sed, ut in adnotatione dicitur Aramæa exaratur dialecto, temporum vero lapsu inquinata, quam licet ab eruditissimis Judæis ad Babylonem reversis aliquantum repurgatam, non tamen Aramæam proprie, sed Babylonicam appellamus, Chaldaicæ quam locuti sunt Christus et Apostoli ipsius simillimam." Diss. p. 71.

In the beginning of the next century A. D. 616, Thomas of Harkel † undertook to revise and correct this version. For this purpose he went and resided in Alexandria, where the best copies of the Greek Testament were to be found; and there "cum diligentia multa"—"molestia et solitudine"—he collated

* This is an error, as will soon appear.

† He is generally called Thomas of Heraclea; it should be rather of Herculæ, in order that a small town or village in the east may not be confounded with a famous Greek city.

it with two Greek copies of acknowledged accuracy—"valde probatis et accuratis." For the conjectures which have been formed concerning these copies, we must refer our readers to Michaelis's *Introd.* and Marsh's notes. Vol. ii. part i. pages 529—536, and vol. ii. part ii. pages 790—797.*

In the twelfth century Dionysius Barsalibæus, 'bishop of Amida, revised the Four Gospels of the Philoxenian version, and made some additions, upon what authority we do not know: he transcribed the Acts of the Apostles and the Epistles from the Peshito.

Of the Philoxenian version little more was known in Europe, before the middle of the last century, than that it existed. A few MSS. some containing only the Gospels, others only the Acts and the apostolic Epistles, were scattered amongst the principal libraries, and Renaudot and Asseman had called the attention of the learned to the subject, yet little attention had been paid to it. In the year 1729 Mr. S. Palmer, being at Amida, (*Diarbekr*) in Mesopotamia, purchased, at a considerable expence, four Syriac MSS. two of which proved to be copies of the Syriac New Testament; one of them the version of Barsalibæus, published in the twelfth century, and the other, the most important, the Philoxenian version, by Thomas of Harkel; these he sent to his friend the Rev. Gloucester Ridley, minister of Poplar. Though little, if at all acquainted with the Syriac language, Mr. Ridley soon discovered that he was in possession of a valuable treasure; and, notwithstanding age and infirmities, without a proper instructor, and destitute of books that would have facilitated his labour, he resolutely applied to the study of the Syriac, and not without surprising success. The first use that was made of the MS. that had thus unexpectedly come into Mr. Ridley's possession, was by Wetstein, who was preparing materials for his Greek Testament. Upon hearing of these MSS. he came to England, as he says in his *Prolegomena*,—"elatus in spem, uno inquitu videndi

tres aut quatuor Codices Græcos, mille annorum ætatem superantes, atque geminam lectionem asserturos." But he was disappointed. He hastily and unwarrantably formed an idea, that the various readings of the Harcelean† copy were taken ultimately from the Italic version, and having spent fourteen days upon what ought to have employed him at least as many weeks, he returned furnished with imperfect or mistaken extracts for his splendid and useful work. Finding himself incapable of gratifying the wishes of the learned in the publication of this valuable copy, and unsuccessful in his application to Michaelis, to come over and undertake the printing of it in England, Ridley engaged in the laborious task of transcribing the Harcelean copy, and noting in the margin the variations in the Barsalibæan. He had thus completed the Four Gospels, when his increased age and infirmities compelled him to desist, and he presented the original copies and his own manuscript to the university of Oxford. When that learned body resolved that it should be published, the late Dr. Lowth proposed Dr. White as a proper person to undertake the arduous office of conducting it through the press, and happily for the cause of sacred learning, this celebrated professor did not decline the honourable labour to which he was invited. The first volume containing the *Four Gospels*, with a Preface and an Appendix, appeared with great credit both to the university and the editor, in the year 1778. The five first sections of the preface contain an account of the version, taken chiefly from the learned Dissertation published by Ridley. The sixth section treats on the asterisks, the obelisks, and the marginal readings, of which Ridley had said nothing. The text of the Gospels is accurately printed from the Harcelean copy, except where there was manifestly a fault, which the editor has corrected from the Barsalibæan and Bodleian copies, subjoining the reading of the Harcelean. Greek readings are printed in the margin, and Syriac readings at the bottom of the page. A lit-

* It has generally been imagined by the learned, that there were two revisers of the Philoxenian version, one in the sixth, and the other in the seventh century. Thomas of Harkel is supposed to have been the first, and contemporary with Philoxæus: the other, whose name is unknown, is said to have published the copy of 616. This error (for such Mr. Marsh has proved it to be), has arisen from a word in one of the subscriptions, which may be rendered either *iterum* or *porro*. The former rendering has been commonly adopted; and hence the use of the term *bis* in the above quotation from Ridley.

† al. *Haracleau*.

ral Latin version by the professor is also subjoined. In the Appendix occur the story of the adulteress, found in the Barsalibæan, but not in the Harcelean copy: three notes occurring at the end of the Gospels in the same copy: Dr. Ridley's collations of the Barsalibæan copy, and that in the Bodleian library, accompanied by some remarks by Dr. White: and a description of three MSS. copies of the Philoxenian version belonging to the younger Asseman.

The second volume, containing the Acts of the Apostles, and the Catholic Epistles, was published in 1799, more than twenty years after the appearance of the former volume. This delay was chiefly occasioned by the difficulties which the learned and indefatigable editor had to surmount. Their nature and magnitude will be best seen from his own words:

"Quo prior hujus operis pars literatorum virorum favore excepta est, utinam et hæc posterior excipiat! quæ si ex omni parte minus absoluta habeatur, doctiores, uti spero, id non tam editoris negligentia, quam operis ipsius difficultati, tribuendum censebunt. Cum enim per universam Europam nullum aliud ejusdem exemplar extet, quam Ridleyanum manuscriptum, quod quidem Actus et Epistolas contineat, scribæ errores non nisi maximo cum labore corrigi posse nemo non statim intelligit. Ut vero exemplarium defectum quodammodo supplerem, quoties notus difficilior sese obtulisset, nullam aliam viam mihi apertam esse credidi, quam ut ad analogiam grammaticam recurrerem; aut loca parallela per totum Nov. Test. consulerem et expenderem, unde comparatione factâ, aliquid aut certum aut probabile de locis suspectis statueretur. Non leve autem duri laboris solatium fuit, quod, hac ratione usus, tantum profeci, ut perpauca esse existimem, in quibus aliud exemplar desideretur. Quamvis enim in pluribus quam quinquaginta locis vitiosum esse textum, vel e constructione grammaticis legibus minime consentaneâ, vel omissione verborum aliquot necessarium, vel aliorum inutilium insertionem valde suspicer, eorum tamen locorum tenebras annotationum luce sic depulisse confido, ut non multa futura esse sperem quæ lectori obscura atque intellectu difficilia relinquantur.—Actuum vero et Epistolarum multo etiam difficilior, quam Evangeliorum ipsorum Translatio fuit; multa enim loca sunt quæ si de verbo ad verbum redderentur, aut sensus fieret obscurior, aut quicunque ea Latine translata legeret varias Græci textus lectiones esse suspiceretur. Accedit, multa Syriaca verba in Actibus et Epistolis adhiberi quæ in nullo Lexico typis mandato reperiuntur. Hinc labor mihi impositus Manuscripta

Bodleianæ Bibliothecæ Lexica evolendi, durus sane et fastidiosus."

The preface from which we have made the above extract, is followed by a selection from the Euthalian sections, which are found in the Ridleyan MS. with asterisks and obeli, thus affording a decisive proof that these marks were not designed, as Wetstein and Storr supposed, to point out the difference between the readings of the old and new Syriac versions, as these sections are not met with in any copy of the old version.

The appearance of this volume has determined a question concerning the four disputed Epistles, which has been much agitated among the learned: "whether the Syriac version of these Epistles, wanting in the Peshito, but published by Pococke from a MS. in the Bodleian library, has the same text as the MS. of Ridley." See Mich. vol. ii. p. 54, with Marsh's notes.—The decision of this question we shall subjoin in Dr. White's own words, prefixed to his annotations on the 2d Epistle of Peter:

"De Epistolæ hujus versione non nulla habuerunt viri docti ad hunc usque diem in comperta, non posthac habituri. Primo enim liquet, Epistolæ hujus versionem, publici juris nunc factam, nihil commune habere cum illâ quæ in lucem edita est a Pocockio, A. D. 1630, quæque in Polyglottis Londinensibus, edit. Schaafianâ et alibi jam dudum vulgata extat. Secundo ut missam faciam auctoritatem Epigraphæ, ad calcem hujus ut et aliarum Catholicarum subjuncta, diserte auctorem Versionis Philoxenium laudantis; ut hoc præteream, non alium tamen quam Philoxenum eum fuisse satis constat, ex testimonio doctissimi Barsalibæi; qui in suis ad hunc Epistolam Commentariis, textum suum Philoxenianum ubique exhibet cum hoc nostro omnibus numeris convenientem. Tertio, cum tempore Barsalibæi, qui 12^o seculo fere medio vixit, nulla hujus Epistolæ versio Syriaca extaret, præter unam Philoxenianam, ea profecto quæ in Polyglottis vulgo circumfertur, magnæ sibi antiquitatis laudem vindicare non potest, neque proinde in re critica multo estimanda est.

"Quicquid de hac Epistola dictum sit eodem jure de tribus sequentibus dici potest, sc. secunda et tertia Johannis et Judæ epistola singulari, quarum nulla in versione simplice invenitur.

Another curious fact is also brought to light by the learned editor; that the various readings of these Epistles, cited by Wetstein from his MS. from Aleppo, exactly coincide with the text of the Ridleyan version. "Unde autem," says

Dr. White, "mirus ille consensus? An Versionem Philoxenianam earum Epistolarum codex Westenianus, ipso ignorante, exhibebat? Ita sane me tantum non persuasum habeo."

The third volume of this valuable work, which has lately been published, contains the Epistles of Paul. This is, however, imperfect; the MS. concluding with the first part of the 27th verse of the 11th chapter of the Epistle to the Hebrews.

And thus, by the completion of the professor's great and valuable labours, the learned are put in possession of perhaps the only complete copy of a version, which, though it may not be so valuable as the Peshito, must be of consider-

able service to sacred literature. It remains now for some able critic to prove the value of this version by collating the various readings in reference to the Greek Testament. All that occur in the Gospels have been discovered by Dr. Storr, and published in the 10th volume of the Repertorium. Dr. Adler too, in his Versiones Syr. has given a very accurate collation of the marginal readings. Why may not our own country have the honour of finishing what has been so ably begun abroad, and of applying the means now furnished by the skill and industry of the learned editor of this curious and important version, to the further improvement of the sacred text?

ART. II. *The Guide to Immortality; or Memoirs of the Life and Doctrine of Christ, by the four Evangelists; digested into one continued Narrative, according to the Order of Time and Place laid down by Archbishop Newcome; in the Words of the established Version, with Improvements; and illustrated with Notes, moral, theological, and explanatory; tending to delineate the true Character and Genius of Christianity.* By R. FELLOWES, A. M. Oxon. In 5 vols. pp. 407, 454, 276.

THE author of the work now before us is no stranger, either to censure, or to praise. Several productions of his pen, distinguished by great freedom of sentiment, and boldness of expression, have already obtained the approbation of those who esteem themselves persons of liberal and enlightened views, and sustained the decided hostility of those, whom Mr. Fellowes has ventured to blame, for implicitly yielding to the influence of human formularies and unscriptural creeds and maxims. The Guide to Immortality breathes the same spirit, and will therefore meet with the same fate.

By some the author will be commended as a truly Christian divine; and by others he will be decried as a heretic of the very first class, if not, as an enemy of the religion of Christ.

Let us hear what Mr. Fellowes says for himself respecting the present work:

"I had no sooner perused the elegant Diatessaron of the truly ingenious and learned Dr. White, than I determined, as soon as I could spare time from other occupations, to publish in English a work on a similar plan, though somewhat differing in a part of the arrangement. In the account of the resurrection, I have more closely adhered to the harmony of Newcome, than has been done by Dr. White, who has followed the order of narration suggested by Dr. Townson; but which appears to me, on mature consideration, more perplexing and less satisfactory than that of Benson and Newcome.

"The utility of such a work, as the present, must be universally apparent. In reading the separate histories of the four evangelists, the memory is liable to be oppressed, and the attention to be confused by the narrative of the same facts and discourses, placed in a different order, viewed in different combinations of circumstances, and related without any methodical discrimination of time and place. But the present work contains every particular of the four evangelical histories, formed into one clear, consistent, and continued narrative, according to the order of time when, and the place where, the several events of our Lord's life happened, his miracles were wrought, and his discourses were delivered. Those who have little leisure to peruse many religious books, will accordingly, in these volumes, find every theological truth recommended which is necessary to be known, and every moral duty impressed which is necessary to be practised; and, in short, they will, I trust, have a faithful and a cheering Guide to Immortality."

These are large and high-sounding promises, and if realized, will entitle the author to universal attention, and universal gratitude: and, though impartiality obliges us to confess that in our apprehension the performance falls short of the great end here proposed to be attained—much important truth is communicated, and many momentous duties inculcated and enforced, in liberal comments upon the Christian code.

In conveying to our readers, as the duties of our office require, a fair ac-

count of the work now before us, we shall consider it in the order naturally pointed out,—1. The arrangement of the texts. 2. The alterations made in the version. 3. The notes subjoined to the text.

It has ever been a favourite employment, during those times in which attention has been paid to the sacred writings, to attempt to harmonize the accounts which the four evangelists have written of the life and conduct of their blessed master. As early as the second century this task was undertaken by Tatian of Syria and Theophilus of Antioch. Ammonius, supposed to have lived in the third century, also composed a Harmony of the four Gospels; and Eusebius, in the fourth, collected fragments of similar works, and formed some curious and valuable tables to exhibit the general agreement of the evangelical historians. Even in the dark ages, the attempt was still going on; and from 1474, when Ludolphus, the Carthusian monk, published at Strasburgh his "*Vita Jesu Christi, &c.*" to the year 1804, when Mr. Fellowes gave to the world his "*Guide to Immortality*," the learning and ingenuity of divines have been almost incessantly employed, without however attaining the object so earnestly desired. Several pages in Fabricius's *Biblioth. Gr.* are filled by a bare catalogue of harmonists, and even this is deficient.

Harmonies may be composed either by arranging in parallel columns the corresponding passages of the four evangelists; or by selecting from each such portions as may form one continued narrative. The latter mode has been adopted by Mr. Fellowes. This is the more convenient form for general readers; the former the more accurate and satisfactory to those who wish to have an opportunity of judging for themselves. The gospel history thus selected is divided by Mr. Fellowes, after archbishop Newcome, into seven portions. The first contains all the little that is related by the four evangelists, previous to the baptism of Jesus. The second relates the transactions of about six months from the baptism till the beginning of the ensuing passover. The third the transactions of twelve months, from the beginning of the first passover. The fourth comprehends another year. The fifth reaches from the third to the fourth passover. The sixth contains the transactions of three days, from the day on which the fourth passover was killed to

the end of the day before the resurrection; and the seventh comprizes the history of 40 days, from the day of resurrection to that of the ascension.

From this it is evident that Mr. Fellowes adopts the hypothesis, which supposes, that the ministry of Christ lasted about three years and a half. The arrangement of events will be approved by those who adopt the same principles, but lies open to many strong objections on the part of those who, perhaps, with more consistency limit the public life of Christ within a shorter portion of time. With respect to the order of the events on the day of the resurrection, Mr. Fellowes approaches very nearly to what we are disposed to think the true arrangement, and, as he lays some stress upon this part of his work, we shall give his own account of what he deems the succession of those interesting occurrences.

"We first read that the sepulchre was visited very early in the morning, probably between three and four o'clock, by Mary Magdalene, Mary the mother of James, Joanna, Salome, and some other women in their company. Coming to the tomb, and not finding the body as they expected, Mary Magdalene hastens back to Jerusalem with this perplexing intelligence, which she communicates to Peter and to John. After Mary Magdalene's departure, Joanna, Salome, and the other women, who staid behind, retired into the interior of the sepulchre; where they saw two angels, who informed them that Jesus was risen from the dead; and they immediately returned to Jerusalem, in order to make known this agreeable intelligence. The sepulchre is next visited by Peter and John, owing to the information which they had received from Mary Magdalene, that the body was taken away. The two disciples successively enter the sepulchre, astonished at the orderly disposition of the linen bandages, &c.; and they leave it, convinced that the body had been removed, but not in the least suspecting that Jesus had risen from the dead. Before they depart, they are joined by Mary Magdalene, who had returned alone to revisit the tomb, where the apostles leave her weeping, reluctant to quit the spot where her Lord had laid. When Peter and John had gone away, Mary Magdalene, stooping down to look into the chamber where the body had been laid, sees two angels; and turning back in haste, has a view of Jesus himself standing at the door without the tomb; and who gradually makes himself known to her, in order to lessen her alarm at seeing a person living, whom she had so lately beheld dead. Mary instantly carries to Jerusalem the account of her having seen the Lord, but without any credit being given to the reality of her assertions,

Jesus, after shewing himself to Mary, appears a second time, in another part of the garden, to the other Mary, Joanna, Salome, and their companions, who had come to revisit the tomb. After they had seen the angels in their first journey, and reported their message to the apostles, it was highly natural that they should return to the consecrated spot, probably expecting to behold either Jesus himself, or to receive some farther miraculous communications. These several accounts of the evangelists, as far as we have proceeded, seem clear, consistent, and satisfactory; and if there be any shade of obscurity in their different relations, it certainly arises more from the studied compression of the narrative, than from any actual discrepance or incongruity; and which, I think, on mature reflection, will be found to furnish an argument of no small weight for the truth of their statements, and for the reality of that most important fact, the great corner-stone of our most holy religion, the resurrection of Jesus from the dead."

"Circumstances (as we are informed, incidentally, in the preface) which, if they were related, would powerfully appeal to the sympathy of the reader," would not permit Mr. Fellowes to bestow a large portion of time upon the *translation*. Many corrections and improvements however do occur derived chiefly from "the highly meritorious and useful labours of Wakefield, Symonds, and Newcome; men whose erudition, sagacity; and good sense will long endear their names to every lover of the scriptures."

Mr. Fellowes is also under very great and numerous obligations to the invaluable lexicon of Schleusner.

As this part of the work contains a very small portion of original matter, we shall pass on to the next.

"In the notes, which will be found very copious, I have endeavoured to the best of my ability to unravel what was intricate, and to elucidate what was obscure; and, though they are detached and isolated, as notes must necessarily be, yet they will, I trust, be found to harmonize in unity of intention, to explain and to enforce the great essentials of religion. In discharging the duty of a commentator, I have derived much assistance from the labours of my predecessors, particularly of Grotius and Rosenmüller, from which I have transferred to my purpose many learned and judicious observations; but I have never copied their opinions, nor the opinions of any other writers, without having first exposed them to a rigorous examination, and separated, as far as I was able, the sound from the specious, the apposite from the extraneous, and the weighty from the frivolous. Philological discussion

and learned quotations I have for the most part studiously endeavoured to avoid, that I might render these pages better adapted to a general circulation, and more acceptable to readers of both sexes. On the moral precepts of Christ I have largely expatiated; and this I was prompted to do, that I might, from his own words at the top of the page, more clearly shew the true spirit and genius of the Christian doctrine. Seriously impressed with the necessity of cherishing myself, and of inducing others to cherish, that charity of sentiment, which is without any sectarian exceptions or unscriptural limitations, I have inculcated no tenets as important, but those of which Jesus expressly affirmed the importance; and I believe that no doctrine will be found supported in these pages, which is not beyond all controversy authorized by the scriptures."

The notes do, indeed, constitute the principal part of the work, for the sake of which we are inclined to believe the Guide was undertaken. Many of them are valuable, and deserving of attention; some might, without injury to the work, or loss to the public, have been repressed; others are written with too much haste; and some are deficient in sound and accurate criticism. We shall subjoin a few specimens.

In the text of John i. Mr. Fellowes does not translate the term *Logos*. The question concerning the proper rendering he thinks intricate and obscure, and he retains the original word, in order that every reader may be at liberty to annex whatever interpretation he may think best. Of his own opinion however he has not left us in ignorance. The great object of John, in this preface to his gospel, was, as he supposes, "to confute the erroneous notions of those, who, following the philosophy of Plato, enlarged with innumerable absurdities by the speculative Jew of Alexandria, were endeavouring to divide the unity of the god-head, attributing the creation of the world, and all the active energies of omnipotence to a spirit whom they called the *Logos*, while they reduced the Father to a mere passive *Eus*, or being, absorbed in his own essence, and fixed in perpetual inactivity."

"Some have imagined that the *Logos* supplied the place of a human soul in the body of Jesus: but Lardner, in his Essay on the *Logos*, has proved this supposition to be equally contrary to scripture and to reason, with the utmost fairness of inference, and with irresistible cogency of argument. And a few plain and simple observations are sufficient to overthrow the whole hypothe-

is. If that Logos, that Divine Wisdom, or Supreme Mind, by which the whole world was made, and without which not any thing was made that was made, did supply the place of a human soul in the person of Christ,—how could Christ, who, according to this supposition, had made all things, have been tempted by the offer of only a most minute and insignificant portion of the things, which he himself had made? How could he who had made all things, both perishable and imperishable, have been incited to distrust, by the suggestions of a fiend, or have felt any desire to convert a stone into a loaf, when he could instantly have created a loaf, without transmuting the matter of a stone? and what necessity could there have been for angels to minister to the protection or the comfort of Him who had made both men and angels? If some of the most hardy veterans in the Stoic school, who possessed only a scanty portion of intellectual strength, could so far subdue the infirmities of their nature, as to endure, without a murmur or a groan, hunger and thirst, and all the sad varieties of corporeal suffering,—surely Jesus, if, instead of a human soul, his body had been inhabited by that Logos, or spirit, who is boundless as space, and endless as eternity, must necessarily have been incapable of suffering; and such a supposition, therefore, would destroy the whole force of his example. For an example supposes a like nature, and a capacity to imitate it. A being, who was not subject to the same infirmities, and liable to the same temptations that we are, would not be proposed as a proper pattern of our conduct; for, we could have no power to imitate such a being, while our nature continued so different from his. But we know that Jesus was as one of us, that he felt pain and grief, and hunger and thirst, and all the innocent infirmities of the human nature, and that he was compassed with temptations, like as we are, though without sin. And hence we believe that Jesus was a perfect or sinless man, with a human soul; exquisitely sensible to all the wants and sorrows of humanity; and consequently fit to be our high priest and intercessor at God's right hand, because he may be touched with the feeling of our infirmities; and whose conduct is proposed for our imitation, because we are capable of conforming our conduct to his example. It seems therefore a certain fact, that Christ had a human soul; and I agree with Grotius, and the two excellent archbishops, Tillotson and Newcome, in thinking that "THE DIVINE WISDOM COMMUNICATED ITSELF TO CHRIST'S HUMAN SOUL, ACCORDING TO HIS PLEASURE, AND AS CIRCUMSTANCES REQUIRED."

Throughout the notes upon this much controverted passage, Mr. Fellowes has followed the modern unitarian hypothesis. We reviewed a work in our first volume, in which the old Socinian interpretation,

first suggested by the Polish brethren, was ably supported, with many original thoughts, and much acute criticism. Modern unitarians would do well to examine with greater accuracy, whether the evangelist really had the Platonists in view, or whether there be not some characteristic marks in his gospel, perfectly unconnected with the absurdities of Platonism, and with which the exordium harmonises.

In a very long note, too long to be transferred to our page, upon the phrase "so that it was fulfilled," Mr. Fellowes peremptorily decides against the *double sense* of prophecy. In this he is supported by Grotius and Rosenmüller.

A note upon the subject of Christ's temptation occupies nearly eleven pages. The object of it is to explain and justify an opinion which he has adopted from Rosenmüller, "That he who is said to have tempted our Lord, and to whom the name of the *Devil* is given, was some crafty and wicked miscreant, some designing and factious man, who wished to seduce Jesus from the path of duty; and probably to render him subservient to his own ambitious projects and interested views."

Upon the words "God giveth not the spirit by measure unto him," Mr. Fellowes observes,

"The spirit of knowledge, of power and goodness; or perhaps, the word spirit here may mean the understanding of the divine will, with which Jesus Christ was more fully acquainted than any of the prophets; and which he has more clearly revealed. Christianity is a revelation of the will of God to mankind; and consequently it is nothing more than a rule of life; or a mode of living according to God's will, declared to us by the Son of God."

This is ambiguous if not defective.

Throughout these notes, wherever an opportunity occurs, Mr. Fellowes inveighs against the rigid observance of the sabbath. His notions upon this subject may be seen in the following note.

"Our Lord appears to have wrought more miracles on the sabbath, and amid a greater concourse of spectators, than on any other day; and this he evidently did to teach us that a superstitious adherence to the letter of the commandment ("Thou shalt do no manner of work, &c.") was not designed by the wise author of this most benevolent institution; and that we cannot keep the sabbath-day so holy, by any other means, as by devoting it to the service of humanity; to the physical and moral good of our fellow-

creatures. In the course of this work I shall frequently have occasion to repeat this remark, and which I think necessary in order to counteract that tendency, which is observable among a large mass of people, to keep the sabbath with the same ceremonial precision and hypocritical austerity, with which it was observed by the Pharisees in the time of our Lord. But the Christian's sabbath cannot be kept holy in the way in which it was kept by the founders of Christianity, unless it be consecrated by acts of charity, as much as, or even more, than the exercise of devotion. And one of the greatest acts of charity which we can do to our suffering fellow-creatures on that day, and particularly to those among them who, during the other six days of the week, are employed in manual toil, is to teach them so to divide their time on the sabbath, as to *combine moral improvement with innocent recreation.*"

The spirit of a very considerable portion of these notes may be learnt from the remarks which he has ventured to make upon the words—"Not every one that saith unto me, Lord! Lord! shall enter into the kingdom of heaven."

"Not every one who professes my religion shall inherit future happiness, but only he who does the will of God, as far as he has had an opportunity of knowing it; and our Lord proceeds to teach us that even some of those who, in the apostolic age, had performed miracles, would, at the last day, be condemned because they had worked iniquity. And hence we learn that nothing, not even the knowledge of the deepest mysteries, nor the power of removing mountains, can atone for the defect of a *good moral life*; and consequently that *a good moral life is the only indispensable condition of salvation*; without which no man is a true christian; and, with which, every man, in every nation under heaven, will at that solemn hour, when the whole world is judged in righteousness, be accepted by our Lord as one of his disciples, though he had never even heard of his religion; and consequently never had an opportunity of being baptized into its profession, or becoming acquainted with its evidences. This remark may serve to obviate that startling interrogatory of the sceptic: "If the knowledge of the Christian religion be so necessary to salvation, why is it confined within such narrow boundaries, or concealed from so large a portion of the peopled world?" I answer, on the authority of St. Paul, Rom. ii. 6—16, that all those persons, who have not been made acquainted with the Christian revelation, whether they lived before or since the Christian æra, will, at the day of judgment, be partakers of that state of eternal happiness, of which Christ came to give us the assurance, if they have observed the rule of right in proportion as they have had an opportunity of knowing it; or in other words,

if they have endeavoured to do the will of God as far as they were able to discover it by the deductions of reason and the light of nature. I answer, that such persons will stand a better chance of salvation than those Christians, who, with superior knowledge, lead worse lives; who, with the most perfect rules, as well as the most perfect example of moral duty before their eyes, in the writings of the evangelists, persist in all manner of unrighteousness. (See Luke xii. 47—48. John ix. 41.) A moral Heathen is, if I may so express it, a Christian without baptism; but an immoral Christian is a Heathen with it."

In the doctrine of the atonement, Mr. Fellowes appears to be no believer, as may be seen in the following annotations upon the words: "For this my father loved me, &c." John x. 17.

"Jesus here expressly mentions, that he enjoyeth the love and favour of his Father, because he made a *voluntary* surrender of his life for the benefit of mankind. If the death of Christ had been an *involuntary* act, to which he had been *irresistibly compelled* to submit by the violence of mankind, if it had proceeded rather from compulsion than from choice, it would not have tended so forcibly to conciliate the love of the Father. Nor would Christ have said, "*For this my Father loveth me, because I lay down my life,*" &c. But it was this *voluntary and unforced act of benevolence to mankind which rendered it so acceptable to the Father*; who only loveth a cheerful giver; and who accepteth not that charity, however extensive it may be in its effects, which is not the offering of the will and the affections. It was the unspeakable benevolence, the free and unforced love of his Son, in submitting to a death so painful and excruciating, which rendered it a sweet-smelling sacrifice. And to shew how voluntary, and how unconstrained his death was, how much it was the unbought sacrifice of his will and of his heart, our Lord uses these plain and forcible expressions: *NONE TAKETH IT (MY LIFE) FROM ME; BUT I LAY IT DOWN OF MYSELF.* The death of Christ was voluntary; *it originated in his own free choice to die, that he might rise again from death; and bring life and immortality to light.* For, why did Christ lay down his life? His own words will supply the fittest answer; *that he might take it again.* Hence we see that *Christ viewed his own death specially and pre-eminently as preparatory to his resurrection.* He did not die therefore, as many Christians vainly suppose, in order to appease an angry God; or to make a penal satisfaction to the vengeance of the Father for the sins of his children; but simply and solely, that he might rise again from the dead; and that, by thus rising again, he might give mankind the certain assurance of a life after death, and of a state of happiness beyond the grave. Well then may the Christian exclaim, O death!

where is thy sting? and O grave! where is thy victory? The death of Christ may be considered in other secondary lights; as a voluntary attestation of the truth of the doctrine which he preached; and as affording an example of patience and resignation under the most excruciating agonies; but we ought primarily, to regard it as intended to pave the way to his resurrection; and for this his Father loved him: because his love for mankind was so great, that he voluntarily submitted to the most cruel and ignominious death, that he might convince the world that death had no dominion over him; and that it could have none over his disciples; who, instead of being laid for ever in the mouldering grave, would rise again from death, and so where he had gone before them. He laid down his life that he might take it again. These are the words of Christ himself; and they should be written over our altars, to prevent us from entertaining any false and mischievous notions on his death and sufferings; such notions, as by making us think that that death and those sufferings were intended as a penal satisfaction for our personal transgressions, tend to relax the hold of morality on our consciences; and to make us do evil with greediness, because we vainly imagine we may do it with impunity. O Christians! be not the slaves of such dangerous errors; entertain right and rational ideas on the death of Christ, and such as Christ himself approved; and instead of regarding his death as a penal sacrifice, rather learn to contemplate it as one of the most efficient and most animating incentives to righteousness."

We have thought it proper and indeed incumbent upon us, to make these extracts, that our readers might see upon

what principles the "Guide to Immortality" is written. Whether the opinions inculcated in the notes be justified or not, by the text to which they are subjoined, we leave our readers to determine for themselves. Our province is to convey as fair and impartial a view as is in our power of the works which come before us, and not to controvert the opinions they may contain. But without transgressing these bounds of our province, we may, we hope, be allowed to express our surprise, that such principles should proceed from one who ministers in sacred things in an establishment, the creed and service of which inculcate opinions in almost every respect the reverse of these, and to which all opposition is strictly forbidden upon pain of the severest penalties. Mr. Fellowes has been aware of the inconsistency that might possibly be charged against him, and has endeavoured to justify himself. In doing this he takes the ground to which many other reputedly heterodox ministers of the establishment have resorted; a ground which we think not tenable, if the declaration prefixed to the thirty-nine articles be considered as having any force or meaning. But we have no inclination, nor indeed is it strictly our province, to enter upon an examination of Mr. Fellowes's conduct in this respect. We believe that he satisfies his own conscience; and we recollect that an apostle has affirmed, "that to his own master every one standeth or falleth."

SACRED CRITICISM.

ART. III. *Memoirs of the Life and Writings of the late Reverend and Learned HUGH FARMER. To which is added, a Piece of his never before published; printed from the only remaining Manuscript of the Author. Also, several Original Letters, and an Extract from his Essay on the Case of Balaam. Taken from his MS. since destroyed, by the late MICHAEL DODSON, Esq. 8vo. pp. 159.*

THE late Mr. Farmer was for a long time a very eminent dissenting minister in the neighbourhood of London, and deservedly celebrated as an ingenious and learned writer upon some subjects of considerable importance to the Christian faith. He was descended from a respectable family in North Wales, and born in the neighbourhood of Shrewsbury. His academical studies were pursued under the direction of Dr. Doddridge, who had the satisfaction of receiving him as one of his first pupils. Upon leaving Northampton, the seat of the seminary over which Dr. Doddridge, with

so much usefulness, and with such well-earned honour, presided, Mr. Farmer went to Market Harborough, in the county of Leicester, and after no long residence there, accepted the invitation of Mr. Coward, a rich dissenting merchant, residing at Walthamstow, to become his chaplain. In his house he lived for some time, till "the oddities of that gentleman's character obliged him to leave it." He was received with cordiality by Mr. Snell, a neighbour of Mr. Coward's, a solicitor in the court of Chancery, and a gentleman of a most amiable temper. Here he remained till the death of Mrs.

Snell, whose last days of widowhood were rendered happy by the society of so cheerful, kind and pious an inmate!"

"There was only one circumstance," observes Mr. Farmer's biographer, "attending his situation in this family which, after the decease of his worthy friends, was the cause of any regret; which was, that the pleasing accommodation which he had met with in this hospitable abode, free from every domestic care, was the principal occasion of his remaining all his days in a state of celibacy; the evil of which towards the close of life, when he was left alone, and the cares of a household establishment devolved upon him, he severely felt, and sometimes, with an air of pleasantry, lamented to his friends; at the same time cautioning those of them in the early period of life, against the like inconveniences. When visiting some of his acquaintance, with whom a younger minister boarded, he would sometimes say, in his jocular manner, "Don't use him too well: treat him roughly, that he may not be tempted to follow my example." Though this anecdote may appear trivial, and cause a smile, the subject is serious, and is capable of a very valuable improvement. The conjugal state, if entered into with prudence, is doubtless of all others the happiest, and many in the decline of life have had cause for bitter regret that they missed the favourable opportunity for enjoying it."

In this peaceful dwelling, free from all domestic cares, he pursued the inquiries belonging to the profession to which he had devoted himself; and the result he gave in the following order: in the year 1761. he published "An Inquiry into the Nature and Design of Christ's Temptation in the Wilderness;" and in 1764, appeared an "Appendix to the Inquiry." This work passed through three editions. In 1771 he published "A Dissertation on Miracles;" a work which will convey the fame of the author to a distant age. "An Essay on the Demoniacs of the New Testament," intended "to prove that the persons said to be possessed of demons, were not usually under the influence of evil spirits, but afflicted only with such bodily disorders as had been commonly ascribed to such influence," was given to the public in the year 1775. In defence of this he printed, in 1778, "Letters to Dr. Worthington," who had attacked it with great violence; and in 1783, appeared his last work, entitled, "The general Prevalence of the Worship of Human Spirits in ancient Heathen Nations, asserted and proved." These, with "A Sermon," published in early life, constitute the whole of Mr. Farmer's works. Previous to his death,

however, which happened on February 5, 1787, he had prepared for the press "A second volume on the Demonology of the Ancients," and "A Dissertation on the Story of Balaam." These it was supposed had, in compliance with the strict and peremptory injunctions of his will, been committed to the flames, by his "overscrupulous executors;" with all the other valuable papers which had been the result of a long and studious life. They have, however, denied the fact; and there is reason to suppose that the author himself had destroyed them.

Knowing the conditions of his will, we were surprised when it was announced that some of Mr. Farmer's papers, not hitherto published, were about to be presented to the world; and we were anxious to learn by what means the injunctions of the will had been avoided, and indulged sanguine expectations of being pleased and instructed by the promised publication. But we no sooner perused the book before us, than we felt the severest disappointment, and exclaimed with Horace, *Quid dignum tanto, &c.*

Sixty-four pages of this little volume are employed in biographical memoirs, from which scarcely any thing more is learned, than had been before communicated by Dr. Kippis in the *Biographia Britannica*. This is followed by a few remarks on some passages in Mr. Fell's letter to Mr. Farmer, entitled, "The Idolatry of Greece and Rome, distinguished from that of other Nations." These were drawn up by Mr. Farmer, and a short time before his death were put into the hands of a friend, Mr. S. Palmer, the present editor, with a desire that he would publish them in whatever form he pleased. Mr. Palmer, therefore, certainly had a right to print them after Mr. Farmer had ordered all his papers to be destroyed. But they come too late to excite any interest. In justice to Mr. Farmer, the editor should have published them nearer to the time in which the question to which they relate was agitated; and not have suffered any private considerations respecting his personal connection with Mr. Fell, to prevent the performance of a duty which he owed to his departed friend. Mr. Farmer ought to have been immediately vindicated, and the gross misrepresentation of Mr. Fell exposed.

The next paper is, "A Fragment of Mr. Farmer's MS. Treatise on the History of Balaam." This was obtained

from the widow of the late Mr. Dodson, who had transcribed it from the MS. lent to him by Mr. Farmer. The publication of this we cannot but regard as an act of great injustice to the author's memory. It is, indeed, a mere fragment from which little can be learned; it is a fragment of a work too, which it appears Mr. Farmer had with his own hands destroyed, to prevent its appearance before the public. Had he left the whole treatise in a finished condition, his executors would not have been highly blameable, in the peculiar circumstances in which

they were placed, had they chosen to gratify the curiosity of those who knew and admired Mr. Farmer's writings: but now, after all curiosity had long ceased, the editor cannot, we think, hold himself justified in bringing to light a mutilated part of what, even in a perfect state, the author did not wish the world to see.

The volume concludes with a short account of Mr. Hugh Owen, drawn up by his grandson, Mr. H. Farmer, and a very few letters from Mr. Farmer to Mr. Toms, which exhibit the writer as "a good man and a pious pastor."

ART. IV. *An Attempt to rescue the Holy Scriptures from the Ridicule they incur, with the Inconsiderate, occasioned by incorrect Translations; their Misapplication to certain Doctrines, &c. by a new Translation of the various controverted Passages, arranged as they occur in the Old and New Testaments. Illustrated with Notes, critical, philosophical and entertaining; and prefaced by a copious Introduction, historical and elucidatory; including the Opinions of the Ancients on several important disputed Points, which manifest the Necessity of a Divine Revelation.* By ROBERT TOMLINSON, Esq. 8vo. pp. 391.

MR. Tomlinson, the author of this long preface, and of the curious work which it ushers into the world, is we believe a very good man, who knows something of Hebrew, and something of Greek; and a great deal of Hutchinsonianism; who is very angry with Deists, Arians, and Socinians, and very laudably desirous of their conversion.

Rightly judging that all the objections which infidelity urges against the volume of holy writ, arise from a want of better information concerning the genuine meaning of those sacred records, and that all the heresies which abound in the Christian world are built upon misconception of scripture language, our author has adventured to remove objections, and by new translations, and the addition of learned comments, to confound the adversaries of reputed orthodoxy. But previous to this very praiseworthy attempt, we are favoured with a general preface of twenty pages, an introduction of no less length than seventy-seven, and an apologetic preface of twenty more. In these prologues, we have an abundance of old, interspersed with a small portion of new matter. That the antients knew much of science, but very little of religion; that they had some notion of the being and perfection of one supreme God, but no notion of the Hutchinsonian Jehovah Aleim; that Theodosius was an atheist, and Epaminondas a brave Theban general; that Simonides was puzzled with Hiero's question; and Canute the great reprov-

ed the flattery of his courtiers, are things well known, and, we believe, generally acknowledged; but it was for Mr. Tomlinson to discover, that anything deserving the name of chymistry was known by the Egyptians, several hundred years prior to its being known in Europe; that the whole city of pagan Rome was devout; that our Henry V. was a "pious king;" and that Henry IV. of France was truly excellent, either in his "faith" or "practice." But notwithstanding these, and many other similar inconsistencies, many thoughts occur, often strangely expressed indeed, but deserving of consideration from those who deny the value of the sacred writings, and discovering much piety in the author.

Of the execution of the principal part of this work, we shall let our readers judge for themselves, from one or two short specimens.

Gen. ch. iv. v. 1.

"1. And Adam knew Eve, his wife, and she conceived and bare Cain, and said, קיתי איש את־יהוה I have gotten a person of the very Jehovah.

"OBSERVATIONS.

"Does not this text lead us, naturally, to conclude, that God preached to Adam and Eve, before he expelled them from Paradise? (Or, perhaps, when he was pleased to explain the meaning of the cherubim to them) that a person in Jehovah was to become incarnate; but, Eve not knowing when, and having brought forth a man-child, she would naturally utter the sentence under consideration,

with that earnest, eager joy, by which a man expresses himself when he has, with much pains and attention, accomplished or obtained something, that he most earnestly desired. Instance. When Themistocles, the Athenian admiral, deserted to the king of Persia, that king was so exceedingly elated, that "he would frequently cry out, (when he awaked from his sleep) Thank the gods! I have gotten Themistocles the Athenian." So Eve, in a rapturous transport of joy. Kanithi ish eth—Jehovah. I have gotten a person of the very Jehovah! And why this extatic joy? Because she had experienced a state of holiness, and had also felt somewhat of the bitter evil and the baneful consequences of sin. She therefore longed for that promised Deliverer, who was to come from her seed, that should bruise the serpent's head; destroy sin, and him who had the power of it, that is, the devil." Heb. ii. 14. And as she was first called חַוָּה, a woman; she longed to experience the fulfilment of her new name יְהוָה, Chavah, the manifestor, and, that she should behold "God manifest in the flesh," i. Tim. iii. 16. to take away her sins, to redeem her from all iniquity, and that she might be created anew in righteousness and true holiness; and be thereby enabled to live "to the praise and glory of his grace." Ephes. i. 6.

Gen. iv. 9.

"So it was at the end of days that Cain brought of the fruit of the ground a *mincha* to Jehovah."

Gen. iv. 4.

"So did Abel: moreover he caused to be brought of the firstlings of his flock, and of their fat; therefore Jehovah had respect to Abel, and to his *minchas* he had respect."

Nearly thirty pages are occupied in endeavouring to prove that the term *mincha* when used in relation to the Supreme Being, means not *to repent*, but *to appease*, *to pacify*, or *to console*. And Mr. Tomlinson thus insinuates, Gen. vi. 6, 7. "Nevertheless, Jehovah *was consoled* for having made man on the earth, though he had idolized himself in his heart. And though Jehovah hath said, I will sweep every man whom I have created, from the face of the ground; from man unto beast, beside the reptile, and moreover the fowl of the air: yet, *I am appeased for I have made them.*"

Such are the labours which are to *rescue the Holy Scriptures from the ridicule they incur with the inconsiderate, occasioned by their incorrect translations!*

Before we dismiss this article, we think it right to observe, that Mr. Tomlinson has been guilty of a very gross and injurious error, in confounding (page 317) Dr. Toulmin, the author of the Treatise on the Eternity of the World, who has been long dead, with Dr. Toulmin, a professed believer in revelation, and a dissenting minister in Birmingham.

ART. V. *An Antidote to Infidelity, opposed to the anti-christian Strictures of Mr. Gibbon. Containing Expositions on the Prophecies of our Saviour, on Matthew xxiv. Mark xiii. and Luke xxi.; with other interesting Disquisitions to similar Effect, carefully selected, and enlarged with some original Remarks. By a LOVER OF DIVINE TRUTH.* 8vo. pp. 162.

THE prophetic language in which our Saviour denounced the impending destruction of Jerusalem, has in every age been misunderstood by many zealous friends of the gospel, and abused by its professed and determined enemies. The compiler of this work has experienced in his own mind "the distressful impression of those injurious cavils," which infidelity is fond of raising from this part of the Christian scriptures, but having been, happily, restored to a sounder judgment, and taught the real import of passages by which his faith had been once so evidently disturbed, "he has felt himself under some claim of duty to offer, even to the strong bul-

warks of the church, his mite of compilation." He has therefore selected from Doddridge, Gill, Whitby, the present bishop of London, Mr. Kett, Mr. Nisbett, and others, such passages as tend to illustrate the chapters mentioned in the title, and to indicate the divine origin of the Christian faith. This humble performance proceeds therefore from the most laudable motives, and may be of use in pointing out to such as may labour under the delusion from which the compiler has been rescued, those sources of rational interpretation whence may be derived a satisfactory and complete resolution of all their difficulties and doubts,

III. EVIDENCES OF NATURAL AND REVEALED RELIGION.

ART. VI. *Discourses on theological and literary Subjects. By the late Rev. ARCHIBALD ARTHUR, M. A. Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Glasgow. With an Account of some Particulars in his Life and Character, by WILLIAM RICHARDSON, M. A. Professor of Humanity in the University of Glasgow.* 8vo. pp. 523.

THE author of these discourses was during fifteen years assistant to Dr. Reid in teaching the class of moral philosophy at Glasgow; and upon the death of that celebrated professor was appointed his successor. This honour he enjoyed during only one session, being removed by death in the year succeeding to that of his appointment.

The discourses contained in this volume were not, the editor informs us, "intended by the author to be published as they now appear. With the exception of three or four, none of them seem to have been written over by him twice." We are not therefore surprised that the editor undertook the office of selecting from Mr. Arthur's papers such as might do honour to his memory, with much reluctance, and that the execution of that office occasioned much anxiety and trouble. To choose for the public eye what may be most deserving of its regard, from papers which were never designed by their writer for public inspection, is a difficult and hazardous undertaking; and the hand of friendship will tremble as it draws forth from the obscurity in which they were designed to repose, the productions which are to affect the reputation of departed excellence. The critic too, if he possess any proper feeling, will proceed through the pages of a posthumous work, destined by the author to oblivion, with great caution; and if he find little to commend, will pass over in silence what, but for its orphan state, he would have felt himself called upon to censure and condemn. He will consider that by an injudicious publication of the *scriniorum quæquæ* upon which the author would not have risked a particle of his fame, the editor has already performed the least pleasing part of the critic's duty, and exposed the imperfections which it became him to conceal.

We do not mean these observations to be applied in all their force to the publication now before us. It is upon the whole respectable, but is certainly not adequate to the character which Mr. Arthur just-

ly bore in the university to which he belonged. He was not a common-place man; and if little else than common-place productions of his pen were to be found, the duty of friendship would have been better performed by not bringing them into the world. It is impossible that so large a volume, comprising the result of the investigations of a studious and intelligent mind, though published under the most unfavourable circumstances, should not contain something that is ingenious and instructive; our only regret is that the general character of the volume does not accurately correspond with what we have heard from able and impartial judges of the author's talents.

The work is divided into two parts, according to the different nature of the subjects upon which the papers are written. The first part, consisting of theological discourses, is that with which we are principally concerned. These discourses are five in number. 1. On the Argument for the Existence of God, from the Appearance of Design in the Universe. 2. Observations by Mr. Hume on the Existence of God considered. 3. The Goodness of God defended from the Objections of Mr. Hume. 4. On the Justice and moral Government of God. 5. Of Evils and their Causes, and of the Systems respecting them. In these we meet with nothing new or striking; but for the satisfaction of our readers we shall subjoin a specimen of the author's manner. In defending the goodness of God, against Mr. Hume, Mr. Arthur has observed—

"It has already been remarked, with regard to individuals, that if any man make an inquiry among all those with whom he is acquainted, he will find that the generality of them have much more happiness than misery. But the observation of particular persons reaches only to a small extent. The question still occurs, Is the remark to be received as generally applicable to all the inhabitants of this world?

"I believe it will be found, that the application may be made very universally. What are

those events which we hear of with wonder and astonishment, that rouse our curiosity and alarm our passions? Are they those things which are most common, and most correspondent to our own observation and experience? or are they those events which are strange and uncommon? The answer is evident. We pass by those things which are common without observing them; and we hear of ordinary events without emotion, and even without paying attention to them. Those events only, which are uncommon and unexpected, attract our notice and rouse our attention. What, then, are those things which we enquire after with eagerness, and are interested in when we become acquainted with them? Not, surely, with hearing that men in a certain country are living in peace, enjoying the comforts of domestic life, and regulated without disturbance by wholesome laws. If we heard such an account of any country, we would disregard it; and when we observe things going on in the same order among ourselves, we say we have no news. What, then, is it which we consider as news? It is strange and unusual appearances which we listen to with attention, such as earthquakes, famine, pestilence, war, devastation, and the commission of enormous crimes. Since we consider such appearances as novelties, and wonder at them as things strange, it is evident that they are not the common accidents of human life. They are events that rarely happen, and therefore they strike us with astonishment and wonder when they do happen. In the same manner, it may be asked, what are the events which history records? Is it the peaceful transactions of civil life, the regular distribution of equity and justice, the progress and improvement of the arts of peace? No; such a history would never be read. The events which history records, are wars and bloodshed, the dissensions of princes, and the downfall of empires. The transactions that have happened during fifty years of profound peace, are passed over in a single sentence, which only forms a transition to a new scene of misery and carnage, which is described in all its particulars with whatever colouring the skill of the historian can bestow upon it. History, then, does not relate the ordinary transactions of human life. It relates only those events which are uncommon and striking. It is for the most part a register of evils. But this is a proof that misery is not the ordinary, but the uncommon state of mankind. If calamity were the common situation of the human race, and happiness were acciden-

tal, it would only be the short intervals of happiness that would fill the chronicles of past ages; but since the contrary is the fact, the conclusion is, that the quantity of happiness in the world has always surpassed that of misery."

The second part consists chiefly of such literary discourses as were read in the literary society, at their weekly meetings in Glasgow college. 1. On Qualities of inanimated Objects which excite agreeable Sensations. 2. Concerning Mr. Burke's Theory of Beauty. 3. Concerning Dr. Hutcheson's Theory of Beauty. 4. Remarks upon the Sensations occasioned by grand and terrible Objects. 5. Concerning Novelty, considered as an Object of Taste. 6. Remarks on some Objects of Taste that seem not reducible to Beauty, Grandeur, or Novelty. 7. Concerning the Influence of Custom upon our Judgments in Matters of Taste. 8. On the Arrangement of ancient and modern Languages. 9. On the Causes that have promoted or retarded the Growth of the fine Arts. (These two were formerly printed in a collection of essays published at Edinburgh by the late reverend Mr. Chapman, minister of Kinfauns.) 10. Concerning the Study of the ancient Languages, as a necessary Branch of a liberal Education. 11. On the Importance of natural Philosophy. (This essay gained the prize given by the society of masters of arts in Glasgow college, at an early period of the author's life.) 12. On Sensibility. 13. Concerning the Effects of critical Knowledge in the Advancement of the fine Arts: and 14. Observations on the Punishment of Crimes: a Letter.—

Many ingenious remarks are scattered through these papers; of which the last perhaps is the best. Mr. Arthur was thought to excel in his lectures on jurisprudence; and in the letter here republished, we have a very favourable specimen of his knowledge, and of his principles, in that important branch of science. Many of our readers have, it is probable, already seen it, in the "Anecdotes of the Russian Empire," by the editor of this volume.

ART. VII. *The Authenticity, uncorrupted Preservation, and Credibility of the New Testament.* By GODFREY LESS, late Professor in the University of Gottingen, &c. Translated from the last Edition of the German, by ROGER KINGDON, A. M. of St. John's College Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 396.

THAT English divines may be induced to pay a greater attention to modern German theology is not the least advantage that seems likely to arise

from the labours of the learned translator of Michaelis. Whatever contradictory opinions may be entertained of the taste of German dramatic writers, there can be but one of the profound erudition of many German theologians. Excelling in the literature of the east, patient in the investigation of every subject that claims their regard, frequently not holding any ecclesiastical character, and thus less shackled in their inquiries, and less reserved in the exposition of the results, their writings cannot fail of being highly useful to every inquiring student in divinity. We consider Mr. Kingdon therefore as having performed an essential service to English readers, by transferring to their native language the work now before us: we regret only we have become acquainted with a part instead of with the whole of what is contained in the valuable original; and we beg leave to express our earnest wish that the circumstances to which he alludes will not long prevent the translator from completing his design of publishing in English the whole of Dr. Less's "*Geschichte der Religion*," or History of Religion, from the body of which the present work is taken.

This work is the result of laborious and severe inquiry, instituted by the author to resolve doubts upon the important subject of divine revelation, which he had, for several years, entertained. Upon his own mind the inquiry produced solid, rational, and satisfactory conviction; and the same desirable effect must, we imagine, be produced upon the minds of all who shall pay a proper attention to the information which is here collected within a very narrow compass.

This excellent treatise is divided into *two parts*. The *first part* treats of the authenticity of the New Testament: the second is employed upon the proofs of its credibility. There is a little inaccuracy in the use of the term, authenticity, here and in the body of the work. The author has not made a proper distinction between the authenticity and the genuineness of a book. The first part consists of three books. The first book treats of the internal evidence. In the second book the author discusses the external, or decisive evidence for the authenticity of the New Testament, that is, the positive testimony of witnesses in the three first centuries. This is perhaps the characteristic and the most important

part of the volume. The third book is devoted to the proof of the uncorrupted preservation of the New Testament.

The second part is divided into two books. In the *first* of these it is shewn that the authors of the christian scriptures possess in a very high degree all the requisite qualities of credible witnesses: and in the *second*, the wonderful establishment and propagation of christianity is enlarged upon as a most convincing proof of the entire credibility of the history of the New Testament, and of the religion which it establishes.

Such is the general outline of this very useful performance, in the filling up of which Dr. Less has thus proceeded:

"Every one," he observes (speaking of the internal evidences) "who has been much engaged with the writings of antiquity, its modes of thinking and manners, will instantly perceive, on reading the books of the New Testament, that they are not the works of an impostor, but that they were composed about the first century of the Roman monarchy; just as a connoisseur in the fine arts will immediately see whether a painting, a statue or a gem, be the production of antiquity, an original; or merely a copy, and of a modern age. In the scriptures of the New Testament there cannot be discovered the smallest trace of deceit or forgery. On the contrary, the character of the pretended times of their composition, and of their pretended authors is so deeply impressed on them, that a critic, by a mere perusal, will discover their authenticity."

Evidence of the most striking kind exists to prove that the writers were Jews; that they lived in the first century of the Roman monarchy; that they were immediate witnesses of what they related; that all, except one, were unlearned men. The scriptures of the New Testament are composed, as they must have been, if written at the period usually assigned to them, in Greek; but not in pure and elegant Greek; but with an abundant intermixture of Hebraic significations, phrases and constructions, which betray authors born and educated in the Jewish religion: the style is devoid of all cultivation, and exhibits the simplicity of unlearned men. There is besides a remarkable accuracy in the relation of many individual circumstances; and certain historical observations respecting the political and religious institutions of the world, point out incontestibly

the time when these books were written, and prove that it was the *first century of the Roman monarchy*. Our readers will readily perceive that these topics have all been handled before. Their value, as they appear in the present work, consists in the force which they acquire from compression.

The next inquiry, into the *external evidence* for the authenticity of the New Testament, is thus opened: "Notwithstanding what has been said above (viz. in the preceding book on the internal evidence), I confess that it is not absolutely impossible but that a man of very great talents and extensive learning might, as it were, absolutely forget himself, might, for a time, lay aside his natural modes of thinking and manners, and change himself into a perfectly different person. But the testimonies of the oldest and most credible writers place it beyond all doubt, that the books of our New Testament were written by the *pretended authors*, St. Matthew, St. Mark, St. Luke, St. John, St. Paul, St. Peter, St. James, and St. Jude, and at the *pretended times*. In this proof I shall quote such passages only, wherein these writers appeal either *by name*, or *expressly* to those books; and honestly confess the doubts which, to an impartial searcher after truth, will occur in this enquiry. I shall thus hinder the enemies of christianity from using that argument which Bolingbroke has brought against it; and if in this examination nothing be *overcharged*; but, on the contrary, if the love of truth, and the strictest severity of enquiry, be every where discoverable, additional weight, I trust, will be given to my proof." Page 27, 28.

Upon these principles the examination is conducted, and the result corresponds with the author's wishes.

The writers examined as witnesses in the first century, are the *apostolical fathers*; Barnabas; Clement of Rome; Hermas; Ignatius, and Polycarp. The evidence of Barnabas is rejected; and the epistle which goes under his name is declared not to be genuine. The second epistle of Clement, Dr. Less considers as a forgery; and from the first, which he esteems a va-

luable ancient document, "he dares not attempt to prove more, than that *our first Epistle to the Corinthians is authentic*." Hermas produces no testimony upon this important subject, because "we cannot discover in the Shepherd, a single scriptural book cited expressly and by name." Ignatius is "a clear evidence for the Epistle of Paul to the Ephesians; and that in his time existed a collection of evangelical and apostolical writings; we may also conclude from his epistle, with probability, that the Epistle to the Romans, and the first to the Corinthians, were at that period already written." Polycarp testifies the existence of several of Paul's Epistles, and perhaps of the first of Peter.

Dr. Less next inquires into the testimonies of works of the first century now lost. Eusebius has preserved that of Papias only, who furnishes irrefragable evidence for the Gospels of Matthew and Mark, first Epistle of Peter, and first of John.

After an introductory section concerning the state of christianity in the second and third centuries, the witnesses of the credibility of the books of the New Testament who belong to the second century are examined. These are, Justin Martyr; Tatian; Irenæus; Athenagoras; Theophilus of Antioch; Clement of Alexandria; and Tertullian. All these are of great importance, as they bear their testimony either individually or collectively to the genuineness of all the books of the New Testament. The article relating to Irenæus is curious, and will afford a good specimen of the manner in which this work is conducted.

Irenæus, bishop of Lyons, had not only lived very near the times of the apostles, but had enjoyed familiar intercourse with one of their immediate disciples and friends.* In his five books *Against Heresies* he delivers very ample and clear testimonies for the historical truth of the scriptures of the New Testament. He quotes *all the evangelists* often, and *by name*; relates the cause and design of their writings; and declares that there were *only four gospels*, viz.

* In the edition of his works by Massuet, very copious information is given concerning his life, opinions, and writings, in the prefixed *Dissertationes præv. ad Iren.* He left many works which are named by Eusebius and Jerom. But of these, if we except a few fragments, nothing is now remaining besides his *Libri V. adv. Hær.* Even these have not come down to us in the Greek original, but are extant only in an ancient Latin version. The authenticity of this work has been amply proved by C. R. Walch. See Rösler's *Ecclesiastical Fathers*, v. 264—270.

those of St. Matthew, St. Mark, St. Luke, and St. John, which were accounted genuine and divine books.* In opposition to the Valentinians, he proves, by many passages from the gospels of St. Matthew, St. Mark, St. Luke, and St. John, and also from the Acts of the Apostles by St. Luke, that there is but one God the creator and preserver of all things. To the writings of St. Paul he appeals yet more frequently. He proves his tenets against the heretics most commonly from St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans, the two Epistles to the Corinthians, the Epistles to the Galatians, Ephesians, Philippians, and Colossians, the two Epistles to the Thessalonians, those to Timothy, and the Epistle to Titus. He asserts in many places that these *twelve Epistles* were the *genuine and divine works of St. Paul*;† makes numerous and sometimes long extracts from them, evidently proving to every reader, that they are the very same, which we at this time possess in the New Testament.‡

In like manner he testifies also the authenticity of the *1st Epistle of St. Peter*; the *1st and 2nd Epistles of St. John*, and the *Revelations of the same Apostle*.

He asserts that these writings were divine, and the sure foundation of the Christian faith. What his opinion of the other books of the New Testament was, we cannot, from his silence, determine. He appears to have considered the Epistle to the Hebrews as neither the work of St. Paul, nor a divine book. This is a proof, that the first Christians were not so credulous as modern infidels represent them. Had they received all at random, without examination, then certainly they would not have rejected so universally the apocryphal writings, and hesitated to acknowledge the authenticity

of some of the books of the New Testament.

In his time collections of the evangelical and apostolical writings were already in the hands of many Christians. They were diligently studied; and in order that those who were not opulent might not be deceived by any corrupted copies, he advised them to apply to the teachers of the church.

"All the divine scriptures," says he, "both prophecies and gospels, are open and clear, and may be consulted by all."§ And in another place, "That man will easily convince himself of this, (viz. that the Old and New Testaments came from one and the same God,) who diligently studies the divine scriptures, which are in the possession of the presbyters of the church."||

Besides the evangelical and apostolical works above-mentioned, Irenæus acknowledges no other to be *divine*. He appeals indeed often, and with high panegyric, to the writings of Clement of Rome, Polycarp, Papias, Hermas, and Justin Martyr, but he never betrays any such veneration for them, as he shews for the writings of the evangelists, and apostles.¶

Here then we have an extraordinarily important evidence for the historical truth of the greatest part of the books of the New Testament: it is the evidence of a man who lived so near the times of the apostles, who had enjoyed an intimate intercourse with one of their immediate disciples, and was therefore as capable of investigating accurately the truth of those writings, as we are of proving the historical truth of a work attributed to Grotius or Selden: it is the evidence of a man who was well read in all the works respecting christianity, both of the

* The most particular passages are, lib. iii. cap. i. p. 174, and cap. ii. p. 190—192. That he makes use of such strange arguments from the four winds, &c. by way of proof, is of no consequence to us in the present enquiry. It is sufficient that he expressly asserts, that in his time *no other gospels but the four above-mentioned*, were received among the christians.

† For, in his quotations he makes use of the following phrases:—"Paul has this in his Epistle to the Romans:"—"Paul shews this in his 1st, or 2d Epistle to the Corinthians." He uses these or similar forms of quotation for every one of the above-mentioned Epistles.

‡ Lardner has collected proofs thereof in his *Credibility of Gos. Hist.* vol. ii. p. 157—169.

§ Lib. ii. cap. xxvii. page 155.

¶ Lib. iv. cap. xxxii. p. 270. From the first view it would appear to follow from this passage, that the copies of the sacred books were at that time exclusively in the hands of the teachers. In fact it asserts only thus much, that they possessed the copies *to be depended on*: for the passage referred to in the note immediately preceding, together with many other reasons, will not permit us to doubt that the generality of christians also, possessed them in abundance. See Walsh on the Use of the Holy Scriptures.

¶ See Lardner, *Credibility*, vol. ii. p. 173—178; who has examined with much solidity the passages in which these writings are quoted.

orthodox and heretics; who *himself* doubted of the truth of some books of the New Testament, and consequently must be considered in this point as totally exempt from credulity. This witness, thus qualified, appeals in the face of heretics to those writings, as to works *which descended incontestibly from the apostles and evangelists*. We should undoubtedly, without hesitation, pronounce every other book, resting only on a single evidence of such weight, to be genuine. Why, then should not the testimony of this witness have its full force on the scriptures of the New Testament?

Upon the introducing the evidences from works of the second century, now lost, Dr. Less has the following excellent remark: "The enemies of our religion complain often and loudly of the loss of those writings against christianity, which were composed by its ancient opponents; and some of them accuse the christians, in language by no means doubtful, of having been the cause of the destruction of these works. But they do not take into consideration; that of the writings also of the ancient friends and defenders of christianity many more have been lost than have been preserved. And that, together with those writings, many important evidences for the authenticity of the New Testament have also perished." p. 134.

Among those of the second century whose works are no more, are Dionysius, bishop of Corinth, Hegesippus, Melito, bishop of Sardis, Miltiades, Theophilus of Antioch, and Pantænus. Much important testimony from these has been preserved by Eusebius. Some of the works of Tatian also, of Theophilus, and of Clement have perished, from which we might have derived very decisive evidence.

We are now brought to the third century. Origen is the only writer of this period whose works are come down to us, whom Dr. Less cites. Caius Romanus, Hippolytus Portuensis, Ammonius and Julius Africanus, are introduced as writers, of whose works important fragments only remain. After Origen, Eusebius is cited, but not without impropriety, as belonging to the third century. We cannot but consider the work of Dr. Less (if indeed it be not the fault of the translator) as defective in this part. Either a fuller account should have been given of the evidences to be gathered from the third century, and

Gregory of Neocæsarea, Dionysius of Alexandria, and Cyprian of Carthage should have occupied the place in this part of the volume to which they are entitled, or the catalogues of Origen and of Eusebius should have been separately quoted, as of themselves sufficient to shew the sentiments of the third and fourth centuries concerning the genuineness of the books of the New Testament.

A very useful summary follows, by which "the reader is enabled to perceive at one view, what were the opinions during the two first centuries and a half, in every separate book of the New Testament."

Dr. Less then proceeds to a long and particular examination of the Revelation of St. John. He acknowledges that it is very ancient—that it was known as early as the beginning of the second century after Christ; but he considers the question, *Who was the author*, as incapable of being satisfactorily answered. The evidence which he produces for its being the genuine work of the apostle is, however, stronger than that which is brought to prove the contrary.

After drawing some very fair and satisfactory conclusions from what has been advanced, in favour of the credibility of the books of the New Testament, our author proceeds to prove their *uncorrupted preservation*. The facts and the doctrines, he observes, which are contained in the books we now have, are the same as those which were known and believed, by means of the christian writings, in the two first centuries: the very state of christianity rendered a universal corruption of these writings impossible, and not the least vestige of such a corruption can be found in history: all the ancient manuscripts that have been discovered, perfectly accord in all essential matters; and the old versions, and the quotations by the fathers agree with the books we now have.

The *second part* of this excellent work relates, as we have before observed, to the *credibility of the New Testament*. In establishing this, Dr. Less shews that the authors possess every quality that can render them credible witnesses. They were immediate witnesses, and fully competent to relate what they saw; they were neither credulous nor fanatics; on the contrary, they were men of integrity; they relate events which happened in their own times; appeal to notorious proofs; had little to expect from their

evidence, but insult and persecution; actually suffered the most cruel treatment, and even death, in support of the truth of their narration; and under all the disadvantages of their situation, brought many of their contemporaries to the same conviction of the truth of the gospel. As a further proof of the credibility of the New Testament history, our author appeals to the wonderful establishment and propagation of christianity. It was soon diffused, he observes, through the whole world; prevailed without the assistance of any temporal power, though preached by poor, inconsiderable, unlearned, and almost unknown men; compelled to struggle with many dangerous obstacles arising from the vices or the follies of some of its early professors; opposed in the most cruel manner, by almost the whole world, and itself declaring hostility to the most powerful inclinations, and the ruling evil passions of the human-heart.

Dr. Less then proves, in opposition to Voltaire, that the old world was universally intolerant, and that christianity was the first system of religion that tolerated religious articles, different from its own. He then draws a parallel between the propagation of christianity and of the

religion of Mahomet; and concludes with a summary recapitulation of the arguments produced in favour of the credibility of the books of the New Testament.

Thus have we gone through this very useful work, and endeavoured, by a faithful analysis, to convey to our readers an accurate idea of its plan and execution. From this, it will, without doubt, appear an important acquisition to theological literature, and be received with pleasure by those who have not access to the original German. It will appear also, that it is not designed to supercede Lardner's voluminous collections; but may prove a very useful companion to those who examine the more numerous witnesses produced by that learned writer.

Of the merit of the translation, we cannot fairly decide, as we have not an opportunity of comparing it with the original. It has the appearance of fidelity. We suspect a few errors might be found. A glaring one occurs in p. 275; where, by a strange blunder, either of the author, or of the translator, or of both; *James Nayler*, the unhappy quaker in the time of Cromwell, is called *Jacob Maylor*.

ART. VIII. *The Providence of God, a Norrisian Prize Essay*, by JAMES GEORGE DURHAM, A. B. of Corpus Christi College, Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 38.

THE object of this well-written essay, is, to prove that the doctrine of a divine providence is consonant with reason; declared in the scriptures; and confirmed

by experience. If the arguments be not new, the writer has, at least, the merit of stating what has been often-advanced before with much energy and effect.

ART. IX. *The Works, theological and miscellaneous, including some Pieces not before printed*, of FRANCIS BLACKBURNE, M.A. late Rector of Richmond, and Archdeacon of Cleveland; with some Account of the Life and Writings of the Author by himself, completed by his Son FRANCIS BLACKBURNE, LL. B. and illustrated by an Appendix of original Papers. In seven volumes 8vo.

SINCE the period in which archdeacon Blackburne flourished, though many years have not elapsed, great changes have taken place in the public mind; and the controversies in which he chiefly was engaged exist no longer. The most disastrous events in the political world have excited in almost every breast, such a dread of innovation, that every attempt to reform what is acknowledged to be erroneous, or to improve what is allowed to be defective, is beheld with suspicion and terror. The fear of anarchy and suffering, has made every abuse, whether civil or ecclesiastical, tolerable; and every

burden, by whomsoever imposed, comparatively light. Meetings at the Feathers Tavern, to obtain the redress of clerical grievances, have given place to meetings to secure the lives and property of peaceful citizens, from the apprehended designs of domestic and of foreign foes, or to devise the most successful means of opposing an invading army: the question concerning confessions of faith, and subscription to articles of religion, no longer respects the right to impose them, or the propriety of submitting to their authority; but the due sense of the creed which is confessed, and the

principles which the conscientious subscriber ought to avow. The fear of popery is succeeded by the fear of methodism, and much of the jealousy with which papists were watched, is transferred to those who are endeavouring to explain the doctrines of the English established church by the rules of the holy bishop of Hippo, or the learned reformer of Geneva. The works of archdeacon Blackburne will, however, never lose their interest, and the uniform edition of them now before us, will be justly deemed a valuable communication to the world.

It would be a useless waste of our time, as well as of the pages of our Review, were we now to occupy ourselves, or them, in giving any account of such works as the Historical View, the Considerations on Popery, or the Confessional. The merit of these, and of various tracts connected with them, has been long since duly appreciated, and the suffrage of the most competent judges has assigned them a high rank in the class of theological productions to which they belong. Our attention, therefore, will be directed solely to that which now appears for the first time. Of this small part of the present collection the memoirs prefixed to the first volume are the most important.

Mr. Blackburne (as we learn from the memoirs drawn up by himself) was born at Richmond, in Yorkshire, June 9, 1705. Having received, under several successive masters, the usual school education; he was admitted, in the year 1722, a pensioner of Catherine Hall, Cambridge, where he constantly resided till he took his degree of bachelor of arts. During his residence at the university he acquired a strong attachment to those principles of civil and ecclesiastical liberty, which he afterwards so ably supported. Of the means by which this attachment was happily formed, he gave the following account to his friend Mr. T. Hollis. "A certain person, indeed, owes his principles to a very accidental word of advice given him at seventeen, by a worthy old lay gentleman, who said, 'young man, let the first book thou readest at Cambridge, be Locke upon Government.' It was accordingly the first book that person bought, and he so improved by it, that he lost a fellowship by a speech on the 5th of November, and having bread to eat by the care and industry of a grandfather, would be the most inexcusable

man upon earth, should he ever regret that and some other lesson of the same sort." (Memoirs, p. iv.) He alludes here to a foundation fellowship, for which he was the only qualified candidate; but the electors, being high royalists, and offended by the freedom of his sentiments, ventured even to violate their statutes, in order to disappoint him. Upon this, he finally left Cambridge, and went to reside with a relation in Yorkshire, in expectation of succeeding an aged uncle, in the living of Richmond. Upon the death of the worthy incumbent, Mr. Blackburne was presented to that living by lord chancellor Hardwicke. This was in the year 1739, and "being now," to use his own words, "possessed of a parochial cure, he set himself down seriously to his studies, and to the charge of the duties of his office. Concerning the latter," he adds, "as he was constantly resident in his parish, except for some very short intervals, during above forty years," (from 1739 to 1787, *forty-eight* years in all. *Editor*) "the report of his parishioners will be the most authentic account of them." Memoirs, p. ix. Concerning the former, the long list of his learned and valuable publications; and his well-earned and extensive fame, afford the most satisfactory testimony. In the year 1750, he was collated to the archdeaconry of Cleveland, and to the prebend of Bilton, by Dr. Hutton, archbishop of York, to whom he had been for some years titular chaplain, "Such of Mr. Blackburne's friends," he observes, "as judged of his disposition, by the influence that fear and hope have upon the majority of mankind, concluded, that, upon this promotion, he would write no more *apologies* for such books, as the *Free and Candid Disquisitions*; and some of them were a little pleasant with him upon that subject; to whom he only answered with a cool indifference, that he had made no bargain with the archbishop for his liberty. He had good reason to believe, indeed, that his grace was not unacquainted with his sentiments; nor was he a stranger to the archbishop's liberal notions on ecclesiastical affairs. When he first went to Bishopthorpe, to be collated to the archdeaconry, he was shewn into the chaplain's room, where the first thing he saw, was the above mentioned *Apology* lying upon the table; and he had reason to believe, from some conversation he had with his grace before he left him, that he

was suspected to be the author of it. But there was a candour and generosity in archbishop Hutton, rarely to be met with in men of his grace's station." This paragraph we have transcribed from the memoirs, as being highly honorable to both the parties. See Mem. p. xv, xvi. He had now received his last preferment, his own scruples forbidding him ever to subscribe again. Speaking of his literary labours, and of the state of his mind in 1757, he observes :

"Mr. Blackburne had begun some years before this, to think seriously upon the case of ecclesiastical subscription. When he took possession of the living of Richmond, he had been engaged in a way of life that did not give him time or opportunity to reflect upon subjects of that nature with precision ; and though upon taking his first preferment, he determined conscientiously to perform the duties of it, yet he was by no means aware of the difficulties that afterwards embarrassed him in qualifying himself for holding it. He therefore, then subscribed as directed by law, without scruple, and without apprehending the obligation he laid himself under, according to the form, of giving his assent and consent to the whole system of the church.

"When the same form was to be subscribed to qualify him to hold the archdeaconry and prebend, he consulted some of his friends, and particularly Dr. Law, who gave him his opinion at large, containing such reasons as had occurred to himself on the several occasions he had to undergo that discipline. He was likewise referred to Dr. Clarke's Introduction to his Scripture Doctrine of the Trinity ; and lastly to the sixth article of the church of England ; all which appeared plausible enough to satisfy him, for that time, that with these salvos and modifications, he might safely subscribe in the prescribed forms.

"But when upon another prospect of advancement in the church, he began to consider the subject more intensely, and found reason to think that the authorities on which he had depended, were not of sufficient weight or force to overrule his own scruples, from that time he settled it with himself never to subscribe again. About the same time it was that he began to make collections for that work which afterwards appeared under the title of *The Confessional*, in the progress of which he was much applauded and

encouraged by his old friend Law, but not assisted by him or any one else."—Mem. p. 28, 29.

A favourite literary production of the archdeacon's had been to write the life of Luther, who, from similarity of disposition, as well as many other reasons, had always held a high place in his esteem. For this work he had made large collections, and translated into English the life of this reformer by Melchior Adam. Upon the death of his friend Mr. Hollis, of whom he was solicited to draw up some memoirs, "this work was suspended upon a supposition that after a very few months dedicated to the memory of Mr. Hollis, the life of Luther might be resumed." In this however he was unfortunately mistaken. The composition of the memoirs occupied more time than Mr. Blackburne had expected. The memoirs were finished in 1780. Other employments seem to have occupied him till 1782 ; when his son Thomas Blackburne, a young man of great talents, and settled as a physician at Durham, was taken away by a fever. This was his best beloved child, and his death made an impression upon his mind that was never effaced. In a very affecting description of his feelings on the first anniversary of the day on which his son had died, and which concludes the memoirs he had drawn up of his own life, we meet with the following moving passage : "Quid passus sit pater amarissima hac dispensatione per annum hodierno die expletum, Deo soli, et sibi ipsi notum est. Supplicavit, atque etiam supplicat, ut humili animo omne Providentiæ divinæ decretum accipiat et sustineat. Nimis erat elato animo, dum filium tali ingenio et tot dotibus præditum possedit. Quo provocatus forsitan omnium rerum pater, elationis illius castigationem hanc privationem esse decrevit." Mem. p. 54.—"After the death of his son Thomas, Mr. Blackburne in a great measure laid aside the several things he had proposed to finish ; and in two or three years afterwards, his eyesight failing him, he contented himself with dictating such short rescripts, including letters to his friends, as could be taken down by an amanuensis."

Notwithstanding his deep affliction and his declining age, the vigour of his mind seemed unimpaired, and he continued in the pursuit of his studies, and in the discharge of such of his pastoral duties, as the state of his health would

permit. He had just concluded his thirty-eighth annual visitation, as archdeacon of Cleveland, when "he closed the long scene of a studious, regular, and religious life, without a groan, and as he sat in his chair."

The memoirs, from which these few facts have been drawn, are not without interest. Relating to such a man, and drawn up, for the greatest part, by himself, they could not fail both to please and instruct; but we regret that they are so much of a *catalogue raisonnée* of the archdeacon's works, and contain so little information concerning the transactions into which his controversies must have led him, and the characters with whom he must have been conversant. The life of a country clergyman, who confines himself so strictly to the proper scene of his duty as Mr. Blackburne did, cannot, indeed, be distinguished by many extraordinary incidents: but the archdeacon was not a mere parish priest. For a long course of years he took a very leading part in the most important, and generally interesting theological controversies then agitated; his acquaintance was courted by some of the most eminent friends of civil and religious liberty; he was an object of fear and dislike to many high church zealots, beyond the reach of whose persecuting spirit he was happily placed: he must, therefore, have maintained a correspondence, from which might be derived, not only most curious information respecting theological literature, but many interesting and instructive anecdotes of persons, concerning whom the present generation cannot feel indifferent. Specimens of this kind of information occur in those papers of the appendix, which detail the archiepiscopal tyranny and insolence, to which the learned Peckard was compelled to submit, and the disgraceful tergiversation of Warburton. May we be permitted to ask, were there no other parts of the archdeacon's correspondence, that might with propriety have been laid before the public? Were there no other important facts, the knowledge of which he acquired by his intercourse with the most distinguished characters of his time, that might have been admitted into the appendix, to illustrate the history of the human mind, and its affections; to excite a just hatred against spiritual oppression, and to animate the advocate for the free exercise of private judgment to activity and perseverance?

Our readers will scarcely believe, that the following is almost the whole, and all that is important, of the history of the Confessional. It is taken from that part of the memoirs which was written by the archdeacon himself.

"This work lay by him in manuscript for some years. He had communicated his plan to Dr. Edmund Law, who encouraged him greatly in the progress of it; and appears by many letters, in the course of their correspondence, to have been extremely impatient to have it published. The fair copy, however, was never seen by any of the author's acquaintance, one confidential friend excepted, who spoke of its existence and contents to the late patriotic Thomas Hollis, esq. to whom the author, at that time, was not personally known.

"Mr. Hollis mentioned this manuscript to Mr. Andrew Millar, the bookseller, who, in the year 1768, intending a summer excursion, to visit his friends in Scotland, was desired by Mr. Hollis to call upon Mr. Blackburne at Richmond, where, after some conversation, the manuscript was consigned to Mr. Millar's care for publication, and accordingly came out in the spring 1766. The only condition made with Mr. Millar was, that the author's name should be concealed. When the book was published, it appeared, from the clamour that was raised against it, that grievous offence was taken at it by that part of the clergy who affect to call themselves orthodox. The indignation of archbishop Secker was excessive. His mask of moderation fell off at once. He employed all his emissaries to find out the author; and, by the industry of Rivington, and the communicative disposition of Millar, he succeeded.

"Dr. Edmund Keene was then bishop of Chester, and Mr. Blackburne's diocesan; and had expressed, and indeed shewn, in several instances, his friendship and benevolence to Mr. Blackburne. He wrote a letter to an intimate friend of Mr. Blackburne, mentioning the resentment of the archbishop of Canterbury, and other bishops, against the reputed author; and intimated, that if the suspicion which fell upon Mr. Blackburne was groundless, he would do well to silence the imputation, by publicly disavowing the work in print; for that every door of success, to farther preferment, would otherwise be shut against him. The answer of Mr. Blackburne's friend was, that he had no right to ask Mr. Blackburne any questions of that kind; and that, as he himself should think it uncivil and improper to be interrogated upon such a subject, he hoped his lordship would excuse him for declining to intermeddle in a matter of that delicacy."

The character of the venerable archdeacon, drawn up by the editor, and

subjoined to the memoirs, is delineated in glowing colours. Having dwelt with filial piety upon his numerous excellencies, he concludes thus :

"Such was Francis Blackburne: a believer of christianity, from the deepest conviction of its truth; a Protestant, on the genuine principles of the reformation from popery; a strenuous adversary of superstition and intolerance, and of every corruption of the simplicity or the spirit of the gospel; a zealous promoter of civil liberty; a close and perspicuous reasoner; a keen and energetic writer; an attentive, benevolent, and venerable archdeacon; an eloquent and persuasive preacher; a faithful pastor, and exemplary guide; of unblemished purity of life; of simple dignity of manners; a sincere and cordial friend, an affectionate husband, and an indulgent father: in short, a just, humane, pious, temperate, and independent man." *Memo. p. lxxxii.*

It has often been a matter of surprize to those who know the principles which Mr Blackburne avowed—who suspected in him more than he chose to discover—that he should retain his station in the church. The editor informs us, indeed, that upon the death of Dr. Chandler, which happened in the very year in which the *Confessional* was published, several of the principal members of the dissenting congregation in the Old Jewry, being persuaded that the author of *The Confessional* must be inclined to quit the church, and join the dissenters, conveyed, by a confidential person, to Mr. Blackburne, their wish to be informed, how far his inclinations went that way, and whether he would accept the situation of their minister, then vacant? To this inquiry, and the proposal, a direct negative was returned by Mr. Blackburne, though the revenue of the place offered to him, was at least four hundred pounds a year, and the clear annual amount of all that he possessed, as a beneficed clergyman, never much exceeded the sum of 150*l.* Interest, therefore, could have had no influence, in keeping him in the church.

We may see something of his mind in this respect, in what he has himself remarked, upon the resignation of his friend Mr. Lindsey:

"In the year 1773, the Rev. and learned Mr. Theophilus Lindsey, a gentleman of an unblemished character, in every respect, being unable to reconcile himself to the forms of the church of England, particularly

those which relate to the trinity, resigned his vicarage of Catterick, in the neighbourhood of Richmond. He had married a daughter of Mrs. Blackburne, by her former husband. The friendship between Mr. Lindsey and Mr. B. was not nearly so much cemented by this family connection, as by a similarity of sentiments, on the cause of Christian liberty, and their aversion to ecclesiastical impositions, in matters of conscience. In the warfare on these subjects, they went hand in hand: and when Mr. Lindsey left Yorkshire and settled in London, Mr. B. used to say, he had lost his right arm.

"Mr. Lindsey, on his arrival in town, opened a chapel in Essex Street in the Strand. His sentiments were of the Socinian complexion, in agreement with Dr. Priestley and others; and, according to that system, Mr. Lindsey corrected the liturgy of the church of England, upon the model of Dr. Clarke: and published it for the use of his congregation, which was numerous, and made up of most respectable members.

"This uncommon instance of self-denial raised up a number of opponents, who had their objections partly to Mr. L.'s desertion from the established church; but chiefly to his tenets, published in an apology for his conduct, which he was afterwards obliged to second by some controversial pieces, in answer to various opponents.

"Mr. B. had his objections to the liturgy and articles of the church of England, as well as Mr. Lindsey, and in some instances to the same passages; but differed widely from him on some particular points, which, he thought, as stated by Mr. Lindsey and his friends, could receive no countenance from scripture, but by a licentiousness of interpretation that could not be justified.

"It was not consistent with Mr. B.'s friendship for Mr. Lindsey, to enter into a formal controversy with him on these particular points; and if that could have been got over, it was not consistent with a resolution Mr. B. had taken early in life, to have as little to do with the trinitarian controversy as possible.

"But Dr. Priestley and some of his friends, having carried the obligation to secede from the church of England, farther than Mr. B. thought was either sufficiently candid, charitable, or modest, and had thereby given countenance to the reproach, thrown upon many moderate and worthy men, by hot and violent non-conformists, for continuing to minister in the church, while they disapproved many things in its doctrine and discipline, he thought it expedient, in justice to himself and others of the same sentiments, to give some check to the rude censures that had been passed upon them.

"And, accordingly, intending to publish four discourses, delivered to the clergy of the archdeaconry of Cleveland, in the years 1767, 1769, 1771, 1773, he took that opportunity to explain himself on this subject in a pre-

face, as well on the behalf of the seceders, as of those whose christian principles admitted of their remaining in the church, without offering violence to their consciences." Mem. p. xlvii.

Besides the publication here mentioned, a paper, now published for the first time, and inserted in the appendix, entitled, Answer to the Question—Why are you not a Socinian? contains some further reasons, by which the archdeacon was induced to keep the post he had long occupied. But it is time to proceed to a brief account of the contents of the volumes before us.

The first volume, besides the memoirs and the appendix, which, together, occupy 126 pages, contains, An Assize Sermon, preached at York 1741. Erasmus's Preface to his Paraphrase on the Gospel of Matthew and the Apostolical Epistles, translated by a young Candidate for Orders, with Notes, and a Preliminary Discourse, by Mr. Blackburne, first published in 1749. A Serious Enquiry into the Use and Importance of External Religion, occasioned by Bishop Butler's Charge, 1752. A Sermon preached (rather, as we are informed in the Mem. intended to be preached) on Old Christmas Day, 1753. This was occasioned by the scruples of some of Mr. Blackburne's parishioners upon the alteration of the style. "*A Story of two Jews, and the Catacomb.*" "*A candid Address to the Jews residing, or desiring to reside, in Great Britain; occasioned by the Repeal of a late Act of Parliament in their favour; with a Postscript to the Christian Reader, and a Reply to Dr. Tucker's Strictures on the preceding Postscript.*" "*A Letter to a Friend; containing some Remarks on Dr. Sharpe's Visitation Charge.*" "*Notes upon a Paper, intituled, 'Some Rules of Caution, for the more successful Examination into the Doctrine of the Trinity.' By Dr. Sharpe.*"

The second volume comprizes:—"A Critical Commentary on Archbishop Secker's Letter to the Rt. Hon. Horatio Walpole, concerning Bishops in America; 1770." "A Letter from a Country Clergyman to Archbishop Herring, 1771." "An Apology for the Authors of the Free and Candid Disquisitions, &c.; 1750." "No Proof in the Scriptures, of an intermediate State of Happiness or Misery between Death and the Resurrection: in Answer to Mr. Goddard's Sermon, &c.; 1756." "Remarks on Dr. Warburton's Account of the Sentiments of the early Jews, concerning the Soul;

1756." "A Review of some Passages in the last edition of the Divine Legation of Moses demonstrated, &c. 1760."

The third volume consists of "An Historical View of the Controversy concerning an intermediate State, &c." Second Edition; 1772.

The fourth volume contains, "Considerations on the present State of the Controversy between the Protestants and Papists of Great Britain and Ireland, &c." 1768. "Four Discourses, delivered to the Clergy of the Archdeaconry of Cleveland, in the Years 1767, 1769, 1771, and 1778; and, a Discourse on the Study of the Scriptures." 1763.

The fifth volume is wholly occupied by the Confessional: first published 1766; and here re-printed from a copy, the third edition, 1770, corrected by the author.

The sixth volume consists of "Five Remarks on Dr. Powell's Sermon in Defence of Subscriptions;" 1758; and, "Occasional Remarks upon Strictures on the Confessional, in two parts," 1768 and 1769.

The seventh volume contains various tracts, relating to the subject of subscription to the thirty-nine articles: first published in the years 1771, 1772, and 1774.

In the above list, the tracts which are marked by italics, are now printed for the first time. Besides what are here enumerated, archdeacon Blackburne wrote the following, which are not inserted in the present collection: "A short Discourse on the Nature, Obligations, and Benefits of family Religion;" 1750. This was for the immediate use of his parishioners. "A Charge, delivered to the Clergy of the Archdeaconry of Cleveland, 1752." "An Ordination Sermon, preached at Richmond." "A short Discourse on the Subject of preaching." "An Exhortation to a due Attendance upon public Worship." "Three Letters to a noble Lord, on Dr. Swift's History of the four last Years of the Queen." These do not appear, though designed by the archdeacon to form a part of this collection. "Some Sentiments of a Country Divine upon Baptism; and an answer to the Question—Why are you not a Socinian?" Some account of these two last is given in the appendix. The story of the Two Jews is well conceived, and pleasantly told. The object of it is to shew the folly and the pernicious consequences of

divisions amongst Christians, and the wisdom of professing the christian faith, without the dogmas of any sect. The *Catacombs* is an allegorical representation of the origin and progress of christianity; its different effects upon the minds of men, and of the opposition to which, at various times, it has been exposed.

The candid Address to the Jews, is designed "to exculpate the Christian religion from the imputation of that severity which had been exhibited towards the Jews during the discussion of the naturalization bill, and to refute the antichristian arguments, which, not only legislators, but divines, had employed on that subject.

In an appendix, some remarks of Mr. Tucker, in his letters on naturalization, are noticed; and some strong observations are made upon the supposed purity of the English church. The manuscript of this appendix was shewn to Mr.

Tucker, who expostulated. Mr. Blackburne's rejoinder is here published; and, upon what he had first asserted, he enlarges, and successfully vindicates the truth and justice of his former remarks. The Letter to a Friend, on Dr. Sharpe's Visitation Charge, contains some free remarks on the rubrics and canons, which, though deserving of attention, will not, for a cause already mentioned, be now regarded; and the notes upon Dr. Sharpe's paper, on the subject of the trinity, discover the archdeacon's dislike to Athanasianism; but leaves us still in the dark, as to his own views upon that doctrine.

All these papers breathe the spirit which constantly animated this learned writer; and we could gratify our readers by many interesting remarks selected from them, were we not warned, by the length of this article, to restrain our hand.

ART. X. *An Abstract of the whole Doctrine of the Christian Religion; with Observations.* By JOHN ANASTASIUS FREYLINGHAUSEN, Minister of St. Ulrich's Church, and Inspector of the public School, at Halle, in Germany. From a Manuscript in her Majesty's Possession. The first Book stereotyped by the new Process. Large 8vo. pp. 216.

FROM a preface to this splendid specimen of English stereotype, written by the editor, (said to be the bishop of London), we learn, that the author was an ancient divine of the Lutheran church, and that this tract of his has always been held in high estimation in Germany, and considered there as a judicious and masterly compendium of all the doctrines of the Christian revelation. We are moreover informed, that it has the honour to stand very high in the good opinion of the *greatest female personage* in this kingdom; by whose order it was originally translated into English, for the use of her illustrious daughters. Report has also said, that the translation is, in a great measure, the work of her royal hand.

The nature of this work will be easily understood, from the following "scheme of the whole doctrine of the Christian religion," printed at the beginning of the volume, in a tabular form.

i. Of GOD.

1. His Essence, Attributes, and Persons.

2. The Operations of each Person.

a. Of the Father.—Of the Creation in general. Of the Creation,

Nature, and Functions of the Angels. Of Providence. Of Predestination.

b. Of the Son.—Of his two Natures. Of his Offices. Of his two States.

c. Of the Holy Ghost.—Of his Nature and Functions.

ii. Of MAN.

1. In the State of Innocence.

2. In the State of Sin.—Of Adam's Fall, and original and actual Sin. Of free Will; or, Man's natural Incapacity.

3. In the State of Grace.

a. The Benefits of Grace.—Vocation. Illumination. Regeneration. Justification. Mystical. Union with God. Sanctification.

b. The means of Grace.—The Word of God. The Law and the Gospel. The Key of Heaven. The Sacraments, Baptism, and the Lord's Supper.

c. The Order of Grace. Penitence. Faith. Good Works. The Cross. Prayer.

d. The Partakers of Grace.—The Christian Church in general. The three States in particular: the ecclesiastical; of Magistrates; the domestic.

4. In the State of Glory.—*Of Death. Of Resurrection. Of the Day of Judgment. Of eternal Life.*

All these subjects are briefly discussed, in the way of question and answer, with such observations as the author thought necessary, for the more full explication of every doctrine. References to the scripture-proofs are very copiously placed

in the lower margin; but, as different inquirers will give very different interpretations to almost every passage upon which the doctrines of the present work are founded, it will not appear decisive to all, that Mr. Freylinghausen has drawn up a just abstract of the *Christian* religion.

ART. XI. *Christian Theology; or, an Enquiry into the Nature and general Character of Revelation.* By the Rev. RICHARD LLOYD, A. M. Minister of *Midhurst, in Sussex,* and late Fellow of *Magdalen College, Cambridge.* 8vo. pp. 382.

"ASSUMING the truth and divine origin of the scriptures, and avoiding all nice polemical discussions of subjects, which he deems either of doubtful import, or of comparative insignificance," the author of the work before us, undertakes "to propound, illustrate, and enforce, those leading doctrines of the Christian religion, which are essential to the nature of man." Why it is called an enquiry we cannot well conceive:—no enquiry is pursued. The whole is rhapsodical and declamatory; adapted, indeed, to please the imaginations of those, who repeat the same creed as the author; but totally inadequate to the conviction of one sceptical mind, or to the recovery of one wanderer from the fold of sacred truth. The author, however, appears to be a pious and faithful minister of the church, and to be under the guidance of pure and upright motives. He has divided his work into five chapters. The *first* chapter treats of the "Nature, Design, and Importance, of Revelation." The Christian religion is of a spiritual and heavenly nature, having a pre-eminent respect to eternity, and the immortal interests of men; but peculiarly glorious, as a revelation to a sinful world of the glad tidings of salvation. It is also exclusively true. All that is stated in this chapter has been often stated before, and with greater ability and force. The subject of the *second* chapter is, "the Unity of divine Truth, as displayed in the Jewish and Christian Dispensations." In opening the sacred volume, Mr. Lloyd observes, "we soon discover that it is the work of one divine author, though carried on at sundry times, and in divers manners; and through the medium of various human instruments. In Genesis it commences with the beginning, and in the Apocalypse closes with the end, of time." p. 27. We learn the creation of man; his fall from his state of happi-

ness; and the promise of a deliverer. To this important person, all the subsequent history has respect: the patriarchs saw the day of Christ: the Jewish ceremonialists were typical of his office and character; the prophets still more expressly described him; and, in fulness of time, he himself appeared to prepare, by his ministry, a way for the gospel, which, with the same unity of purpose discoverable from the creation, was preached by his apostles. The conclusion of the chapter contains some remarks upon the danger of suffering imagination to interfere in the interpretation of scripture.

The subject of the third chapter is, "The sentiments and dispositions which the Christian religion ought to produce, more especially in its ministers; and of the means most conducive to this important end." This is chiefly practical, and may be read with great advantage by those who are desirous of filling with propriety the station of a minister of the gospel.

The fourth chapter treats of that doctrine which has a commanding influence in the Christian system; and of the best method of enforcing this and other fundamental articles of our holy religion. The doctrine is that of the remission of sins through the expiatory sacrifice of Christ, and is to be enforced like what Mr. Lloyd conceives to be other doctrines of revelation, "upon the principles of revelation, not of a vain philosophy, and fallacious and presumptuous reason."

The last chapter treats "of the nature and attributes of God; the relation and dependence of his creatures, and the duties resulting from this relation and dependence: of Adam's state before and after the fall, and the provision made for his restoration to the image of his Maker; and of the nature of this restor-

ation, with some important observations connected with it." The subjects of this chapter are evidently of great importance; but are, as usual with this writer, handled in too declamatory and loose a manner. Many good remarks occur in the midst of this declamation, and some

wholesome counsel is imparted to his brethren in the university. Though this book is not all that its title leads us to expect, it will, we have no doubt, be favourably received by that class of the members of the establishment who affect the title of evangelical.

ART. XII. *Thoughts on the Trinity.* By GEORGE ISAAC HUNTINGFORD, D. D. F. R. S. Warden of Winchester College, and Bishop of Gloucester. 8vo. pp. 116.

SEVENTEEN hundred years, at least, have elapsed since the subject of this treatise began to engage the attention of the Christian world; almost as many thousand works have been written upon the subject, and the Christian world is still divided in opinion; and we are much mistaken with respect to our judgment of the tract now before us, if it should be found eminently useful in producing the conviction which the right reverend author is so laudably desirous of effecting. In what wears the appearance of novelty, we fear his lordship has laid himself open to objections of no little weight; and as to the greater part of his work, we foresee that the advocates for the divine unity, in the strictest sense of the term, will be ready to reply either that the argument proceeds upon premises which are not acknowledged, or have frequently been answered before.

The pamphlet contains ninety eight sections, or clauses, of which his lordship has given the following account:

"Thoughts are here given in preference to dissertations, for the sake of brevity and compression.

"The several clauses appear detached: there is however a connexion between them. The subject is begun on principles of abstract reasoning; continued, with reference to Heathen and Jewish opinions; pursued, with consideration of the baptismal form delivered by our Lord, and as taught by evangelists, apostles, fathers. Of the question there is then taken a retrospect, which leads to the conclusion."

In the dedication to Mr. Addington, the right reverend author hints at some recent occasion that has suggested these thoughts. The concluding passage of the preface runs thus:

"The mind of the writer has long been much impressed with the force of this solemn charge: 'When thou art converted, strengthen thy brethren.' He is anxious to obey it. On examination and reflection being himself convinced, he employs his efforts to

assist others, and support them in the ancient faith."

The recent occasion, then, we imagine to have been the happy conversion of some one of the bishop's friends, from the anti-trinitarian heresy, into which even his lordship had once fallen, or been in great danger of falling.

We have long been of opinion, that a mere Greek scholar is unqualified to be an interpreter of the holy scriptures; and our opinion has received no little confirmation from the tract before us. The warden of Winchester college has approved himself a Grecian of the first eminence; but the bishop of Gloucester, writing in defence of the Trinity, ought to be an Hebraist of no mean name, especially as he goes to the Old Testament for some of his strongest proofs. But can the writer of the following sentence construe the first verse of the first chapter of the book of Genesis? "The opening of St. John's gospel expounds the opening of the Mosaic history. The words of Moses are, 'In the beginning *Bara Elohim* created the heavens and the earth.'" Gen. i. 1. St. John tells us the particular person of the triune godhead, by whom the work of creation was carried into effect." P. 20.

We fear the bishop of Gloucester has not sufficiently guarded against heretical acuteness in the following passages, when compared with each other.

"It would be tritheism, if we should maintain a triplicity of divine intelligences, each diversified in different and opposite essential natures, different and opposite powers, different and opposite wills, different and opposite counsels, different and opposite energies. But it is not tritheism when we maintain that three divine intelligences exist, being all of the same essential nature, the same power, the same will, the same counsel, the same energies: for, by maintaining the sameness of quality, we preserve the unity of divine attributes, and thus also preserve the unity of Godhead."

"It is always to be recollected, that neither

by himself, nor by the evangelists, nor by the apostles, is our Lord styled 'The Father,' but 'The Son.' The appellation 'Father' is applied to Him who (in the words of the annotators in Poole, 1 Cor. viii. 6,) 'is the foundation of the deity, communicating his divine nature to the other two persons, and of whom are all things;' and who therefore is emphatically called the 'Father,' that being 'a term which signifies the primary cause and author of all things.' With Him and from Him the author of all things, 'God the Father,' existed from eternity 'God the Son.' The correlative terms 'Father' and 'Son' convey an idea of paternity and filiation. Paternity and filiation imply identity of nature, but distinction in origin. To this distinction does our Lord refer, when he calls the Father 'The only true God.' The Father is 'The only God,' in strictness of speech, because he is the author of Godhead, by whom, says Pearson, p. 328, ed. 1704, 'Godhead was communicated to the Son.' And He is 'The True God,' either abstractedly in the same point of view, or relatively in opposition to heathen idolatrous gods.

We do not recollect that we ever saw the following argument adduced by any

other writer upon this important subject.

"I thank God that I baptized none of you," says St. Paul to the Corinthians (1 Cor. i. 14). Why should the apostle manifest so great earnestness, and why express himself so very strongly on this occasion? Because, he thought it would be dishonouring Christ, if he had admitted disciples in his own name. And wherefore should he be anxious on that account, if he had believed Christ to have been merely human, and to have been still sleeping in the grave? He could have incurred no evil present or future, had Christ been merely human, and still sleeping in the grave. It is clear then he believed Christ to be more than human; to be raised from the grave; to be the witness, the judge, the rewarder of his actions."

But we must take leave of this treatise, the most striking part of which is the truly candid spirit which prevails in it, so opposite to that which has distinguished the controversial writings of some of the author's right reverend brethren.

ART. XIII. *First Principles of Christian Knowledge; consisting of, I. An Explanation of the more difficult Terms and Doctrines of the Church Catechism, and Office of Confirmation. II. The Three Church Creeds, exemplified and proved from the Scriptures. To which is prefixed, an Introduction on the Duty of conforming to the Established Church, as good Subjects and good Christians. By the Right Reverend THOMAS BURGESS, D. D. Bishop of St David's. The Second Edition. 12mo. pp. 124.*

WE have seldom seen a book more open to animadversion, or more deserving of censure, than this. It inculcates maxims which, if carried to their due extent, condemn our separation from the church of Rome; reduces all religion to a formal attention to a few external ceremonies of worship; perverts the plainest language of scripture, and counteracts that charity which an apostle esteemed of more value than the know-

ledge of all mysteries. In proof of the justice of what we observe, we refer particularly to pages 2, 6, 11, 13, 25, 36, 64, and to the officious and needless revival of obsolete statutes at the conclusion.

The bishop of St. David's affords another instance of the truth of a remark which has been often made, that a divine may be a good scholar, and at the same time a very bad theologian.

ART. XIV. *Conditions on the general Considerations of the Christian Covenant; with a View to some important Controversies. By JOSEPH HOLDEN POTTS, A. M. Archdeacon of St. Alban's. 8vo. pp. 110.*

NO one can be at a loss to know, at the first glance of this title, what these controversies are, nor refuse his assent to their being of considerable importance. If they were not connected with the question, which is of such moment to every individual, "What shall I do to be saved?" they would now have no inconsiderable influence from their connexion with the character, if not the stability, of the English church. We

are not, therefore, surprised that the friends of that church are anxious to devise conciliatory measures, and to bring nearer the two parties, whose divisions seem to threaten the most serious consequences. Such is the design of the publication now before us. Of its efficacy however we entertain some doubt, not from the want of ability in the author, or of force in the arguments, but from the influence of more rigid principles

now become the Shibboleth of a party. The leading position of the pamphlet is, that all the benefits of the christian covenant are purchased by the merits of

another, but bestowed on individuals upon the necessary conditions of repentance, faith, and obedience.

ART. XV. *Thoughts on the Calvinistic and Arminian Controversy.* By GEORGE STANLEY FABER, B. D. 8vo. pp. 46.

THE design of this tract is the same as that which we have just noticed. Taking Ephes. ii. 1. as a Calvinistic, and Ezek. xviii. 30, 31. as an Arminian thesis, he endeavours to shew that conclusions may be drawn upon each system, at which both Calvinists and Arminians

would shudder. He therefore advises that an adherence to system be laid aside; and affirms that by so doing, the church of England has formed a creed which is neither calvinistic, nor arminian,—but scriptural.

ART. XVI. *The Economy of the Covenants between God and Man. Comprehending a complete Body of Divinity. In Two Volumes.* By HERMAN WITSIUS, D. D. Faithfully translated from the Latin, and carefully revised, by WM. CROOKSHANK, D. D. To which is prefixed, the Life of the Author. 8vo. pp. 472. 464.

THE fame of this work, which is the very essence of calvinism, is, we presume, very widely spread. The original was published by the learned author, with a dedication to William III. in the year 1693; and the first edition of the

translation now before us appeared in 1763. As this is a mere republication of a work which has been so long before the world, our duty is performed when we have thus announced the appearance of a new edition.

ART. XVII. *Horæ Solitariae, in two Volumes; or Essays upon some remarkable Names and Titles of Jesus Christ, occurring in the Old Testament, and declarative of his essential Divinity and gracious Offices in the Redemption of Men. To which is annexed, an Essay, chiefly historical, upon the Doctrine of the Trinity. The Third Edition.* 8vo. pp. 574. 518.

THE second volume of this work has the following title prefixed to it, "Essays upon some remarkable Names and Titles of the Holy Spirit; occurring in the Old and New Testaments, and declarative of his essential Divinity and gracious Offices in the Salvation of Men: To which is annexed, a brief Account of the Heresies relative to the Doctrine of the Holy Spirit, which

have been published since the Christian Era."

This work, the nature of which is so clearly stated in the title pages, was first published, we believe, in 1776. The date of the second edition we do not know. It has long since obtained the character of a very learned, though, in many instances, a too fanciful, performance.

SERMONS AND PRACTICAL THEOLOGY.

ART. XVIII. *Sermons on Public Occasions, and a Letter on theological Study.* By ROBERT, late Archbishop of York. To which are prefixed, *Memoirs of his Life*, by GEORGE HAY DRUMMOND, A. M. Prebendary of York. 8vo. pp. 218.

THESE sermons are thus again introduced to public notice:

"Twenty-six years have elapsed since the decease of the venerable author of the following sermons, and the simplest tablet has not been erected to his memory, nor even his name inscribed on the stone which protects his remains. Such tribute, however due, was not indeed necessary to fix the remem-

brance of his virtues and talents in the breast of his surviving family and friends; and with regard to posterity, when he gave to the world such discourses as occasions of national thanksgiving or humiliation required him to preach and to publish, he himself 'exegit monumentum ære perennius.' They are now become scarce; and in reprinting them, with a brief sketch of this amiable prelate's exemplary life, together with a letter

on theological study, which illustrates those religious principles on which he founded his doctrine and his practice, the editor trusts he shall not only testify his own filial reverence, but gratify those connected by ties of blood, amity, or gratitude, and offer a work neither unacceptable nor unprofitable to the public at large."

The sermons now republished are,

1. A sermon preached before the honourable house of commons, at St. Margaret's, Westminster, on Saturday, Jan. 30th. 1747-8.

2. A sermon preached before the house of lords, in the abbey church of Westminster, on Tuesday, April 25, 1749; being the day appointed by his Majesty for a general thanksgiving for the peace.

3. A sermon preached in the parish church of Christ Church, London, on Thursday, April 26th, 1753; being the time of the yearly meeting of the children educated in the charity schools in and about the cities of London and Westminster.

4. A sermon preached before the incorporated society for the propagation of the gospel in foreign parts, at their anniversary meeting, in the parish church of St. Mary-le-Bow, on Friday, Feb. 15, 1754.

5. A sermon preached before the house of lords, in the abbey church of Westminster, on Friday, February 16, 1759; being the day appointed by his Majesty's royal proclamation for a general fast.

6. A sermon preached at the coronation of king George III. and queen Charlotte, in the abbey church of Westminster, Sept. 22, 1761.

These discourses are written in general with great vigour of thought, and strength of diction; but they contain many things, which it would be now out of season either to censure or to praise. Many of the principles inculcated in them were, in their day, admired by some, and opposed by others; many will at all times be considered as having their foundation in truth, and tending to the advancement both of private and of public good. As much as productions of this nature can contribute to perpetuate a name, these discourses will contribute to distinguish the name of Drummond.

The letter on theological study contains many useful hints, and points out many valuable works to the attention of the theological student.

ART. XIX. *Sermons, chiefly Occasional, on Important Subjects.* By SAMUEL MARTIN, D. D. Minister of Menimail. 8vo. pp. 381.

THIS volume contains no more than eight sermons and a dedication, which in the present day will be regarded as of very unusual length, as it occupies *thirty-nine* pages. The *first* of the discourses was preached on occasion of the death of the late earl of Leven, who had been for nineteen years lord high commissioner in the general assembly of the church of Scotland, and who died in the year 1802, at the advanced age of eighty. The remarks in it are plain and important, and may be read with advantage by persons of family and rank. The second sermon is a funeral discourse on the death of lady Leven, in which also many excellent observations occur in praise of female piety, and in demonstration of the importance of the female character. "Both these sermons," the author informs us, "were circulated among his own friends, and the friends of the noble family of Leven and Melville, but it occurred to him, and to others, that a volume would prove a more proper and permanent token of his re-

gards than a single discourse. A selection was accordingly made, and it is hoped, such as will accord with the funeral ones, and their accompaniments." *Preface.* The *third* discourse is on the preservation and transmission of the scriptures, preached at the opening of the synod of Fife, and placed in this collection, because "it confirms faith in that revelation which lord and lady Leven professed and honoured." Independent upon this consideration it will be regarded as not undeserving of public attention, since it contains a very satisfactory view of the important subject upon which it treats. The *fourth* discourse, of a very inferior cast, is a persuasive to attachment to the church of Scotland, and printed in this volume, because the noble pair were firmly attached to that church. They also detested irreligion, they shunned the irreligious, and hence the *fifth* sermon introduced into this collection is entitled "The enemies of the gospel objects of abhorrence,"

and the sixth, "Infidels an untoward generation." We cannot commend unreservedly the spirit with which these discourses are composed. They display, indeed, much zeal for the honour of christianity, and great solicitude to prevent the diffusion of infidelity, but there is little of that charity, of no less estimation in an apostle's judgment, than zeal, "which thinketh no evil, hopeth all things, believeth all things." We are persuaded that in our attachment to the interests of revealed religion we do not yield to Dr. Martin, or any who stand forth in its defence; but we cannot join in the illiberality of those who, without any discrimination, treat all unbelievers as persons of weak judgment, incapable of duly estimating moral evidence, or of such depraved hearts as obstinately to shut their minds against the

influence of the truth. *Amica Veritas—sed magis Amica CARITAS.* The seventh sermon, the object of which is to encourage us to be tranquil amidst wars and rumours of wars, appears in this volume because the righteous, among whom lord and lady Leven were eminently distinguished, enjoy tranquillity in times of alarm and danger. "For the righteous is reserved a state of matured perfection and felicity." How, therefore, could the selection more properly conclude than by a sermon to illustrate "*the perfection and felicity of the heavenly state?*"

These sermons may not be destitute of interest to those who were acquainted with the noble persons, to the memory of whom the volume is devoted; nor wholly without use to any into whose hands they may chance to fall.

ART. XX. *Sermons by CHARLES PETER LAYARD, D. D. F. R., S. F. A. S. late Dean of Bristol.* 8vo. pp. 297.

THIS posthumous work owes its publication to the filial piety of the late respected author's son, "who considers it the best duty to the memory of a revered parent, to endeavour to preserve and diffuse the principles which influenced his life and animated his productions." "Many respectable friends," we are also informed, "who were acquainted with the influence of his preaching, were anxious that the exertion of the author's talents should continue to operate with permanent effect, trusting that the arguments which had been successful in the pulpit, might prove efficacious in the closet."

Were the merit of the volume before us to be decided according to the number of those who have patronized its publication, we should have nothing more to say, than that above *forty* pages are filled with the names of subscribers, and that the suffrages of twelve hundred have referred it to the most honourable class of pulpit compositions. But the impartial critic must treat this host as a host of friends, and not of judges, presenting themselves to bear their united and pleasing testimony to the worth of Dr. Layard's character, rather than to the literary excellence of his posthumous discourses. Uninfluenced then by a list of names, half the number of which would have rescued a Castell, with many others, whose learned labours have benefited the world, and beggared themselves, from

the poverty which embittered their declining years; we proceed to the execution of our office.

The volume consists of *seventeen* sermons on the following subjects: Nativity of our blessed Saviour. Epiphany, or manifestation of our Lord to the Gentiles. Good Friday. On the crucifixion of Christ. Easter-day, or the resurrection of our blessed Saviour. Whitsunday, or the descent of the Holy Ghost. The praise of God to be preferred to the praise of man. On the 72d psalm, 3 parts. On the general fast, 1796. The excellence of the English laws. On the folly of sin. The advantages of religion. On the cure of the paralytic. The necessity of referring our conduct to the divine judgment. The necessity of being prepared for death; and, The reward attendant on the conversion of a sinner, preached at the Magdalen hospital.

Plainness of style, seriousness of spirit, and earnest desire to recommend what the preacher esteemed the truth of the gospel, and a zealous wish to produce in his hearers the rich fruits of a holy life, are the distinguishing features of these discourses. Though they cannot with justice be ranked among the highest of the class of compositions to which they belong, yet they ought to be considered as holding a very respectable rank. The best discourse in the volume is the last. From this we select the following passage, as containing very important

and very seasonable caution to those who bear the maternal character, and are desirous of performing the maternal duties.

"Another cause of female ruin, which I should think unworthy to claim your attention, but on account of its extensive and destructive effects, and because women of strict principles can, if they will, counteract its influence; is the little attention given to the propriety of external decoration. It is not easy to suppose, that purity of mind prevails, where indecency, or even impropriety, in apparel is adopted and encouraged. It seems rather inconsistent for a mother, whose first duty it undoubtedly is, to preserve, in her daughter's mind, the amiable timidity of chastity, and the delicate reserve of modesty, to permit her to appear in a manner, which conveys an idea of something more than boldness. On the extensive prevalence of such examples I need not insist; nor on the folly, the vanity, the extravagant expences, which devolve, with prevalent modes of habiliment, to the very lowest ranks.

"But all these give advantages to the treacherous seducer. For him is the, as yet innocent, victim too often decorated; while trifles, instead of sound opinions, engross her understanding; and trifles, imprudently accumulated in personal ornament, betray her into difficulties and distresses, which licentious vice, impatient for its prey, watches its opportunity to remove.

"With this fatal attention to trifles is al-

ways a desire, and, among the opulent, a habit, of continual dissipation and amusement. The great business of life is neglected for these, and the great object of it as much forgotten, as if our manners were submitted to the doctrines of *Epicurus*, instead of being regulated by the precepts, restrained by the prohibitions, or sanctioned by the promises of the gospel. Nor is this confined to the superior ranks. Is it not notorious that the provision which should be made for old age, or for posterity, from the earnings of industry, is continually dissipated in a giddy round of pleasures? But will any parent, who has maternal affections, endure the thought of her child being betrayed, in the midst of these enervating, these intoxicating delusions, into ruin? Can she answer it to herself to conspire with the world against her own child, by encouraging her to prefer fleeting pleasures to permanent happiness? Can she behold, without horror, the danger of her being cut off from society, or even from life, in the midst of such a heedless career? If she cannot do this, let her, as she regards the virtue of her child, preserve her from the dangers of dissipation, by precept, by warning; but especially, by her own domestic example."

From the whole of this discourse, we are led to suspect, that the selection might have been made so as to secure to the deceased author a larger and a more durable portion of fame.

ART. XXI. *Practical Discourse; by the Reverend RICHARD WARNER, Curate of St. James's Parish, Bath.* Vol. II. 8vo. pp. 232.

THE former volume of these discourses came under our notice last year, and we gave as faithful an account as we were able of the blemishes, and the excellencies by which it was distinguished. The volume now before us possesses much of the same character as its precursor; displays the same ardent mind, the same zeal for the honour of the gospel, the same indignation against those who despise or who disregard its injunctions, and the same occasional negligencies of style. The volume comprises nine sermons: 1. The duty of hearers of the word. 2. The importance of religion to states. 3. The blessings, happiness, and advantages of public worship. 4. Christian beneficence. 5. Brotherly love. 6. The redemption of time. 7. The road to salvation. 8. The friendship of the world and its consequences. 9. The duty and qualities of preachers of the word.

Throughout the whole of these animated discourses, Mr. Warner seems to have had in view the admonition which

he addresses to his brethren in the last discourse:

"But be ye not deceived, ye sons of Levi, 'God is not to be mocked; for whatsoever a man soweth, that also shall he reap.' If ye shall betray the trust which ye have voluntarily undertaken to discharge; if ye withhold or pervert the precepts of the gospel; if ye apply to the crying sins of the times in which ye live, the gentle emollients, the palliating excuses which secular interests may suggest in their behalf, instead of the caustic apostrophes which the gospel of Christ has levelled against them; depend upon it, your treachery will be punished by an adequate retribution; ye may succeed in your worldly aims, but you will infallibly lose your souls; for God has himself declared to every teacher of his word, 'O son of man, I have set thee a watchman unto the house of Israel; therefore thou shalt hear the word at my mouth, and warn them from me.'"

Caustic apostrophes lose none of their force in passing through the lips of our preacher; but we are not sure that either Mr. Warner's reputation, as a minister of the gospel, or the sacred cause of re-

ligion and virtue in which he is so zealously engaged, would in any respect suffer, if he copied more closely that union of mildness and severity which so admirably characterised the discourses of the Saviour.

In the second sermon, "upon the importance of religion to states," Mr. Warner insists upon the duty of regular attendance upon public worship, and inveighs against every practice by which the lower or the middle orders of society are detained or allured from the services of the christian temple. The practice of Sunday drills appears to have been principally in his view; and soon after the delivery of the sermon he communicated his opinions upon that subject more fully, in a letter inserted in the *Bath Chronicle*. In the preface to this volume, that letter is reprinted, together with a short cor-

respondence which it occasioned. Mr. Warner here stands upon vantage ground, and although his letters failed of attaining the proposed end, (that of prevailing upon the magistracy of the city of Bath to prevent the further profanation of those hours of the sabbath usually set apart for the service of God) yet they occasioned to himself (he observes) a gratification, second only in degree to that which would have resulted from a complete accomplishment of their design, an unanimous and public vote of thanks from a full and respectable vestry of his own parishioners.—We congratulate him upon having parishioners so well disposed; and heartily join with him in commending the sentiment of bishop Home, "If men will protect religion, God will protect them."

ART. XXII. *Sermons, delivered to the Congregation of Protestant Dissenters at Call-Lane Chapel, Leeds.* By JOSEPH BOWDEN. 8vo. pp. 407.

WHEN the important relation between a minister and his people has subsisted long, with mutual satisfaction and advantage, it is natural for the hearers to wish that some portion of the instruction they have received should be preserved by more durable materials than their own decaying memories; that they may have at hand the wise counsels, and the consoling words of their faithful pastor, and be able to impart to those in whose welfare they are most deeply interested, the truths which have impressed their own minds, kept alive and invigorated their own piety, soothed their own sorrows, and animated them in the discharge of the great duties of life. Such a wish is creditable to the people, and highly gratifying to the conscientious minister. To such a wish the respectable publication now before us is owing; as appears from the singularly modest introductory address by which these sermons are ushered into the world.

"The author of these discourses has no other apology to offer for their public appearance than one, which has often been received with suspicion, and sometimes with contempt. He persuades himself, however, that in his case, the solicitation of friends will be allowed to be a plea of more than common weight. He has been for twenty-eight years the minister of a religious society, from the members of which he has received incessant and innumerable marks of friendship. A few months ago a note was delivered to him, signed by thirty-two of them, requesting that

he would give them an opportunity of reading to their families a few of the sermons which, he trusts, something better than compliment or partiality induced them to say that they had heard with pleasure and advantage. It would not become him to attempt to vindicate the soundness of their judgment, in putting him upon this service; but he must be allowed to mention that their usual kindness and liberality towards him were displayed by their sending, together with the request, a subscription, which amply secures him from all pecuniary risk in the publication. To their particular use this volume is most gratefully and affectionately dedicated.

"The friends of the author intimated, in the note which he has mentioned, a hope that some of his sermons might not only be reviewed by themselves and their families with advantage, but be acceptable and useful in a somewhat larger circle than that to which they had been confined. He has no very sanguine expectations that such views will be realised. But having been induced to print the volume, he trusts that the publication of it will not be held unpardonably presumptuous."

The liberality of the congregation at Call-lane deserved to be thus recorded, and will, we hope, be the means of exciting a similar spirit in other opulent societies; many of whom would gladly see some of the labours of their ministers perpetuated, but reflect not that they are in general those who cannot trust to a casual purchase to defray the great expence incurred by publishing a work of even a moderate size.

The volume before us contains twenty sermons. 1. The desire of life. 2. The unreasonableness of discontent. 3. The unprofitableness of discontent. 4. The union of godliness with contentment. 5. The influence of the changes of life to promote the fear of God. 6. The resemblance between the rain and the snow, and the word of God. 7. The sinfulness of disregarding conscientious doubts. 8. The lawfulness of deriving innocent enjoyments from the gifts of God. 9. The generous and comprehensive spirit of the christian religion. 10. The disinterested benevolence of our Lord Jesus Christ. 11. Active benevolence honoured and rewarded by God. 12. The proper estimation of ourselves with regard to God. 13. The proper estimation of ourselves with regard to men. 14. The long suffering of brotherly kindness. 15. Observations on the unbelief of our Lord's kinsmen. 16. God not chargeable with the sins of men. 17. The guilt incurred by leading others into sin. 18. The danger of suffering ourselves to be misled by others. 19. The importance and necessity of pleasure in the service of God. 20. Death considered as a separation from the society of men.

These important subjects, selected and arranged, as is evident from the above enumeration, with great judgment, are treated with ability, and many weighty practical truths, deduced from them, are enforced with much energy and effect. We sincerely regret that our limits will not allow of all the extracts we should be glad to make. We will, however, select one passage, as a favourable specimen of our author's style and manner, and containing sound doctrine, too much overlooked and despised in the present noisy state of religion amongst us. It forms one topic in the sixth discourse.

"There is, thirdly, another point of resemblance between the rain and the snow, and the word of God, to which our thoughts may be turned with advantage; and that is, in their common manner of operation; both produce their intended effects gradually, gently, and silently.

"Such a point of resemblance is more plainly marked in other passages of scripture; in the words of the great messenger of God to his ancient people,—'my doctrine shall drop as the rain, my speech shall distil as the dew, as the small rain upon the tender herb, and as the showers upon the grass;' and in the prophetic declaration quoted before with a different view,—'he shall come down like

rain upon the mowen grass, as showers that water the earth.'

"The waters of heaven occasionally descend in torrents; and though, when they do so, they certainly accomplish some purpose of wisdom and kindness, they spread devastation and ruin within a small circle, and beyond that circle pass away with the same speed and violence with which they fall. It is when the rain drops upon the pastures of the wilderness, and when the dew distils unperceived, that the hills rejoice on every side, and the vallies are abundantly covered over with corn. It is in the silent, though never-ceasing influence of these great agents, that, in climates like ours, almost sure and uninterrupted fertility is produced. Unlike many of the performances of men; their effects are vast without parade, and magnificent without report.

"It was mentioned, you remember, as one of the characteristics of the long-promised Saviour, 'that he should not strive, nor cry, nor cause his voice to be heard in the streets.' Like gentleness, like entire freedom from all violence, noise, and pretence, are the genuine characteristics of the word of God, by whomsoever delivered. It appears to be the fixed rule of him, from whom it comes, that it should 'drop as the rain, and distil like the dew.' Once, indeed, he spake to his people from the midst of tremendous darkness, lightning and thunder; but this was to answer an extraordinary purpose. And whatever resemblance there may be in parts of the ancient law, or some circumstances of its dispensation, to the storms which ravage the earth, and alarm its inhabitants; nothing of the kind is to be seen in the gospel of Jesus Christ, and the way in which it was promulgated. The Saviour and his religion uniformly came down like 'the small rain upon the tender herb,' and with the usual gentleness and silence of the showers that water the earth. He himself declared, that 'the kingdom of God cometh not with observation.' In the beginning, it came not with pomp and power, and a loud report among men. It prevailed gloriously indeed; but without any helps or recommendations of this sort. So it has proceeded in subsequent ages; gently, modestly, and privately, like its founder; unpretending, like the principles on which it is built. So it proceeds at present; and the more strictly it abides by this rule, the more free it is from all just suspicion. As well when it first takes possession of the heart, as in its establishment and progress, it appears the more truly honourable the less notice it claims; the more sure in proportion to its gradual advancement.

"Christians have imagined, indeed, that the 'quick and powerful' nature of the word of God ought to be displayed by some striking change; especially at its first entrance into the mind. But most pretences to sudden and noisy conversion seem to be strongly reprobated by that representation of the divine

wisdom, to which we are now attending. In the hand of him, who issues its commission, it may come like the resistless torrent from the clouds, and instantly bear down every thing that opposes; for we are not to suppose that he is fettered by rules, nor can we without extreme presumption set bounds to his operations. But facts, as well as reason and analogy, afford ground to apprehend that such effects may be as transient as they are sudden; as fruitless of abiding good as they are full of wonder. Cases of this kind appear much less like the rain and the snow, as they usually come down from heaven, than like what is called the bursting of a cloud upon the mountains; which inundates the neighbourhood instead of softening and fertilising it, and sometimes tears up the very soil, and leaves the spot a ruin which before was a wilderness.

"And if the representation before us do thus reprove on the one hand, it no less effectually elevates and comforts on the other. The friends of divine truth often lament that its effects are not more apparent and striking. They, who have laboured long to unfold and

inculcate it, seeing as they imagine the little fruit of their endeavours, are continually ready to take up the mournful complaint,—ah, 'I have laboured in vain, I have spent my strength for nought.' Let them remember that it is the determination of him, from whom this word proceeds, that its operation and progress shall be like those of the rain and the snow. Let them recollect that there may be very desirable fruits of their labour, where these effects are but little manifest to the world. Let them hope that in many cases, the word, which seems to return unto them void, is yet operating for good slowly and silently. The christian, who mourns that he is unimpressed and unedified by their ministry, may, in a state of greater light, discern that it would have been fatal to his character and his hopes, to have been left without the aid which they afforded him."

The friends of the author have, we believe, not indulged a vain hope, 'that these sermons will be acceptable and useful in a much larger circle than that to which they have been confined.'

ART. XXIII. *Sermons on various Subjects.* By JOHN GROSE, A. M. F. A. S. Curate of the United Parishes of St. Margaret Pattens, and St. Gabriel, Fenchurch, Lecturer, &c. 8vo. pp. 213.

THIS is a second volume of discourses, from the same author, and it owes its publicity, as he informs us in the preface, to the liberal encouragement which was shewn to the former volume.

The sermons are thirteen in number, and upon the following subjects: 1. Gratitude to God. 2. The case of the leper mentioned in the 5th chapter of Luke. 3. On not living to ourselves. 4. On the parable of the virgins. 5. On the fall of Peter. 6. On indifference in religion. 7. On conforming to the world. 8. On a future resurrection. 9. On the power of conscience. 10. On doing well. 11. On the parable of the debtor

and two creditors. 12. On the love of God. 13. On the fear of death.

In this volume we meet with no instructive elucidation of the language of scripture, no laboured defence of our common faith, no flights of a bold and towering eloquence. Upon the principles of the established religion, in language generally plain, but sometimes approaching to affectation, the preacher addresses himself not so much to the judgment as to the feelings of his audience, and endeavours not so much to convey information, as from the influence of those motives which arise from the revelation of a future life, to lead them to a wise use of that which is present.

ART. XXIV. *Sermons chiefly designed to elucidate some of the leading Doctrines of the Gospel.* By the Rev. EDWARD COOPER, Rector of Hamstall Ridware, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 344.

THE author of this volume, as he himself informs us, once preached a sermon before the archdeacon and clergy of Stafford, and afterwards printed it at their request. This sermon was favourably received, and the preacher obtained many concurring testimonies from different highly respected quarters, of the soundness and orthodoxy of the doctrines which he had maintained. By this circumstance he was induced to pre-

pare a small volume of sermons, in which those doctrines should be more distinctly stated, and more clearly elucidated. In the composition of these, the object he kept immediately in view, he assures us, was to give a faithful and perspicuous statement of evangelical truth, and he now submits them to the public eye with the hope that they may be instrumental in spreading the knowledge of that truth. That such was the object, which the

author proposed to himself, we have no reason to doubt; that such was his ardent wish, we are not disposed, as we are not qualified, to question. But the objects of our fondest pursuit are not always obtained, nor are our purest and most benevolent wishes always gratified. The author thinks he has discovered evangelical truth; others have thought the same, who have maintained scarcely any of the principles that are here expounded; others also, with equal zeal, and with more ability, have recommended their discoveries to general notice and acceptance, have met with partial attention, and soon passed away into oblivion. Our readers may judge of the system to which Mr. Cooper attaches the title of evangelical truth, by the following enumeration of the subjects upon which he treats: 1. God glorified in the sufferings of Christ. 2. Scriptural statement of the doctrine of justification. 3. The doctrine of justification by faith only, vindicated from the charge of encouraging

licentiousness. 4. Scriptural statement of the doctrines of human corruption, and of the renewal of the heart to holiness. 5. On the gift of the spirit. 6. On the danger of being corrupted from the simplicity that is in Christ. 7. Christ's yoke an easy yoke. 8. Christ's burden an easy burden. 9. The danger of a worldly spirit illustrated in the history of Lot. 10. On the design and duties of the sabbath. 11. On the danger and misery of self-deception. 12. Christ the beloved and the friend of his people.

Concerning the truth of our author's principles, it is not our province to judge. They are such as have received the sanction of councils and synods, and are avowed in the articles of our national church. We shall, therefore, only observe, that they are recommended by the preacher by means of the usual arguments, without any attempt to give to them any new interest, either by novelty of thought, or eloquence of diction.

ART. XXV. *Lectures delivered in the Parish Church of Wakefield, in the Year 1802, on that Part of the Liturgy of the Church of England contained in the Morning Prayer.* By THOMAS ROGERS, M. A. Master of the Grammar School, &c. &c. 2 vols. pp. 275 and 286.

THESE volumes comprehend *thirty-one* lectures, in which every part of the morning service is distinctly treated; not indeed, as the author himself confesses, with any originality of thought, but in such a manner as he conceived would impress upon the minds of the people, to whom these lectures were delivered, a due sense of the excellency and utility of the liturgy of the church, and lead them, as far as possible, to reduce to daily practice, what is professedly admired and believed by her members. The preacher congratulates himself upon having attained his object; and for the sake of his own fame, he would have been wise had he been satisfied with this. Having by the delivery of these lectures answered, as he supposes, so important an end, he ought to have been aware that the publication of them, however solicited by his parishioners, who cannot be supposed to know so much of books as himself, was entirely superseded by the similar, but superior and more extensive publications of Wheatley, Shepherd, and others; and he ought to have recommended the perusal of these, as conveying more information than he had

to communicate. But powerful is the charm of seeing our name emblazoned by the magic hand of the typographer; then displayed in the diurnal, or the monthly, or the annual publications; and finally exposed to the wandering eye that skims the motley surface of the loaded table of the bookseller. Many a charitable institution, and many a suffering individual, receives the boon that is to purchase the honour of a printed name; many a starving son of genius, by the lure of a printed list of subscribers, obtains the reward which his talents alone would not have earned; and over many a dull and useless volume, are we condemned to pore, and nod, which, but from a similar principle, would have been kept in its original and merited obscurity.

Two sermons are added to the lectures, one preached on Christmas-day, 1802; the other on the first Sunday in the year 1803.

These, like the lectures, display great seriousness and great orthodoxy, and like them, are destitute of every other quality that can entitle them to the honour of publication.

ART. XXVI. *Sermons, by the Rev. THOMAS GISBORNE, M. A.* Vol. II. 2d edit. pp. 442.

Mr. GISBORNE is so well known to the public, and so generally respected as a wise and able instructor in religion and morality, that all praise from us would be superfluous. We have only to an-

nounce, what many will hear with pleasure, that the second volume of his useful sermons has arrived at a second edition.

ART. XXVII. *Sermons, selected and abridged chiefly from Minor Authors, from Trinity Sunday to the Twenty-fifth Sunday inclusive, adapted generally to the Epistle, Gospel, or first Lessons, or to the several Seasons of the Year. Together with Eight occasional Sermons on important Subjects; and an earnest Exhortation to attend Public Worship, &c. &c. addressed by a Clergyman to his Parishioners. For the Use of Families. By the Rev. S. CLAPHAM, Vicar of Christ Church, Hanis, &c. &c.* Vol. II. 8vo. pp. 716.

THIS ponderous volume, properly introduced to the world by a heavy title, is composed of the labours of many divines, whose works are rarely met with, and some of whose names are recorded only in their own scanty and almost forgotten works, or on the mouldering stone that covers their earthly remains, in some obscure repository of the dead. The most considerable contributors are Skelton, Dr. St. John and Riddoch; bishop Richmond, Dr. Lawson, Dr. Lewis Atterbury, Peters, and Reay, have also afforded their aid. Dr. Elsmere has furnished one sermon, as also Munton, Goddard, bishop Hickman, Lloyd, Scattergood, bishop Pearce, Dr. Powell, and Catcott. And six of the sixty sermons that form the volume, are from the pen of the editor. These are upon the following subjects: Nathan's reply

to David; the second sermon for the sixth Sunday after Trinity; the pharisee and the publican; the second sermon for the eleventh Sunday after Trinity; the advantages and disadvantages arising from Methodism examined, printed before separately; the duty and advantage of pastoral visits; perjury; and Sunday schools.

The first volume of this selection has already come to a third edition, and a similar fate most probably awaits the present, both on account of the judicious manner in which it is in general compiled, and the extensive benefit it promises to those preachers who want the industry or the ability to furnish new things from the stores of their own minds, or old things from the labours of their predecessors in the gospel vineyard.

ART. XXVIII. *Sermons on several Subjects and Occasions. By GEORGE VANBRUGH, LL. B. Rector of Aughton, and Chaplain to his Royal Highness Prince William Frederick.* 8vo. pp. 181.

THIS work is from the Liverpool press, and affords a very favourable specimen of the excellence to which the art of printing may be carried in a provincial town. We wish it were in our power also to observe, that this small volume afforded us a favourable specimen of the preacher's abilities, as it does of his good intentions and his truly christian spirit. But what can we, with strict impartiality, say of an author who ventures before the public with such negligent composition as the following sentences exhibit?

"But the case is not so with states and kingdoms: for God is the gracious parent of all mankind; and these are more especially

the objects of his care and protection, because they are eminently useful for the preservation of order and harmony in the moral world, and the promotion of public good. And, therefore, we may suppose, whenever they act contrary to this fundamental design of their several establishments, they certainly become subject to the just judgment of God." P. 3.

"We find a desire of happiness implanted within us, in common with all other creatures, which, we may be certain, was not given us in vain. To those beneath us, this has been placed in the present moment: but man, created in the image of his Maker, and endowed by him with the faculties of reason and understanding, has been thereby made capable of reflecting upon the past, and looking forward to the future."—P. 71.

"How truly impressive, and awful this reflection, that almost every *beast of the pen-dulum strikes the arrow of death* to some human being!"—P. 122.

"Let us first consider the event itself, and the remarkable circumstances which attended it, and we shall be enabled to make such observations upon it, as may be useful throughout the whole of our lives: but, more especially, as may produce in us that excellent virtue, humility; highly ornamental in every situation; and, with regard to our religious conduct, is able to lay in us that foundation for obedience in faith and practice, and for our acceptance with God, 'which never can be removed, but standeth fast for ever.'—P. 127.

"From having been so near the person of his blessed Lord, the natural warmth of his disposition must have been excited to the most attached veneration."—P. 134, &c.

We are disposed to give Mr. Vanbrugh full credit for the most upright intentions, and the purest zeal in the important situation that he holds as a minister of the gospel; but we are persuaded that neither the interests of the public, nor the fame of the preacher would have suffered, if the sermons now published had not been known beyond the walls within which they were originally delivered.

The volume contains ten sermons, upon miscellaneous subjects; Remarks on the Sacrament; and a small tract, which, in a separate form, has passed through three editions, entitled, "Thoughts on the Observance of the Sabbath, and on Private Prayer, with suitable Devotions."

ART. XXIX. *Sermons, and other Miscellaneous Pieces.* By the late HENRY HUNTER, D. D. Minister of the Scots Church, London Wall. To which are prefixed, *A Biographical Sketch of his Life, and a Critical Account of his Writings.* 2 vols, 8vo. pp. 327 and 346.

IT is well for the fame of the late Dr. Hunter, that it does not rest upon the present posthumous publication. The editor indeed conceives that, in publishing these volumes, a duty due to their author is discharged. If we are not greatly mistaken in our judgment, the duty consisted in withholding them from the public. Not that they will prove altogether useless, but because they are in every respect inferior to the former discourses of this often eloquent preacher.

The first volume contains the biographical sketch, and seventeen sermons composed for the service of the Lord's supper, with a few introductory addresses, suited to the peculiarities attending that service in the church of Scotland.

The second volume contains two sermons delivered at the admission of ministers; a sermon addressed to seafaring men, and *fourteen* upon the following subjects; on Purity of Conscience; the exceeding Riches of God's Grace; the Promises of God an Incitement to Holiness; on the Parable of the Fig-Tree; on seeking the Kingdom of God; on Love to Christ; on the Duty of Praise; on Salvation by Grace; on returning to

God; for a Fast-Day; on Affliction; on the certainty of Death; and, the Christian Traveller towards Zion. There are besides five funeral pieces, delivered at the grave, and an Address to the Female Society.

In all these discourses we meet with some of the author's peculiar faults, but very few of the excellencies by which the discourses, published under his own direction, were so generally marked. When such instances as the present come before us, we feel but little disposed to censure those writers who, having earned a fair reputation during their days of mental vigour, consign to destruction all the secret fruits of their labours, lest the injudicious hand of surviving friendship should tarnish the name which it means to emblazon. The present editor stands convicted by his own confession. "The volumes at present offered to the public, close the list of his (Dr. Hunter's) printed discourses. Imperfections may no doubt be discovered in them; some of these posthumous sermons were written in haste; others were never revised; none of them received the author's finishing touch, nor were indeed at all designed for publication."

ART. XXX. *Sermons on the Evil that are in the World, and on various other Topics; from the German of the Rev. GEORGE JOACHIM ZOLLIKOFER, Minister of the reformed Congregation at Leipsick. By the Rev. WILLIAM TOOKE, F.R.S. In 2 vols. 8vo.*

THE character of Zollikofer, as a preacher, has been so long established, and the public have now had so many opportunities of judging of his merits, as far as they can be discovered under the veil of a translation, that we feel ourselves called upon to do little more than announce the subjects which are discussed in the volumes now before us.

The sermons are in number fifty-eight. 1. 2. 3. 4. Of the Evils that are in the World.—5. The Coming of the Kingdom of God.—6. Of the future general Judgment.—7. Joy on the Birth of Christ.—8. What we should have been without the Christian Doctrine; and what we are, and may become, by it.—9. The Holy Communion, a social Feast.—10. Retrospect of the past Year. 11.—Prospect of the Year commenced.—12. and 13. Justification of Divine Providence, in regard to the terrestrial Welfare of the Impious and the Pious.—14. Sin considered as the primary Source of human Misery.—15. Sin considered as the primary Source of human Misery in regard to the future State.—16. How we make ourselves Partakers of other Men's Sins.—17. Directions for learning to pray from the Heart.—18. and 19. On Public Diversions.—20. The principal Sources of Infidelity.—21. Some of the Prejudices against Christianity combated.—22. Some of the Prejudices against the Christian Morality combated.—23. How every one is able, and ought to labour at promoting the Public Prosperity.—24. How we may and ought to make religion our main concern.—25. The Christian Preparation for future Sufferings.—26. How well it is for Mankind that they are ignorant of the Future.—27. The Behaviour of the Disciples of Jesus during his Sufferings and Death; and the Manner in which the Evangelists narrate this History considered as a Proof of their Integrity and Divine Mission.—28. The Account of the Sufferings and Death of Jesus considered as a Proof of his exalted Character and his Divine Mission.—29. The Triumph of Death, and the Triumph of Life.—30. and 31. Of loving God.—32. The comfortable Declaration of Jesus concerning the future Life.—33. The Holy Communion a Feast of Love. 34. The Spirit of Christianity.—35. The Prudence of the Worldly-minded a

Reproach to Christianity.—36. The Grounds and Sources of Christian Fortitude.—37. Religion the constant Guide and Friend of Man.—38. Of Self-Knowledge, and the Means of acquiring it.—39. The Impediments to Self-Knowledge.—40. Self-Examination concerning our Thoughts and Actions.—41. Self-Examination in regard to the Reception of the Holy Communion.—42. The Advantages of virtuous Industry.—43. The Advantage of Moderation in the Enjoyment of sensual Pleasure.—44. What true Honour is, and how we should behave in regard to Honour.—45. The Substance of Christianity.—46. Whence it arises that Christianity operates not more efficaciously among its Professors.—47. Whether or not Christianity be favourable to Patriotism.—48. The Value of Fidelity.—49. Signs of Growth in Goodness.—50. Encouragement and Direction to Growth in Goodness.—51. Mankind considered as Strangers and Sojourners on Earth.—52. The Duty of brotherly Correction.—53. Humility a Means of Contentment.—54. Who is particularly qualified for being a Christian.—55. By what Means the Sense of Truth is weakened and suppressed.—56. The Christian a singular Character, in a good Sense of the Expression.—57. Application of the Question, What do ye more than others?—58. The Brevity and Trouble of Life.

In most of these discourses the preacher maintains the high character he had before acquired by the eloquence with which he recommends the most important truths, and enforces the most weighty doctrines: and we are glad to find, from an advertisement accompanying the present publication, that two additional volumes are preparing for the press, containing Sermons on Education, and on various other topics. In these we hope the translator will be careful to avoid all such expressions as, 'streams of fugacity,' 'harmonious jubilation,' 'inmarcescible crowns,' 'through and through devout,' 'staving off reflection,' 'contemptible spawn of fanaticism,'—with many others, far too numerous to be cited here;—not more offensive to the ear of taste, than contrary to the pure idiom of the English language.

ART. XXXI. *The Trial of the Spirit's, a seasonable Caution against Spiritual Delusion; in Three Discourses, addressed to the Congregation assembled in Christ Church, Bath. By the Rev. CHARLES DAUBENY, Minister of Christ Church, Bath.* 8vo. pp. 78.

THE spirits are the fanatic methodists. Mr. Daubeny puts them all into the scale of the gospel, and as they kick the beam, he exclaims in triumph, "*Mene, Mene, Tekel, Upharsin.*" And what wonder that they will not abide the test, since Mr. Daubeny has proved them descended in a direct line from the devil, who was not only a murderer, but a *methodist*, from the beginning. Do not be startled, Christian reader, behold the proof.

"St. Paul, writing to his disciples at Ephesus, with the view of guarding them against being 'tossed to and fro, and carried about with every wind of doctrine, by the sleight of men, and cunning craftiness, whereby they lie in wait

to deceive;' or (as it might be more literally translated) "by the cheating of men, through their craftiness, for the management of error;" directs them, to "put on the whole armour of God, that they might be able to stand against the wiles of the devil;" or, as the word might be translated, against the "*methodisms* of the devil." ("*Τὰς μεθόδους τοῦ Διαβόλου.*") See p. 41, 42.

From so able a critic, what important aid may not be expected in elucidating the obscurities of the sacred page! From such a sublime reasoner, what "horrid ruin and combustion" may not be dreaded by the rebellious spirits who raise impious war against hierarchical dignities and powers!

SINGLE SERMONS.

ART. XXXII. *The Sword of the Lord: a Sermon preached on Friday, May 25, 1804, being the Day appointed by his Majesty's Proclamation for a General Fast. By the Rev. G. H. GLASSE, A. M. Rector of Hanwell, &c. &c.* 8vo. pp. 22.

THIS very animated discourse, from the sublime apostrophe of the prophet Jeremiah, (ch. xlvii. 6.) "O thou sword of the Lord, how long will it be ere thou be quiet? Put up thyself into thy scabbard, rest, and be still;" is inscribed to the memory of the murdered duke of

Enghien. The preacher draws the usual picture of the present ruler of the French, and exhorts to a vigorous resistance of his lawless ambition, and of his menaced attacks upon our native land.

ART. XXXIII. *War inconsistent with Christianity: a Sermon preached at St. James's Church, Bath, Friday, May 25th, 1804, on the Day of the General Fast; by the Rev. RICHARD WARNER, Curate of that Parish.* 8vo. pp. 20.

OF a very different complexion from the preceding, is the discourse now before us. "Put up again thy sword into his place, (said our Lord to Peter, Matt. xxvi. 52.) for all they that take the sword, shall perish with (rather, by) the sword." From this and another passage introduced into the discourse, Mr. Warner attempts to prove that Christ has expressly forbidden the practice of war. Refraining from all remarks of a political nature on the effects of war; such as its interference with "the external affairs, relations, and economies of a country;" he presents to our view this "foul fiend" as destroying the

charities of natural feeling, and dissipating the felicities of private life, corrupting the morals of the community, and directly counteracting the principles of the gospel. War, therefore, whether offensive or defensive, he asserts, is inconsistent with christianity. As the subject is of high importance, Mr. Warner invited discussion, and his invitation has been accepted. Not long after the second edition of this sermon, which was called for before the seventh of June, the following tract appeared, which we cannot notice more conveniently than in this place:

ART. XXXIV. *A Letter to the Rev. Richard Warner.* 8vo. pp. 43.

THIS appears to have been written by the Rev. T. Falconer, who heartily concurred with Mr. Warner upon the subject of Sunday drills, and contributed his assistance in the controversy, which we have already stated to have taken place upon that subject, in the Bath Chronicle. This letter displays much good sense, and fair argument; and if it is not marked by the ardour of sentiment, and vehemence of expression, that prevail in the sermon, it is distinguished

by something much better: cool and candid reasoning, close and unsophisticated discussion of the merits of the very important question. Besides what will, in general, we apprehend, be deemed a very satisfactory examination of the principles adopted in the preceding sermon, the author of this letter has offered some advice, which we persuade ourselves Mr. Warner will gratefully receive, and carefully follow. But the discussion does not end here.

ART. XXXV. *Christianity, a System of Peace: a Letter to the Rev. T. Falconer; in which a Vindication of the Subject of the Rev. Richard Warner's Sermon, entitled, "War inconsistent with Christianity," is attempted.* 8vo. pp. 24.

THE attempt is creditable to the feelings of the writer; but it is, for the most part, the echo of the doctrine that

sounded from the pulpit of St. James's, Bath.

ART. XXXVI. *War not inconsistent with Christianity. A Discourse from John xviii. 36. Intended to have been delivered at the Parish Church of St. Augustine, Bristol. By the Rev. J. EVANS.* 8vo. pp. 47.

THE text which our preacher has chosen is one of the two passages upon which Mr. Warner lays the greatest stress. "When Jesus Christ, he observes, at the tribunal of Pontius Pilate, made this positive declaration, 'My kingdom is not of this world: if my kingdom were of this world, then would my servants fight, that I should not be delivered unto the Jews; but now is my kingdom not from hence;' he set at rest

for ever the much agitated question, of the consistency or inconsistency of war with the Christian religion." *Warner's Sermon*, p. 17. Mr. Evans has, however, endeavoured to shew, and not without success, that neither this nor any other passage of the New Testament affords a direct prohibition of war, except such as is undertaken for the propagation of religion.

ART. XXXVII. *Zeal and Fortitude in the Christian Ministry illustrated and exemplified. A Discourse delivered at Hockney, April 8, 1804, on occasion of the Death of the Rev. Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. &c. published at the Desire of the Congregation. To which is annexed, a brief Memoir of Dr. Priestley's Life and Writings, and a Letter from his Son, Mr. Jos. Priestley, containing the Particulars of his last Sickness. By THOMAS BELSHAM.* 8vo. pp. 61.

ART. XXXVIII. *A Sermon preached in the Unitarian Chapel, in Essex Street, London, Sunday, April 15, 1804, on occasion of the Death of the Rev. Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. &c. &c. who died at Northumberland in Pennsylvania, North America, Feb. 6, 1804. Published at particular Request. By JOHN DISNEY, D. D. F. S. A.* 8vo. pp. 22.

ART. XXXIX. *A Sermon occasioned by the Death of the late Rev. Dr. Joseph Priestley. Delivered in the Dissenting Chapel in Monkwell Street, on Sunday Evening, April 15, 1804. By JOHN EDWARDS.* 8vo. pp. 47.

ART. XL. *A Biographical Tribute to the Memory of the Rev. Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. in an Address to the Congregation of Protestant Dissenters, at the New Meeting, in Birmingham, Delivered April 22, 1804, on occasion of his Death. By JOSHUA TOULMIN, D. D. To which is added a Letter to the Congregation, by JOHN KENTISH. Both published at the unanimous Request of the Society. To which are prefixed, The*

Resolutions of a special General Meeting of the Congregation, held the 15th of April. 8vo. pp. 40.

ART. XLI. *A Sermon preached April 22, 1804, at Mill-hill Chapel, in Leeds, on the Death of the Rev. Dr. Priestley, formerly Minister of that Chapel; published at the Request of the Congregation. By WILLIAM WOOD, F. L. S.* 8vo. pp. 45.

THE above are all the sermons that have been published upon the event of Dr. Priestley's death; though we have reason to believe that many more, as might be naturally expected, were preached. These vary much in their particular character, though the object be the same in all.

Mr. Belsham has selected for his text the words of Paul, Acts xx. 24. "But none of these things move me, neither count I my life dear unto myself, so that I might finish my course with joy, and the ministry which I have received of the Lord Jesus, to testify the gospel of the grace of God." "This, says the preacher, was not an empty boast;" and he proceeds to delineate the character and the conduct of the great apostle of the gentiles, and to shew with what zeal he surmounted every difficulty; with what courage he braved every danger; with what fortitude he sustained every trial of his faith and patience, in the discharge of the important duty of preaching the gospel, to which he had been called; animated and supported by the confident expectation of future felicity. From contemplating the character of Paul, Mr. Belsham passes to that of Dr. Priestley, as from the prototype to the copy. He confines himself to "that view of it which is least attractive to the world, and which is held in little estimation by many who entertain the highest opinion of his literary and philosophical talents and acquisitions; but upon which he himself set the highest value, namely, his character as a Christian minister, and an enlightened, able, and zealous advocate of Christian truth." The delineation is performed in glowing colours, and by a very able hand; and if any be disposed to suspect, as many will, and perhaps not without reason, that it is too perfect to be in every line a true picture, let them remember that it proceeds from one who has long been proud to hail the great original as his "guide, philosopher and friend.*" The imperfections of a guide whom we revere, and a friend whom we cordially love, are sometimes thrown into the same dark

shades that conceal our own, at least, from ourselves.

Dr. Disney has chosen for the same occasion the following passage in Revelations, ch. xiv. 13. "Blessed are the dead who die in the Lord, from henceforth: yea, saith the Spirit, that they may rest upon their labours; and their works do follow them." This very plain discourse has been so well received, as to appear in a second edition. We meet with nothing in it remarkably striking or impressive. The character of the deceased as a philosopher and divine is celebrated, but not with all the warmth that might have been expected from the minister of the unitarian chapel in Essex street.

Mr. Edwards, colleague with Dr. Priestley at Birmingham, has selected the words of Daniel, ch. xii. 3. "And they that be wise shall shine as the brightness of the firmament, and they that turn many unto righteousness as the stars for ever and ever." Five and twenty pages are occupied in such remarks upon the material, the intellectual, and the moral world, as may justify this conclusion: "Religion is the best means of virtue, and virtue is the best means of happiness. And next under the ever blessed God himself, and the gospel which he sent us by Jesus the Christ, the greatest encouragement and support to religion and virtue, are the discourse and example of a truly religious and virtuous man.—Such was Dr. Priestley." The remaining part of the discourse is chiefly biographical. The composition is negligent; and, at the same time, in many instances, marked by a degree of affectation very unbecoming the subject, or the occasion of the discourse.

Dr. Toulmin, placed on the very spot in which the venerable character, whom he had to celebrate, had received the cruel insults, and endured the furious persecutions by which he was eventually driven from his native country, had an arduous duty to perform, and the manner in which he has performed it reflects equal honour upon his judgment and his feelings. A long and laboured pane-

* The preacher's motto to his discourse.

gyric, which the affection of the preacher for his departed friend, and the many acknowledged excellencies of that friend might have fully warranted, would have been productive of little good effect, either upon the regular attendants at the New Meeting, or upon the strangers who were attracted thither by the service of the day. With much wisdom, therefore, the preacher determined that Dr. Priestley should speak for himself, by means of a very judicious selection from his numerous writings. They who had formerly rejoiced in "the benefit of his enlightening ministry and bright example," would be gratified to hear him, though dead, yet speaking; and they who knew little of his character, but from injurious and malignant reports, would be deeply impressed by the discovery that he who had been so cruelly persecuted, spake like a good man, a virtuous citizen, a peaceful subject, and was so eminently distinguished by benevolence to man, and piety to God. And we are not surprised that this judicious and conciliatory address "was not only heard with marked attention, but had a happy influence on the minds of many who came possessed with prejudices against the character, to which it attempted to do justice." (Dedication.) The text chosen by Mr. Toulmin is very appropriate; John v. 35. "He was a burning and shining light; and ye were willing, for a season, to rejoice in his light."

Mr. Wood has adopted the same words, with a trifling alteration, which renders them still more appropriate to the occasion; "He was a burning and a shining light, and for a season ye rejoiced in his light." This discourse is written with great ability, and admirably adapted to the mixed audience which the preacher appears to have addressed. The character and the writings of Dr. Priestley are appreciated in a very fair and masterly manner, and both successfully vindicated from the charges which ignorance or malice had brought against them; while both are candidly allowed to exhibit some of the defects that are incident to human nature in its best state, and to human productions of the highest authority. Praise is not here lavished without discrimination. The eulogy appears to proceed from one who

is deeply impressed by the various and extraordinary talents, the rare and exalted virtues of the great character that is celebrated; but who at the same time is accustomed, in his own researches, not to be dazzled by the splendour of a name, and is determined to "call no man master upon earth."

We cannot conclude our remarks upon these discourses with more propriety, than with the animated conclusion of the last.

"He has now finished a long and eventful life: he has gone through good and evil report: he has met with affectionate friends and malignant enemies: he has experienced in this world much enjoyment, and not a little suffering. He was a man, and therefore liable to err. Like all other men he doubtless sometimes erred. His judgment was fallible, and might sometimes mistake falsehood for truth: his feelings were strong, and his language might not always be sufficiently guarded. But his heart was never materially wrong: his life was an uniform course of sincere and rational godliness, of unwearyed and extensive usefulness, of strict and undeviating personal virtue. And his last moments were in perfect unison with the whole of his former days: his ruling passions, a love of sacred truth, a desire to promote the extension of religious knowledge, and a warm regard to the best interests of mankind, continued with him till the hour of death. *He rests from his labour and his works follow him. He has been a burning and a shining light; and those who truly knew him rejoiced in his light.* Like a fervent summer's sun, he rose at an early hour, to send forth his beams far and wide, and illustrate the wonders of his creator's works; and though, when not far advanced beyond the height of noon, he was assailed by a sudden storm, which hid him from the eyes of men, and seemed for a time to have blotted him out from the firmament of heaven, he moved in a sphere far above its reach, and passed on with undiminished strength. His rays were intercepted, but not extinguished: his glory was obscured, but not lost. He soon dispelled the thickest blackness of the gloom, burst, at length, through the yielding cloud, and at the solemn hour of eve, appeared all calm and serene, with a less dazzling splendor, but apparently with a larger orb; giving to the admiring world a delightful earnest that he will rise again to a brighter morn, and shine with a new lustre through the ever extending course of a constant day."

ART. XLII. *A Sermon preached before the Society for the Suppression of Vice, in the Parish Church of St. George, Hanover Square, on Thursday the 3d of May, 1804. By RICHARD WATSON, D. D. F. R. S. Lord Bishop of Landaff.* 8vo. pp. 27.

THIS sermon contains many just and important sentiments upon the tendency to vice, which is ever found to prevail amongst numerous bodies of men; upon the means of checking it; and the duty of the well-disposed to unite in using these means. The text is taken from Gal. vi. 9. "Let us not be weary of well doing." The society before whom this discourse was delivered, needs all the advice which is here offered, and much more. The members of this society appear to be by no means deficient in zeal, but prudence and impartiality are not the qualities by which they are eminently distinguished. Allowing their right to constitute themselves guardians of the laws, and censors of the public morals; a right which, however, may be fairly called in question, especially if exercised in the manner in which they have used it on several occasions; we would ask, is it consistent with the dignity and the immaculate purity, which in their associated capacity they ought to possess, to employ the lowest and the most profligate of the community as common informers? Is it just to drag to punishment the alehouse tippler, whilst the inebriated son of fashion is unmolested; to disturb the festive dance of the labouring mechanic, while the rich

and the gay pursue, without controul, their midnight revelry, and, under the guise of the motley figures of the masquerade, violate common decency, and scatter the seeds of pollution? The means which this society takes are neither honourable nor effective, neither consistent with the character of this land of freedom, nor adapted to produce the desired end. Crimes cannot be effectually prevented by vexatious informations, solitary confinement, or heavy penalties. Let those in higher life set an example of piety and decorum, and the lower ranks will soon follow that example. Let the education of the poor become an object of wise and sedulous attention to those who are better informed, and there will be no occasion for societies for the suppression of vice. "A tenth part of that treasure, as the right reverend preacher very justly observes, which is annually expended, by the different states of Christendom, in unchristian warfare, would supply for ever the expence of establishments in every country, in which the morals of thousands would be amended, their idleness changed into industry, their profligacy into sobriety, their lives preserved for the public good, and the peace of society maintained."

ART. XLIII. *A Sermon preached at the Visitation of the Venerable the Archdeacon of Norwich, holden at Walsingham, May 3, 1804; and printed at the Desire of the Clergy present. By MATTHEW SKINNER, M. A. F. A. S. &c. &c.* 8vo. pp. 24.

FROM 2 Tim. ii. 24. "The servant of the Lord must not strive; but be gentle unto all men; apt to teach; patient—" the preacher, with great ability, and according to the true spirit of the gospel, enforces some of the most important duties of the christian ministers. It is much to the honour of the

clergy to whom it was delivered, that they requested its publication; and we sincerely hope that it will promote the cause of liberality, and tend to secure the respectability of the clerical character, far beyond the limits of the ecclesiastical jurisdiction in which it was originally confined.

ART. XLIV. *Reflections on the Exercise of Private Judgment in Matters of Religion: a Discourse delivered May 22, 1804, at Dud'ey, before the Annual Assembly of Dissenting Ministers, and published at their unanimous Request. By JOHN CORRIE.* 8vo. pp. 80.

THIS very able preacher considers it as the first grand principle of those whom he addresses, that "it is the duty and the right of every one to exercise free enquiry and private judgment in matters of religion." He defends that

principle with many weighty arguments; he shows that the right is to be exercised in a full and free examination of the scriptures; he congratulates those who are not bound by confessions and subscriptions to articles of faith, as most

likely to form a proper judgment of the doctrines of scripture; he recommends a fearless investigation of the sacred records; and concludes with a well-drawn character of the late Dr. Priestley, the mention of whom is very suitable to the

preceding part of the discourse. The composition of this sermon displays the scholar; the spirit which animates almost every page, bespeaks the christian.

ART. XLV. *The Importance of Education to the Christian Minister: a Sermon, preached at George's Meeting-House, Exeter, June 17th, 1804, in recommendation of the Academical Institution in that City.* By JOHN KENTISH. 8vo. pp. 31.

IN this very sensible and well written discourse, from Matt. xiii. 52. Mr. Kentish shews that the knowledge essential to the christian teacher, will be procured with most advantage by means of education; and that education is most important to him, as it will aid him in communicating information. The importance of education to the minister of religion is further proved by the case of

the first preachers of the gospel, and by the history of the christian church; the preceding reasoning is then applied to the circumstances of protestant dissenters: and the academical institution at Exeter, for the preparation of young men for the dissenting ministry, is strenuously recommended to the patronage of the audience.

ART. XLVI. *The Influence of a Love of Religious Truth upon the Christian Minister: a Sermon, preached at the New Meeting House, in Birmingham, Sept. 9, 1804, on occasion of the Death of the Rev. T. Kenrick.* By JOHN KENTISH. 8vo. pp. 41.

BY the unexpected death of Mr. Kenrick, the academical institution at Exeter, for the benefit of which the preceding discourse was delivered, appears to have sustained the loss of a very able and zealous tutor, and the unitarian cause a very steady supporter. The whole of this discourse is an eulogy upon the deceased friend of the preacher, interspersed with many judicious and important

general observations. "The feelings of friendship," says Mr. Kentish, "are expressed in this discourse; yet I am conscious of having expressed them in no language but that of truth." Mr. Kenrick's death then must be deeply regretted by that body of christians to whom he belonged, and amongst whom he was so actively employed.

ART. XLVII. *Lectures on Preaching, and the several Branches of the Ministerial Office: including the Characters of the most celebrated Ministers among Dissenters, and in the Establishment.* By the Rev. P. DODDRIDGE, D. D. 12mo. pp. 126.

THESE lectures, though they have for half a century been circulated in manuscript among the pupils of Dr. Doddridge, or their descendants, were not known to the public till they appeared in the late edition of his works. They contain a very good account of the dif-

ferent preachers of name, whose sermons had been published before the death of Dr. Doddridge; and some useful advice to those who fill the station of ministers among the dissenters. They may also be read with advantage by the clergy of the established church.

ART. XLVIII. *Addresses to Young Men.* By JOSHUA TOULMIN, D. D. 12mo. pp. 188.

"THESE addresses, except the two last, the author observes, have lain by him some years. An anxious concern for the future conduct and happiness of several young gentlemen, on removing from under his tuition, suggested the composition of the first of them. This gave birth to those which follow. They

are now printed from an earnest desire to serve the rising generation; and, with this view, are submitted to the candour of the public, especially of young men, to whom we look up as to the pillars of society, and with ardent hope that they will shew themselves examples and patrons of truth, righteousness, and piety."

This little volume contains eight addresses: on self-mindedness; on religion, in two parts; on the pursuit of knowledge; on company; on conversation; on sympathy towards the sex and marriage; on application to trade, or a profession.

The subjects are of great importance; and they are treated in a very judicious and impressive manner. The rising generation cannot do better, either for themselves or for society, than to attend to the salutary advice which is here affectionately imparted.

A.B.T. XLIX. *A Manual of Religious Knowledge; for the Use of Sunday Schools, and of the Poor in general.* By the Rev. J. GRANT. Second Edition, greatly enlarged, 12mo.

IN the Sunday schools, or amongst the poor belonging to the establishment, this tract will be very useful.

A.B.T. L. *The Fashionable World displayed.* By THEOPHILUS CHRISTIAN, Esq. Small 8vo. pp. 81.

THIS is an ingenious satirical tract, the design of which is to point out the absurdities and inconsistencies of a professedly fashionable life; and, if possible, to bring to reason and reflection those who are engaged in it. As a specimen of our author's manner (whose book, at least, appears to be in some danger of becoming itself fashionable) we subjoin the following:

"The rage for amusements is so strong in this people, that it seems to supersede all exercise of judgment in the choice and the conduct of them. To go every where, see every thing, and know every body, are, in their estimation, objects of such importance, that, in order to accomplish them, they put themselves to the greatest inconveniences, and commit the very grossest absurdities. Hence they will rush in crowds, to shine where they cannot be seen, to dance where they cannot move, and to converse with friends whom they cannot approach; and, what is more, though they cannot breathe for the pressure, and can scarcely live for the heat, yet they call this—enjoyment.

"Nor does this passion suffer any material abatement by the progress of time. Many veterans visit, to the last, the haunts of polite dissipation; they lend their countenance to those dramas of vanity in which they can no longer act a part, and show their incurable attachment to the pleasures of this world, by their unwillingness to decline them. The infirmities which attend upon the close of life are certainly designed to produce other habits; and it should seem that when every thing announces an approaching dissolution, the amusements of the drawing-room might give place to the employments of the closet. Persons, however, of this description are of another mind; and as every difficulty on the score of teeth, hoariness, and wrinkles, can be removed by the happy expedients of ivory, hair-caps, and cosmetics, there is certainly no

physical objection to their continuing among their fashionable acquaintance till they are wanted in another world.

"I cannot illustrate this part of my subject better than by presenting my readers with the following Ode on the Spring, written by a man of fashion; it expresses, with so much exactness, the sentiments and taste of that extraordinary people, that it will stand in the place of a thousand observations upon their character.

ODE ON THE SPRING.

By a Man of Fashion.

"LO! where the party-giving dames,
Fair fashion's train, appear,
Disclose the long-expected games,
And wake the modish year.
The opera-warbler pours her throat,
Responsive to the actor's note,
The dear-bought harmony of Spring;
While, beaming pleasure as they fly,
Bright flambeaus through the murky sky
Their welcome fragrance fling.

Where'er the rout's full myriads close
The staircase and the door,
Where'er thick files of belles and beaux
Perspire through ev'ry pore:
Beside some faro-table's brink,
With me the muse shall stand and think,
(Hemm'd sweetly in by squeeze of state,)
How vast the comfort of the crowd,
How condescending are the proud,
How happy are the great!

Still is the toiling hand of Care,
The drays and hacks repose;
But, hark, how through the vacant air
The rattling clauour glows!
The wanton miss and rakish blade,
Eager to join the masquerade,
Thro' streets and squares pursue their fun;
Home in the dusk some bashful skin;
Some, ling'ring late, their motley trim
Exhibit to the sun.

To dissipation's playful eye,
 Such is the life for man,
 And they that halt and they that fly
 Should have no other plan :
 Alike the busy and the gay
 Should sport all night till break of day,
 In fashion's varying colours drest ;
 Till seiz'd for debt through rude mischance,
 Or chill'd by age, they leave the dance,
 In gaol or dust—to rest.

Methinks I hear, in accents low,
 Some sober quiz reply,
 Poor child of folly ! what art thou ?
 A Bond-street butterfly !
 Thy choice nor health nor nature greets,
 No taste hast thou of vernal sweets,
 Enslav'd by noise, and dress, and play :
 Ere thou art to the country flown,
 The sun will scorch, the spring be gone,
 'Then leave the town in May."

ART. LI. *A Sermon, preached at the Parish Church of St. Andrew by the Wardrobe and St. Anne, Blackfriars, on Tuesday in Whitsun Week, May 22, 1804, before the Society for Missions to Africa and the East, instituted by Members of the Established Church, being their fourth Anniversary. By the Rev. THOMAS T. BIDDULPH, M. A. Minister of St. James's, Bristol, and Chaplain to the Right Hon. the Dowager Lady Bagot. Also the Report of the Committee to the Annual Meeting, held on the same Day; and a List of Subscribers and Benefactors. Printed by Order of the General Meeting. Svo. pp. 113.*

THE missionary society, instituted by members of the established church, has at length succeeded in obtaining missionaries, and two Germans, Melchior Renner, and Peter Hartwig, educated for the purpose, at Berlin, under the care of the Rev. John Jaenicke, sailed for Sierra Leone in the beginning of the year 1804. Before this time they have entered upon their labours, and we look with impatience to the next annual report for an account of their success.

"Of all the nations which inhabit the vicinity of Sierra Leone, we have determined to make our first attempt among the Susoos; and to this determination we have been led by several considerations. The Rev. Mr. Brunton, having acquired some knowledge of the languages of that people, during his residence among them, has printed, by desire and at the expence of this society, several books of religious instruction, &c. in that tongue; which is the first of all the native languages of Western Africa, which has been reduced to fixed principles."

"The circumstance of its having been in our power to print books in the Susoo tongue might, of itself, seem sufficient to direct our first attention to that nation: our determination has, however, been strengthened by other considerations. The Susoo language is spoken not only through a considerable space approaching the coast, but over the extensive country which Mr. Park distinguishes by the name of Jallonkadoo, and is also frequently used by the Timmanees, Bulloms, and Mandingos, and by almost all the trading Foolas. Dr. White informs us, (vol. i. p. 10.) that it excels all the native languages in this quarter, and that in softness it approaches the Italian. He tells us, (ib. p. 5.) that the Susoos extend from the river Kisse stretching across the Rio Pongas, nearly as far as the Rio Nunee. This na-

tion, therefore, appears to open the widest field for missionary labours within an equal distance from the colony; and though it is more grossly superstitious than its neighbours, the Foolas and Mandingos, in consequence of those nations having received considerable light from Mahometanism, yet in some points of view it opposes fewer obstacles to the gospel."

It appears from the annual reports, that the society have had great difficulty in meeting with persons willing and able to undertake the laborious and hazardous employment of completing the object of their association, and carrying the tidings of the gospel to the benighted Africans. They have been obliged to apply to the Lutheran church, and still look thither for a succession of zealous men. Four students are now preparing themselves at Berlin, to aid or to succeed the worthy missionaries already entered upon their labours; and if heresy do not infect them, as it has lately infected one of their companions, who has, in consequence, been dismissed from the seminary, we suppose they will be soon ready to engage in their work of benevolence. "There is a good prospect, we are informed, of one or two zealous and devoted members of our own church coming forward, after due preparation, in this great cause." It has justly excited surprise, if not regret, that such have not appeared before; but, that while the Baptist and Methodist societies have been able to send to the East Indies, and the islands of the Pacific Ocean, zealous and disinterested missionaries, the members of the established church have been compelled to have recourse to a foreign seminary, and to

employ those who are beyond the pale of her communion.

The address to the missionaries now engaged, is drawn up with great ability, and is much to be commended for its prudent and truly christian spirit. The directions concerning the slave trade are very judicious.

"While the slave trade continues, it will throw great difficulties in the way of all attempts to civilize and evangelize the nations upon the coast, as most of the head men think themselves interested in its continuance. Yet you may avail yourselves of this trade, to illustrate the benevolence of those views with which you visit Africa; and, we may hope, not without effect, as 'the natives,' we are told, (*Winterbottom's Account*, &c. vol. 1. p. 209.) 'possess sufficient penetration to distinguish men of merit from the common herd of traders who infest that part.'

"You will take all prudent occasions of weaning the native chiefs from this traffic, by

depicting its criminality, the miseries which it occasions to Africa, and the obstacles which it opposes to a more profitable and generous intercourse with the European nations. But while you do this, you will cultivate kindness of spirit towards those persons, who are connected with this trade. You will make all due allowances for their habits, their prejudices, and their views of interest. Let them never be met by you with reproaches and invectives, however debased you may find them in mind and manners. Let them never have to charge you with intriguing against them, and thwarting their schemes; but let them feel, that though the silent influence of christianity must, whenever truly felt, undermine the sources of their gain, yet in you and in all under your influence, they meet with openness, simplicity, kindness, and brotherly love."

Of the sermon prefixed to the report and address, we have only to say, that it is plain and suitable to the occasion of its delivery.

ART. LII. *A General History of the Christian Church to the present Time.* By JOSEPH PRIESTLEY, LL. D. F. R. S. &c. In 6 vols. 8vo.

IT has been commonly regarded as a necessary qualification in an historian, that his mind should be perfectly free from every party or sectarian bias; and in deference to this opinion, they who have claimed the notice of the public in that character, have, in general, appeared anxious to avow themselves, and eager to persuade others that they really are, impartial. Such professions are not deserving of full credit. They are either absolutely and designedly false, intended to mislead; or they result, on the part of those who make them, from a total ignorance of themselves. It is not possible for any one who possesses the ordinary powers of judgment, and who is accustomed to exercise them, to feel indifferent with respect to many of the interesting subjects which occur both in civil and ecclesiastical history. The influence of education, and of numberless circumstances in the succeeding years of life, will inevitably give some bias to the mind in the judgment it forms of important events, and cause the same transactions to appear to different persons under very different aspects. The political or the religious principles which an historian has adopted, will be seen even in a bare detail of occurrences; and though he may not draw one conclusion from the facts which he undertakes to state, he will, unintentionally

it may be, place them in such a point of view as to excite the very reflexions which he has been careful not to deduce. It is therefore much better for every historian honestly to avow, as Dr. Priestley has done, the principles upon which his work is composed. The writer thus earns the praise of honesty, and the reader is put upon his guard.

"Being an *unitarian*, and all the preceding general ecclesiastical historians having been *trinitarians*, it was impossible but that I should see many things in a very different light from them, and therefore our representations of them will be very different, when there is no dispute about the facts. Characters of men, and of times, must vary with the sentiments of the writers on subjects of such importance as those in which I differ from my predecessors. Of this the reader will easily be apprised; and therefore he will make what allowance he shall think necessary on that account; and if my readers be men of candour, they will shew it on this occasion. This all protestant writers do with respect to the writings of catholics, from whose histories they take facts of the greatest importance, when they differ from them the most with respect to their judgment concerning those facts."

"Notwithstanding what will be called my peculiar sentiments, and of course my bias in favour of them, I hope that the most prejudiced of my readers will not think me destitute of candour, even with respect to those who differ from me in the most important

articles. I will even venture to say that no ecclesiastical history that I have seen is equally candid. My own observation and experience have, I hope, taught me the allowance that is due to the force of prejudice in the best disposed minds, and the absolute impossibility of access to truth in certain situations."

We willingly give our testimony to the truth of this declaration.

The first part of this History, comprising the period which elapsed from the public ministry of Jesus to the fall of the western empire, was published in the year 1790, while the author was residing at Birmingham, and not long after the publication of the History of Early Opinions. It was, indeed, by the attention which Dr. Priestley had at that time given to the ecclesiastical writers of the four or five first centuries, in order to determine what was the faith of the primitive church concerning the person of Christ, that the idea of writing the work now before us was first suggested.

"Seeing that this opinion, and others connected with it, had been greatly misconceived, and misrepresented, by all the ecclesiastical historians, I was willing to exhibit the original doctrine, and the gradual deviations from it, in a regular history of every thing relating to the christian church. For want of an ecclesiastical history written on these just principles, persons were under a necessity of forming wrong conceptions on this important subject from every history that could fall into their hands."

It was also the author's wish to compose an ecclesiastical history, that should neither be too voluminous to be generally read, nor so concise as to be of little use; which should not, like Mosheim's, be incumbered by an artificial and unnatural method; nor mistake, as Dr. Priestley conceived that work does, important facts; which, in the mere statement of facts, should supply an answer to Mr. Gibbon's artful insinuations; and by exhibiting the influence of christianity on the minds of those who first embraced it, demonstrate the value of the christian's hope. With such views Dr. Priestley composed the two first volumes, which were received with pleasure by those who were not adverse to the unitarian principles that pervade them; and read, not without interest, by the advocates of a more orthodox confession. Having at that time no reason to expect the disgraceful violence that was shortly

to interrupt his usual employments, and drive him from the country that ought to have acknowledged, what a grateful posterity will claim, the honour of numbering him amongst her sons, he was undetermined whether he should carry this history further. In bringing down the narrative to the fall of the western empire, he had executed what, he thought, was most particularly wanted, and given, as it appeared to him, a fairer account of the rise and progress of important opinions than was in any other history to be found. He intimated, however, that if he should have leisure, he might be induced to continue his work to the reformation by Luther, and even to the present century.

"This leisure (he remarks in the preface to the third volume, with that spirit of piety which so eminently distinguished him) it has pleased a kind providence to give me, and I have endeavoured to make a good use of it, both with respect to the continuation of this work, and the composition of several others, besides attending to the business of my laboratory. I cannot be too thankful to the sovereign disposer of all things for so great a happiness. What is life without employment? And most honourable is that employment the object of which is to benefit future generations, for whom writers naturally flatter themselves that they are labouring; and what benefits are of so high and important a kind, as those which relate to religion, and that future world to which I am now making a near approach?"

The former part of this History was altogether composed from original writers; but, as the author justly observes, "With respect to the period which extends from the date in which that terminated to the present time, the works containing the original records are so numerous, and many of them so difficult to be procured; that it is not in the power of any man to do the same. The most industrious and the most fortunate historians can only collect their materials from a part of them; and all who write general histories, comprehending the result of the labours of those who have studied the particular parts, must necessarily, in general, depend upon the fidelity of those who have preceded them; and they must use their best judgment with respect to the circumstances and prejudices of those on whose authority they rely." Fleury is the writer of whom Dr. Priestley has made the most frequent use, collecting all the additional light he was able from Gian

none, Dupin, Sueur, and others. Beausobre, Sleidan, Rachat, Laval, Brandt, Burnet, Neal, and some others, have furnished materials for the particular periods on which they have respectively written.

Such was the origin and progress of the work which now claims our notice, and such the views of its author, in presenting it to the world.

The whole work is divided into twenty-four periods:

1. From the public ministry of Jesus to the death of Nero, A. D. 68.

2. Of the persecution by Domitian, and the history of the christian church to the end of the reign of Adrian, A. D. 138.

4. From the reign of Commodus, A. D. 180, to that of Decius, A. D. 249.

5. From the reign of Decius, to that of Diocletian, A. D. 284.

6. Of the persecution under Diocletian, A. D. 302, and to the settlement of the empire under Constantine, A. D. 313.

7. From the establishment of Constantine in the empire, A. D. 313, till his death, 337.

8. From the death of Constantine to that of Constantius, A. D. 361.

9. The reign of Julian.

10. From the death of Julian, A. D. 362, to that of Valens, A. D. 379.

11. From the death of Valens to that of Theodosius, A. D. 395.

12. From the death of Theodosius to that of Honorius, A. D. 424.

13. From the death of Honorius to the fall of the western empire, A. D. 475.

14. From the fall of the western empire to the rise of Mahometanism, A. D. 622.

15. From the rise of Mahometanism to the establishment of the western empire under Charlemagne, A. D. 800.

16. From the re-establishment of the western empire to the raising of Otho to the imperial throne, A. D. 936.

17. From the accession of Otho, to the conquest of Jerusalem by the crusaders, A. D. 1099.

18. From the taking of Jerusalem by the crusaders, to the taking of Constantinople by the Latins, A. D. 1204.

19. From the taking of Constantinople by the Latins, to the termination of the crusades, A. D. 1291.

20. From the termination of the cru-

sades, to the conclusion of the council of Constance, A. D. 1418.

21. From the conclusion of the council of Constance, to the reformation, A. D. 1517.

22. From the beginning of the reformation in Germany, 1517, to the conclusion of the council of Trent, A. D. 1563.

23. From the conclusion of the council of Trent, to the revocation of the edict of Nantes, A. D. 1685.

24. From the revocation of the edict of Nantes, to the present time, A. D. 1802.

Each of these periods is divided into nine or ten sections, by which the leading subjects of each period are distinctly arranged.

"The division of this history (Dr. Priestley observes) is not that artificial one by *centuries*, to which nothing in the nature of the subject corresponds, but according to important *events*, which point to natural periods in history, civil or ecclesiastical. And the sections under each period are so distinct, that a person may read what belongs to any one subject without troubling himself with what he has no occasion to attend to. To give a *general history* of any period distinct from the particulars of which it must consist, appeared to me to be superfluous, as unnecessary repetitions would have been unavoidable. But it will be found that the first section in each period relates to the subject which is most interesting in that period, or that first occurred; and circumstances either of less consequence, or of less extent, which could not without inconvenience have been introduced into any of the sections, are thrown into a miscellaneous section at the close of each period. But though these articles are short, they will often be found to be curious, and sometimes of particular importance.

"It is acknowledged that, in order to form a complete idea of ecclesiastical transactions, they should be viewed in their connection with those of a civil nature, and also in the order in which they took place, which is the method of the *annalists*, such as Fleury, Sueur, and others. But this will not by any means suit an abridged, or general history, which only I have undertaken to write. Besides there is also a peculiar advantage in viewing each particular subject as much as possible independently of, and unmix'd with, any other, which the method of annals does not admit of. Each method has its respective advantages, and histories of both kinds should be read by those who wish to acquire the most accurate knowledge of the subject."

In avoiding one error, Dr. Priestley appears to have fallen into another. No

method indeed can be worse than that which Mosheim has adopted, but Dr. Priestley has not been fortunate enough in that which he has chosen. The principal use of a division of history into periods, is to assist the memory in retaining the knowledge of important facts. In order to this it is necessary that the divisions be few, and formed with reference to some leading occurrence, or some striking and predominant feature in the time selected as a distinct period. In the above arrangement this principle rarely appears. Mehegan, in his modern history, has admirably succeeded, but we know not of any ecclesiastical historian who has been guided by the same principles. The forming of such an arrangement might, indeed, be attended with considerable difficulty; but its advantages would be numerous and important. Considering the distinguished clearness with which Dr. Priestley usually classed the multifarious materials he has frequently employed in his other works, we are surprised that he was not more successful in that now before us.

This history was not intended by the author to serve the purposes of the learned inquirer. It contains no nice discussions upon the intricate subjects of ecclesiastical record, no laboured investigations of dubious transactions. Acknowledged facts are stated with plainness and perspicuity, the excellent effects of christian principles are carefully exhibited, the debasing tendency of superstition and error is clearly shewn, the sufferings which have been endured for the sake of truth, or a good conscience, are largely dwelt upon; and many valuable reflections are interspersed, conducive to mental and moral improvement.

We could fill many pages with interesting and useful extracts, but we must be content with one specimen of the author's manner. It is the reflection with which the history is concluded.

"Many christians though not persecuted to death, are in situations in which they shew, in trials of a different kind, an energy of mind that would carry them through any trial. And that mode of persecution in which life is concerned is not that which, with many, requires so much real fortitude as some others.

"I have in my eye several persons whose christian principles have led them to make sacrifices to which many of the martyrs would probably have been unequal. In this some may be apt to think that I refer to the case of some dissenters in England: and certainly their situation has in it, especially of late

years, something very humiliating and discouraging; and to bear it, and to behave properly under it, has required something superior to the influence of general esteem, worldly ambition, or pecuniary advantage. But this I consider as a trifle compared with the strength of principle which has led some to abandon respectable and lucrative situations, and what is more, to bear the alienation of former friends and connections, together with such privations of a personal nature as would have been sensibly felt by persons who, like them, had lived in affluence. To such persons the greatest homage is due from all who have a just conception of the difficulty of such exertions; and of the strength of mind, and the force of principle, that alone could make men capable of them; as may be inferred from the small number of those who, in the same circumstances, have acted the same part.

"The surest method of deciding concerning the difficulty of any kind of conduct, is not to consider it, in the first instance, abstractedly from what we should imagine to be its nature, but to examine the numbers that have actually adopted it. Now, since it is evident from history, compared with present observation, that there have been many more persons who have died martyrs rather than openly renounce their principles, than of those who, without being particularly called upon, have relinquished desirable situations in life, and have quietly sunk into obscurity, with the risk of poverty; it is evident that there must be more real difficulty in the latter case than in the former, and that it requires stronger and purer principles of action. And it only requires attention to some pretty obvious considerations respecting the two cases to see the reason of this.

"In the case of open persecution, there is generally no choice between death and infamy, which is always in a greater or less degree, attached to every thing that has the appearance of cowardice, or dissimulation. And openly, in the face of the world, to renounce a man's principles, and to conform to what he is well known inwardly to condemn, is what no person can justify, though out of compassion to human infirmity, he may, in some measure, excuse it, as he would do any other instance of wrong conduct to which the temptation was peculiarly strong. In this situation many persons, from a sense of shame only, without any peculiar strength of religious principle, may be supposed to prefer death to life.

"But when a man is not particularly called upon to act at all, when it is in his power to continue to act as all his acquaintance do, and of course to enjoy affluence together with sufficient reputation; in this situation to obey the secret call of conscience only, and against the remonstrances of all his friends and relations to withdraw into obscurity and poverty, is great indeed. Besides, by indirectly reproaching others, he is sure to draw reproach and calumny upon himself; and instead of

being held in general admiration, as the martyrs were, he must expect to be ridiculed for his singularity, which precludes all sympathy and compassion. In these circumstances to persist in doing what himself only will do, is an argument if any thing in human life can be, of *pure principle*, without any mixture of ostentation, or any other motive improper for a christian to set upon. The more I

think of this case, the more it excites my admiration, and the less do I wonder that so few are equal to the conduct proper for it. Let no person who has not himself acted this extraordinary part imagine that H. should, or could, have done it. I am far from thinking so highly of myself, and I am truly thankful that my principles have not been exposed to so great a trial."

ART. LIII. *A Narrative of Events that have lately taken place in Ireland, among the Society called Quakers; with corresponding Documents, and occasional Observations.* 8vo: pp. 225. Appendix, pp. 68.

ART. LIV. *A Narrative of the Proceedings in America of the Society called Quakers, in the Case of HANNAH BARNARD, with a brief Review of the previous Transactions in Great Britain and Ireland, intended as a Sequel to an Appeal to the Society of Friends.* 8vo. pp. 145.

ART. LV. *A few Observations tending to expose the Unfairness of some Censures on the Character of DAVID SANDS, in a Publication called a Narrative of Events that have lately taken place in Ireland, among the Society called Quakers, &c.* 8vo. pp. 14.

THESE three tracts relate to the same or similar and connected events; we have therefore brought them into one view, and shall consider them in the order in which we have now placed them.

The first of these is from the Liverpool press, and is generally supposed to have been written by an eminent merchant of that city. The author introduces his curious and instructive Narrative with some very judicious reflections on the causes of the decline and fall of religious societies. These he allows to be various; but he selects two "as having their foundation in principles, common to human nature in every age of the world, and as being also those which appear to be immediately connected with the subject of the following Narrative." p. 10. The two causes to which he attributes disunion among the members of religious institutions are;—the want of prudence and moderation in those who are desirous of correcting abuses that have crept in during the lapse of time; and "an erroneous judgment in appreciating the real value of ceremonial forms and observances." The subsequent detail of events undoubtedly justifies the selection of these from the many which may concur to weaken and to destroy other religious societies, as peculiarly operating in that to which the author belongs. The Narrative is opened with "an account of the constitution of meetings for discipline amongst the people commonly called quakers;" and as this is necessary to render the subsequent history, of which we mean to give a short account, intelligible,

we shall here exhibit the substance of that account.

"The members of this religious society unite in a distinct body, not only for the performance of public worship, but for the maintaining of a christian discipline for their internal government." (page 10). Their meetings for this latter purpose are denominated preparative, monthly, quarterly, and yearly, and, besides these, they have what they call select meetings, composed of such persons only as are esteemed elders or ministers. The preparative meetings are composed of the members of each congregation who assemble once a month, at the conclusion of a meeting for worship, to prepare the business for the monthly meeting, and to appoint generally, two members to be representatives to that meeting. The monthly meeting is sometimes confined to one congregation, but is commonly composed of the representatives, or others, from two or more preparative meetings. The quarterly meetings usually consist of the several monthly meetings within one county, or more than one where the members are not numerous. The yearly meeting for Great Britain is held in London, upon this the national yearly meeting of Ireland is in some cases dependent. The communication between all these is preserved by means of representatives; but at every meeting any member of the society may attend and assist in its deliberations. "One limitation, indeed, takes place, which is, that in transacting the discipline, the men and the women

have each their separate province, and hold their meetings apart, except at the select meetings of the ministers and elders, in which both sexes meet together." p. 16. These select meetings are, like the others, preparative, monthly, quarterly, and annual, but their care is limited to the conduct of persons who fill the stations of ministers, or elders, in the society. These, as well as the general meetings, are guided by *queries and advices*, formed at the annual meeting in London. In the discipline of the members of the society settled in Ireland, there had, till lately, always existed two peculiarities. The national meetings were held *twice* in the year, and denominated the national half year's meetings of Ireland, and provincial meetings for discipline were held once in six weeks, and thence called the six weeks' meetings. The latter of these were discontinued in the year 1791, in consequence of the society in Ireland submitting to the regulations formed by the yearly meeting of Great Britain, which required monthly meetings, and the former were exchanged for annual meetings in the year 1797. In the year preceding this a proposal had been made that there should be no longer separate meetings for discipline, but that the men and women should assemble together: this proposal appeared to make a great impression, and to be favourably received, yet its novelty, and its dissonance with the discipline of the society in England and America prevented its being adopted. As the separate meetings, and the frequent ministry of women, are constantly censured by the discontented and the separatists, this proposal, which was offered in 1796, may be regarded as the first appearance of disaffection in Ireland recorded in the present narrative. This was no sooner dismissed than another instance of disapprobation of the existing discipline occurred at Carlow, in the province of Leinster. "In addition to the established queries, which are directed to be read, considered, and answered by the members of each select meeting, there are also some advices which are read once a year, and it had been the practice for these advices to be read by the clerk at the select monthly meeting. The office of clerk was at this time (1797) filled by Abraham Shackleton, of Ballitore, an appointed elder, who had for some time been of opinion that these advices were objectionable." He, therefore, refused on the present occasion

to read them, "and that office was undertaken by a female member of the select meeting, who also disapproved of them, but thought it was better to condescend to the wishes of others, than to persevere in urging a deviation from the usual practice." The transaction did not pass without notice, but it was judged expedient not to prosecute the subject at that time, as the objections had arisen in the minds of active and approved members. At the quarterly meeting for the province of Leinster, which took place in a few days after the above transaction, and two days after the discussion of it in the select quarterly meeting, the following query, amongst others, was read:—"Do friends endeavour by example and precept to train up their children, servants, and those under their care, in a religious life and conversation, consistent with our christian profession; in the frequent reading of the *holy scriptures*, and in plainness of speech, behaviour, and apparel, and are the remiss duly admonished?" "On reading the answer to this query from the monthly meeting of Carlow, it was observed, that the word *holy* was omitted. This omission excited considerable emotion in the minds of several who were present, and enquiry was immediately made into the cause of it." (Narrative, p. 42). A discussion took place, many very free remarks were made by those who had disapproved of the use of the term, many severe observations were thrown out on the opposite side, and several members left the meeting before it broke up, in consequence of what had passed there." Abraham Shackleton, who appears to have stood foremost on this occasion, was the organ of many others, who had called in question the authority of many parts of the Old Testament. The state of the question on both sides may be seen in the following passage in the narrative:

"In the subsequent part of this year (1797) a discussion took place between Abraham Shackleton and Samuel Woodcock, two of the elders of Leinster quarterly meeting, concerning the representations given of some historical facts recorded in the Old Testament. The facts themselves were admitted. But it was contended by Samuel Woodcock, "that some of these facts, such as the wars for the avowed extirpation of the Canaanites, &c. and others of a similar nature were undertaken by the *express command of God*, in strict conformity with the accounts given in the Old Testament, which ought to be regarded as a genuine and faithful record, and that the

belief of this constitutes an essential article of *christian faith*." It was asserted on the contrary, by Abraham Shackleton, "that these alleged commands of the Almighty, for proceedings, in some cases perfidious, and in others cruel and unjust, were either wilful and impious pretences on the part of the perpetrators or original historians of such transactions; or subsequent interpolations in the history; and that a right apprehension of, and a due regard for, the divine attributes, would forbid our assent to such passages, as they could have no genuine claim to the appellation of SACRED SCRIPTURES." He contended, "that it was highly derogatory to the character of the unchangeable God, 'with whom there is no variableness, neither shadow of turning,' to conceive the divine being would himself act in opposition to those moral laws which he has ordained to be of perpetual and universal obligation; or that he would ever suspend the obligation of those laws upon his rational offspring. Yet these consequences must follow, if, under any circumstances whatever, he should command, and by the miraculous interposition of his power enable any description of men to perform those actions, which by express laws and declarations, he has elsewhere forbidden as sinful. Consequently that neither wars, nor any acts of cruelty, treachery, or fraud, nor the exercise of any of the angry, or revengeful, or hurtful passions, were ever either approved of, or authorized by the God of purity, holiness, peace, and love; and that it was altogether unnecessary and unwarrantable, that such points should be deemed *essential articles of a christian's faith*; because difference of opinion concerning them had always existed, and might be expected to exist, and even between men of very serious and upright minds."

At the national yearly meeting, 1798, it appeared that the seeds of dissension respecting the sacredness and the authority of some parts of the Old Testament, and the reasonableness of certain commonly received doctrines, were very widely scattered. In the minute of that meeting it is observed;

"The committee, to whom was referred the consideration of the state of our society, in regard to the reading the holy scriptures, report, that we met, and in company with a number of women friends, took the same into our solid consideration, and are sorrowfully convinced that a disposition hath appeared in some of our society, tending to produce schism, and to weaken the general testimony and belief which we, as people, have maintained as to the *origin, use, and advantage* of these records. We are of the judgment, that this disposition hath spread and extended itself to the injury of many; and without desiring to point out these writings, as being more than a *secondary rule subordinate* to the

spirit of truth, from whence they have all their excellency and certainty, we think it right that *a standard should be lifted up against this spirit of speculation and unbelief*; and recommend, that friends every where be watchful against it, and by example in their own families, have a due regard to the frequent reading of them, and where any have manifested opinions *contrary to the general sense of the body*, it is our judgment, that they be timely laboured with, in a spirit of love and christian tenderness, to reclaim them; but if after due labour and patience, these do not become *sensible of their error*, but *persist in maintaining such sentiments and doctrines*, and do not condemn their conduct, that monthly meetings, with the advice and assistance of their quarterly meetings, proceed further, as in the wisdom of truth they may be directed, to testify against them, as being out of the unity of friends."

Alarmed at the diffusion of these sceptical sentiments, concerning what the most orthodox members of the society expressly allow to be no more than a *secondary rule subordinate to the spirit*, this yearly meeting appointed a general visit to the quarterly, monthly, and other meetings in Ireland; and six of the friends were nominated to undertake the business, not without considerable opposition from those who conceived that the result would be a further and a wider disunion among the members of the society. And so it proved.

In the same year another source of disquietude which had been long working its way in secret rose to light, we allude to the dissatisfaction that now openly prevailed respecting the doctrines, the lives and conduct of some approved ministers of the society. "This dissatisfaction was variously expressed; in some instances to the ministers by private individuals; in others by the admonition of the elders, to whose province the oversight of the ministry peculiarly belongs; and sometimes disapprobation was manifested during the times of public worship, by individuals declining to conform to the general practice of standing up and taking off the hat, and continuing uncovered whilst such ministers kneeled in prayer." p. 67. The ministry of David Sands, an American, seems to have occasioned the greatest offence, and if the facts mentioned in the narrative are to be credited, not without reason. In this and the two following years many reputable members of the society, approved elders, overseers, and others, were either *disowned* or voluntarily withdrew.

Warm disputes upon both the preceding subjects, the authority of the scriptures, and the conduct of the ministers, continued through the year 1799; and were attended with many serious evils. In 1800, another, and what may be regarded as a third cause of the unhappy state of the disunion prevailing in this once harmonious body in Ireland, discovered itself.

"The society hath uniformly professed conscientious scruples, against complying with the modes of marriage practised by other societies; and, in consequence of these scruples, it adopted a mode of marriage peculiar to itself, and prescribed rules in relation thereto, at an early period of its establishment. By these rules it was enjoined, that strict inquiries should always be made, whether the parties intending to marry, were clear from all former engagements, in relation to marriage; and whether they had the consent of parents or guardians. If there were children by a former marriage, or marriages, a care was to be exercised that the children's rights were legally secured. And in every case, timely notice of the intentions of the parties was required to be published. For the effectual attainment of these objects, the society required the repeated personal appearance and public declaration of the parties, in its meetings for discipline. The time and expence of travelling, &c. requisite for complying with these regulations, were, indeed, in frequent instances, very inconvenient; and the necessity of repeated personal appearances and public declarations, especially by the female, was extremely distressing. The comforts of entering into the marriage covenant, in a manner consonant with the conscientious feelings of the parties, and the importance of adopting regulations, which, by securing a deliberate and honourable procedure on their part, might merit the sanction of government, were, however, objects to compensate for some sacrifices, and the rules originally prescribed, were, therefore, more numerous and strict than might, perhaps, have otherwise been deemed necessary."

Many inconveniences, however, resulting from the rules first established by the society, produced a general wish that they should be revised, and such alterations made, as the state of the society either allowed or required. A revision accordingly took place, and several alterations, tending to render the ceremony of marriage less troublesome and expensive, were adopted at the yearly meetings in London, in 1790, upon which that of Ireland, as we have before observed, is dependent, and, by the orders of which, the society in Ireland is chiefly guided. Dissatisfaction, however, still

prevailed; and, towards the close of the year 1800, openly manifested itself. John Rogers, jun. and Eliza Doyle, both members of the monthly meeting of Lisburn, intending to take each other in marriage, determined not to observe the regulations of the society. "They felt their minds restrained from conforming to the usual mode previous to, and in the accomplishing of marriages, believing there are many forms attached thereto, which are by no means necessary;" "from apprehensions of duty, and from no other motive whatever, they dared not but dissent from the established mode." p. 125.

One month previous to their marriage, they gave notice of their intention, by public advertisement; and nothing appearing to obstruct the accomplishment of them, they entered into an agreement of marriage, at the house in which the woman resided, in the presence of sixteen friends. This example was soon followed by others, and the consequence was, what might have been expected from the state of the society, disownments both of the parties and of those who were present. A considerable number of very respectable members were thus lost to the society. With respect to the propriety of this conduct, on either side, we shall not declare our opinion; but we cannot withhold the following judicious and weighty observations of the author of the narrative:

"The lately adopted mode of marriage had been practised by persons of exemplary conduct, who solemnly professed, that *"upon mature consideration, and from apprehensions of duty, and from no other motive whatever, they dared not but dissent from the established mode of the society."* By this declaration, we are called upon to consider them as placed in the very same situation as the society itself, on its first establishment; and as it had then asserted and exercised the right of private judgment on this very point, it would surely require much deliberation before its descendants should resolve to censure and disown their brethren, for doing the same thing.

"Considered as an offence against the rules of the society, or against its authority as a christian church, the dissent of the MODERN SEPARATISTS, in relation to marriage, was from the practice of one of the smallest societies of professing christians in Europe, whereas the dissent of the PRIMITIVE QUAKERS, was in direct opposition to the practice and the opinions of the whole country in which they lived. Now as they had, on various occasions, experienced, first, the PERSECUTIONS, then the LENITY, and lastly the

SANCTIONS of Government, while acting in obedience to what they believed to be *their* duty, it became very important for their descendants to consider how far the proceeding, to the utmost limits of their power, on this occasion, would indicate that the LENITY and ultimately the SANCTION, which their ancestors had prayed for, and obtained from the government of *that day*, were by the society in the *present day*, deemed improper to be granted to its equally scrupulous and conscientious members; and how far the proceeding to censure and disown the latter, under circumstances of peculiar similarity, would now deserve to be regarded as an imitation of that part, only, of the conduct of government, which consisted in the PERSECUTION of their ancestors. See appendix, No. G.

"But the point of view in which this subject appears most of all important, is that which is connected with what is deemed, the discriminating and fundamental tenet of the society. The great end and object of their doctrine, their discipline, their ministry, their silent worship, nay, the very ground of their original separation from other societies, and of their existence as a distinct sect, are, professedly by all, for the purpose of more effectually directing the attention of the mind to the inward individual teachings of DIVINE GRACE, as the *alone, all sufficient, infallible and universal guide* in all that respects faith and practice. Compared with this, the *scriptures* themselves are deemed a *secondary and subordinate* rule; and the decrees of popes and councils, the authority of churches, or priests, and the laws even of civil governments, are held to be of no obligation, if opposed to the requirings of this inward guide. It must then evidently constitute a most interesting consideration, whether, or a diversity of opinion and conduct, about *forms relating to marriage*, the society could, with consistency, proceed deliberately to disown and censure, not only individual members, but collective families of unimpeachable moral conduct; whilst, with indications of unquestionable sincerity and uprightness, they not only retained and declared a steadfast belief in this discriminating and fundamental principle, but moreover profess that, in obedience to the dictates of this very principle, they have been led into that conduct, for which the society deems it necessary to exclude them from all religious communion."

The narrative is continued to the end of the year 1803; but as no events are detailed, but such as are similar to the preceding, we shall dismiss this publication, by observing, that it bears upon it every mark of authenticity, discovers sound judgment, and unaffected candour, and contains the documents of important facts, highly deserving the most serious attention of every member of the society of friends, and interesting to all

who are not indifferent to the progress of religious sentiment.

We proceed now to notice the second narrative mentioned in this article.

During the transactions which we have thus briefly noticed, Hannah Barnard, of Hudson, in the state of New York, an approved minister among the society of friends in America, had been induced, by a sense of duty, to pay a religious visit to Europe. She landed in England in the year 1798, bringing with her the most distinct testimony of approbation to her conduct and services in her native land. For nearly two years she is said to have been "diligently and zealously employed in the discharge of her religious engagements, and to have exercised her gifts, with general satisfaction, through England, Scotland, and Ireland." In the spring of the year 1800, having spent some time in the latter country, she applied to the yearly meeting, previous to her return to England, for a certificate. She obtained one without any opposition, and in it was the following remarkable expression:—"In the course of her religious labours amongst us, we believe it was her concern, by example and precept, to inculcate the doctrines of the gospel, and to excite friends to be, not only in profession, but in practice, the humble self-denying followers of Christ." With this testimonial she arrived shortly after in London, and applied to the yearly meeting of ministers and elders, "on account of her prospect of joining a friend, in a visit to some parts of Germany;"—"but the meeting did not find itself at liberty to encourage her therein; chiefly on account of its having been alleged, that she promoted a disbelief of some parts of the scriptures of the Old Testament, particularly those which assert, that the Almighty commanded the Israelites to make war upon other nations." p. 5.

Upon this, and other points, she was heard in several meetings; and the result was, a recommendation "to desist from travelling, or speaking as a minister, in the religious society to which she belonged; and quietly to return, by the first convenient opportunity, to her own habitation." p. 6. As there appeared to be some informality in this, and some succeeding steps, H. Barnard appealed, and awaited the judgment of the yearly meeting of 1801. At that meeting, the decisions of several inferior tribunals, before whom she had been cited, were con-

firmed, and she immediately sailed for her native land. Her passage was long; and a copy of all the proceedings respecting herself, transmitted by the London yearly meeting, arrived before her. The cause hence appears to have been prejudged; and, after many conferences, some of which seem to have been carried on in a manner not altogether consonant with the acknowledged spirit of the gospel, or the avowed temper of the society of friends, this (we fear) persecuted woman was finally disowned, in 1802, by the monthly meeting of Hudson, without being permitted to appeal to the yearly meeting about to be held for New York. The greatest part of the narrative, from which we have selected this brief account, is drawn up by Hannah Barnard herself; and, if her statement be true, we can have no hesitation in saying, that she has been treated in a manner, which reflects great discredit upon some of the leading members of the religious society to which she once belonged, and of which she was once acknowledged to be a distinguished ornament.

If the facts which are adduced in either of these narratives can be disproved, or controverted, they who have it in their power to do so, are loudly called upon to stand forth in defence of a respectable body, whose character must certainly suffer, in the opinion of the world, from the apparent spirit of persecution, and disregard of their avowed principles, in those who bear rule amongst them. The impartial observer can certainly detect glaring faults in both parties; but if what has now been before us be true, the weight of blame assuredly falls upon those who, by an unnecessary severity, have cut off many useful members; and, instead of endeavouring to close, have widened a breach, which threatens to continue and encrease.

The small tract upon the case of David Sands, though written with much ill temper, appears to be, in a great measure, a successful vindication of that zealous minister's character and conduct; and leads us to wish, that a more judicious, a more temperate, and a fuller work, upon the same side, may appear.

ART. LVI. *An Address to the Society of Friends, commonly called Quakers, on their excommunicating such of their Members as marry those of other religious Professions.* 8vo. pp. 48.

EVERY society has a just right to make such regulations, as the members think will conduce to its permanency and orderly government. The Quakers have, with this view, made many regulations; and amongst others, and not of the least importance, those which respect marriages with such as are not of their own sect. Whether these were, or were not, framed by Fox, by Penn, or by Penning-

ton, is a question of little moment. The regulations are in being, and sanctioned by the general consent of the society, during a considerable period of time: a strict adherence to them is perfectly consistent, and not deserving of that illiberal censure, passed by this abusive and declaiming pamphleteer. Forty-eight pages of virulence can claim from us no further notice.

ART. LVII. *A Letter to Joseph Gurney Bevan; containing Observations on the Ministry and Discipline of the People called Quakers.* 2nd edit. 8vo. pp. 32.

THIS small pamphlet contains several strictures upon the subjects mentioned in the title, which, as far as we can form a proper judgment, from the narratives just noticed, are not unreasonable, nor without a powerful claim upon the attention of such as are desirous of the prosperity and permanency of the society. These strictures relate chiefly to the prevalence of female ministry; family visits; the interference of the ministers in the discipline; the influence of American

preachers; the want of zeal and firmness in the elders; the character of Quakers, as tradesmen; the education of youth; and the recommendation of books. Reform seems now to be much wanted, and loudly demanded; and if the society of friends will not recur to its first principles, and endeavour wisely to remove the evils which time has introduced, the most fatal consequences may be justly apprehended.

ART. LVIII. *A Guide to the Church, in several Discourses; to which are added, two Postscripts: the first to those Members of the Church, who occasionally frequent other Places of public Worship; the second to the Clergy. With a new introductory Preface to the Reader. By the Rev. CHARLES DAUBENY, Archdeacon of Sarum. 2nd edit. pp. 510.*
An Appendix to the Guide to the Church, in several Letters; in which the Principles advanced in that Work are more fully maintained, in answer to Objections. By the Rev. C. DAUBENY. 2nd edit. pp. 528.

THIS work has been so long before the public, and its merits and its defects have been so eagerly scanned, that we consider ourselves as, in justice, required only to announce to our readers, upon the authority of the author, that "the

present edition differs from the preceding one, chiefly in the adduction of those authorities, which were judged necessary to the more firm establishment of the ground undertaken to be maintained."

ART. LIX. *Observations on the Causes of clerical Non-residence, and on the Act of Parliament lately passed for its Prevention. 8vo. pp. 79.*

THIS little pamphlet appears at a time peculiarly ill-chosen; the subject being, for the present, laid at rest, to be resumed when the country shall be differently circumstanced, and when the practical effects of this experimental act shall be fully known. The author treats of the necessity of residence, of the state of the inferior clergy; topics long since exhausted. He then suggests, that resident incumbents may, in most cases, be procured, since the young man, who accepts a curacy of 40, or 60*l.* per annum, would, with more satisfaction, accept a benefice of the same value. The objections to this measure are too palpable to require detail. He next proposes the annexation of small livings to the adjoining cures. This proposition leaves the matter nearly where it is. The causes of non-residence are then enumerated; and the impolicy of committing a parish to a substitute instead of a principal, is warmly

urged; and the power of the bishop to fix a stipend for the curate, and to place him in the parsonage-house, is objected to. The late act comes next under consideration. It is first censured, as being inefficient; the hardship of a license to farm being requisite is next argued; and the discretionary power thrown into the hands of the bishop is objected to. The author then asserts, that it will be difficult to put the act in force; and concludes with maintaining, that parliament, being a lay-assembly, has no right in conscience to regulate the discipline of the church. A curious assertion from a member and a minister of the Church, as by law established! A work on the present subject could be interesting only from depth of erudition, force and beauty of language, or a masterly statement of well known positions: in all which this pamphlet is sadly defective.

ART. LX. *A Letter to a Parishioner, upon some particular Questions respecting Tithes. With a Postscript, containing different Texts of Scripture, in Proof of the Arguments adduced in the Letter. 8vo. pp. 16.*

IT was a maxim of the founder of christianity, that, "the labourer is worthy of his hire;" and the most eminent and disinterested of the apostles, occasionally urged his claims upon those, to whom he had imparted the treasure of the gospel, for a just portion of their worldly possessions; though, to avoid being burdensome, he generally supplied his own wants by the labour of his own hands. That the clergy should be supported,—and liberally supported, by those whom they teach, is a plain dictate of reason; and it is much to be wished,

that some method could be adopted, which, without being oppressive to the laity, might enable the minister of the gospel to live, agreeably to his education, and the views of a rising family, in such a station of life, and to practise hospitality. The payment of tithes is not that method: nor will the arguments adduced in this letter, supported, as the author thinks, by passages taken from the Levitical institutions, remove the objections that have been urged, or render it less obnoxious to the industrious husbandman.

ART. LXI. *Reasons for separating from the Church of Scotland; in a Series of Letters.*
By WILLIAM INNES, Minister of the Gospel, Dundee. Chiefly addressed to his Christian Friends on that Establishment. 12mo. pp. 156.

THIS little tract is written by the leader of that schism in the Scottish church, which, unlike the divisions of burghers, antiburghers, and the relief-party, differs from the established ecclesiastical constitution, not upon some particular parts of its discipline, but in the absolute rejection of the presbyterian form of government. Mr. Innes and

his followers are independents; and the object of his pamphlet is to vindicate independency, and to prove, that presbyterian principles are not warranted by scripture. He writes with ability, and adduces arguments which deserve the attention of those who form the established church in the northern part of this realm.

CHAPTER III.

HISTORY, POLITICS,

AND

STATISTICS.

THE historical and political publications of the late year are superior, both in number and importance, to those in the corresponding chapter of our last volume. Colonel Johnes has published the first volume of a new translation of the Chronicles of Froissart, and we hope that so spirited an example may induce others of our men of rank and fortune to consecrate their leisure to similar undertakings. Mr. Laing has brought out a new and enlarged edition of his History of Scotland, and has established himself as the future standard historian of the age and country, concerning which he treats. An elaborate, though not unexceptionable, History of Malta and its dependencies, has appeared from the pen of M. Boisgelin, one of the knights of the illustrious order who possessed the sovereignty of this island; and a smaller work on the same subject has been compiled by Mr. Wilkinson. To an anonymous author we are indebted for an interesting account of the destruction of the Venetian State by the French. The origin and progress of Free masonry, especially in Scotland, has been detailed by Mr. Laurie. The official documents of the splendid campaign which has established the British supremacy in India, and shed a fresh lustre round the military reputation of our country, have been published by the authority of Marquis Wellesley; a nobleman who stands eminently conspicuous among the European governors of India, and who, like Wolsey, in plenitude of power, and more than regal pomp of office, is also the worthier rival of that prelate, as a patron of letters, by the foundation of the college at Calcutta. Sir W. Young's History, or rather reflections on the History, of Athens, though faulty in style, is commendable for the genuine love of temperate and practical liberty which it inculcates. Of the treatises relating to general and European politics, that entitled Bonaparte and the French People under his Consulate, merits distinguished praise. Lord Sheffield has published in defence of the navigation act, to which he unthinkingly attributes the maritime aggrandisement of Great Britain; while Mr. Cock and Mr. Jordan, on the other hand, have shewn the absolute necessity of a relaxation of this statute, as far as the West Indian trade with America is concerned. The state of Ireland has given birth to several pamphlets, which we hope will convince the government that the first step towards conciliating the Irish nation, is the emancipation of the great majority of it from those disgraceful restrictions and disabilities under which it has so long groaned; and which have been, and must ever continue to be, as long as they are unrepealed, the fruitful source of disaffection and rebellion. The terror of invasion has subsided, and the good sense of the country has so far regained the ascendancy, that we hear no more of those unwarrantable modes of warfare which were subjects of discussion, and even approbation, in the first hurry of alarm, and before a competent force was provided to meet the enemy in the fair field of battle, in case

they should set foot on our native shore. Instead of invoking the armed assistance of every one in the country able to wield a musket, instead of augmenting every description of the public force by every possible means, we now begin to be sufficiently familiarized with danger to discuss with some coolness the efficacy and comparative advantages of the several elements which compose our present military establishment. Colonel Wilson has questioned, in perhaps too depreciating a style, the value of the volunteers, but the two replies which his work has called forth, are neither creditable to the writers nor respectful to their antagonist. Lord Hamilton has entered into an interesting and important discussion on the control of parliament over the royal prerogative in the choice of ministers; and the recent precautionary hostilities committed against Spain, have received a severe condemnation from one writer, and a justification from another.

HISTORY.

ART. I. *An accurate Account of the Fall of the Republic of Venice, and of the Circumstances attending that Event; in which the French System of undermining and revolutionizing States is exposed, and the true Character of Bonaparte faithfully portrayed. Translated from the original Italian. 8vo. pp. 287.*

IN an introductory note to this interesting narrative, we are informed, that the original work was printed and ready for publication in Italy, when the victory of Marengo delivered up that unhappy country to the power of the first consul of France. Among the first acts of his tyranny was the suppression and seizure of the work, a translation of which is now before us.

We cannot but regret, since the original was seized and suppressed by Bonaparte, that the translator has not informed us by what means he became possessed of it, and as some sort of voucher for the truth of the facts related, that he did not also present the British public with the name of the author. As it is, however, so we must take it, knowing that many of the facts are faithfully recorded, and relying for the truth of others, upon very strong internal marks of credibility.

The four first chapters give a hasty sketch of the history of Venice from the fourth century to the French revolution: the narrative of the interference of France in the affairs of this ancient republic commences with the fifth.

The power of the Venetians, which at one time was an object of apprehension, as its wealth was of envy, not merely to the neighbouring states of Italy, but even to the states of Europe; both of them declined in consequence of the formidable league of Cambray: that confederacy, it is true, which was formed for the avowed purpose of prostrating the strength, and

destroying the splendour of this prosperous republic, like most others, was dissolved by the rivalry and mutual jealousy of the powers which composed it. Flushed with success extraordinary and unexpected, they quarrelled about the partition of the spoils. The Venetians marked the growing discord and took advantage of it; they reassumed their wonted spirit and recovered a portion of their lost territory. Still, however, they recovered but a portion of it; their revenues were exhausted, their spirits were depressed, and their commerce declined after the discovery of a passage to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope. The Portuguese succeeded then in the monopoly of this important traffic, and Venice, within less than the space of half a century, was reduced from a principal to a secondary state in Europe. The Venetians were roused to the display of their ancient valour by the invasion of sultan Ibrahim: but the Ottoman arms succeeded, and Candia, after a war of five and twenty years, surrendered to the Turks. During the war of the Spanish succession the Venetians maintained a rigid neutrality: they were afterwards attacked again by the Turks and lost the Morea. From this period they have been comparatively inactive and unnoticed, and rather than embroil themselves in war, have systematically adopted a neutral part in the politics of Europe. In conformity with this system, when the potentates of Europe coalesced to oppose

the revolutionary torrent which, flowing from France, threatened to lay waste their respective territories, Venice resisted the various solicitations which were made to her for joining the confederacy. The senate even suffered her ambassador, Aloys Pisani, to be insulted with impunity. When the French had possession of Nice and Savoy, there was certainly the strongest ground for apprehension that the Venetian territory would become the theatre of war. "The French had already manifested a design of invading Piedmont, and afterwards Austrian Lombardy; and as the Venetian provinces bordered on these, and a part lay between them and other dominions of the house of Austria, namely the duchy of Mantua, it was evident that the imperial troops coming from Germany to defend them, must pass through the territory of Venice in their march, and that if the French intended to prevent the arrival of these reinforcements, they would come to meet them on that territory, which being then destitute of military or natural defence would have been exposed to the incursions of both parties."

Pesaro, at this time *Savio del Consiglio in settimana*, or president for the week, who had uniformly opposed every coalition with the foreign powers against France, now convened a *consulta de' Savj*, or assembly of the wise; and, alarmed for the safety of the republic, exhorted them in an eloquent speech to provide their forts and cities on Terra Firma with the necessary means of defence against the approaching invasion of Italy by foreign troops. This measure was rejected, and on the 28th of Feb. 1792, the senate communicated by circulars to the maritime officers at the sea-port towns, and to their ministers at foreign courts, the almost unanimous resolution to preserve an unarmed neutrality. The apparent inaction of the French during two years completed the fatal delusion: the Venetians, seemed to believe that all further thoughts of the projected conquest were abandoned, and consequently that any military preparations on their part would be useless.

"In the midst of this general lethargy however, Pesaro did not sleep. Although he had been unable to induce the republic to arm, he did not cease to watch over her safety, but conceived, and caused to be executed,

an unobserved mission to Basil, of the resident elect for London,* that he might inspect from so near a point, the dispositions, the views, the military movements, of the belligerent armies, and communicate an exact account of them. This was the only miserable precaution taken by the Venetians to preserve their country from the humiliations and disgrace to which it was destined. They believed it possible to save it by officious obsequiousness, by fraternal embraces, by respectful remonstrances. A weak effeminate neutrality, founded on the good faith of the French nation, was the only barrier by which the state was protected. No troops were levied, no ships fitted for sea, no ammunition or accoutrements, no artillery or fire-arms, prepared. The frontiers and cities were open on all sides, the fortified towns ungarrisoned; not even a single banner, erected upon their walls, showed to what state they belonged. In a dilemma common to every solidly constituted government, the Venetians threw the care of defending their territory upon whatever powers, owing to local circumstances, chanced to guard their frontiers; and permitted them to fight, unassisted, the cause of the whole human race, and of themselves. This nation seemed to have resolved to appropriate to herself the advantages of peace, even should it involve the ruin of the whole habitable world?"

The *Savj*, influenced by their fears, (the reasons here adduced at least for their conduct are all resolvable into pusillanimity) were inflexibly determined to make no active opposition against the desolating progress of the French. They were repeatedly apprised of the ambitious projects of the new republic by ministers resident, and ambassadors from Naples, from Paris, from Rome, from Turin, from Basil, and even from Madrid. The *Savj del consiglio* however, exercising a fatal authority, suppressed all these communications. They were not obliged to impart to the senate the contents of them, except in case of urgent necessity, and the existence of such necessity, in the present crisis, they thought proper to deny! In the year 1794, the French advanced into Piedmont and the Genoese territory. The senate now took the alarm, and, roused by Pesaro and some other patriots, endeavoured, notwithstanding the opposition of the *Savj*, to support the dignity of the republic, by decreeing that the artillery should be placed in a state of preparation, the fortresses repaired, and the troops got ready for action.

The *Sarz*, however, were too successful in their endeavours to weaken the national force, the expence of which they thought would be more than the state could endure. Although they failed in opposing the proposition of Pesaro, yet, they retarded its execution, and rendered ineffectual the military preparations. The revolution of Italy was now at hand, and the disposition of France towards Venice was every day becoming more and more apparent. In the year 1794 a refuge had been granted to Louis XVIII. who took up his residence at Verona, and experienced every attention and respect which could *privately* be paid him. The senate received a dispatch from its resident minister at Basil, stating that France loudly complained of this suspicious hospitality, and was surprised at the "want of reciprocity shown in not sending a minister to Paris in exchange for the new envoy of the *Pouvoir Exécutif*. He concluded by asserting that it was the fixed resolution of the republicans to invade Italy with powerful armies, to attack her by sea with the Toulon squadron, and to revolutionize the whole country."

In consequence of this intelligence the Venetian ambassador, Aloys Querini, was sent to Paris: to the honour of the *Sarz*, however, they were so sensible of the inhumanity of sending away the unfortunate prince, that they determined to continue to him the asylum which he had hitherto received. The executive directory, however, haughty and inflexible, in a tone of insolent authority, demanded his expulsion from the Venetian territories. The weakness of the Venetian senate was displayed by concession.

"The government of Venice was already in a state of languor, which was the almost certain presage of approaching dissolution. No longer were the expences of the state supplied, no longer was there any energy of speech in the enervated senate, no longer was any thing said in direct terms; every thing was merely hinted by insinuation; none but inefficient propositions were approved; nor were wisdom or courage listened to in the councils. Even factions vanished; factions, which in a republic are the vital spark of existence and of national vigour. The only factions at Venice were those of players, of singers, and of dancers. In every class effeminacy had succeeded to those sentiments of sublimity, which maintain the majesty of empires. Amidst so much corruption how could the country be saved? It is not at Capua, that governments learn the arduous art of supporting or of acquiring greatness.

The corruption had extended to Terra Firma. There the glory of weaving a fashionable coat was preferred to that of saving the state. There men murmured at every sacrifice to the general good, yet lavished rewards on every one who could invent a new want, a new pleasure, or revive the excitability which excessive enjoyment had blunted and exhausted. Perfumed tables, gilded carriages, splendid equipages, music, dancing, gardens, gambling, theatres, and debauchery, were the only objects which excited any interest, and these excited it to furor."

Bonaparte entered the Venetian states in May 1796; and so completely had the people been deceived, that they blessed the government for having preserved inviolate its friendship with the French republic. Notwithstanding the military insubordination and personal wretchedness of the troops; notwithstanding the nakedness of many, and the disorder among all, they were hailed as philanthropists, and as the disinterested deliverers of an oppressed people. The general in chief immediately proclaimed his determination that private property should be protected, religion honoured, and that the necessary provisions of his army should be paid for in ready money. The delusion, alas, soon passed away!

It was at Peschiara that Bonaparte reproached the senate with not having garrisoned the place with 2000 men in order to prevent its occupation either by the Austrians or the French, the former having for a moment occupied it in their retreat; it was then that he loaded the Venetians with invectives, and deliberated whether he should set fire to Verona, and even condemn Venice itself to the same fate! The inhabitants of Verona, at the rumour of this hellish project, took to flight: the invader took possession of the city, and treated it as a master and a conqueror.

"Were their exorbitant requisitions not instantly complied with, they made a constant traffic of terror, and threatened military execution. Was force opposed to their injustice, they protested, that they would revenge in blood, the blood of their comrades in arms. Was any the slightest resistance exerted against their unlimited despotism, they cried aloud, that they would declare war against the republic. Were they refused the occupation of a post, they threatened to destroy every thing with fire and sword. By means of these menaces, the French army violated with impunity the Venetian territory, and inflicted the heaviest grievances on its citizens, while the latter in vain implored the protection of their government, whose authority and whose laws were violated by force

and enervated by terror. If the French army ruined a Venetian citizen, Bonaparte trampled on him whom he found thus fallen."

Atrocity succeeded to atrocity; rape, robbery, and murder stalked abroad with impunity; and every possible, every conceivable outrage was perpetrated upon the inglorious and wretched Venetians: with a refinement in cruelty, which could only have been conceived in the bosom of a fiend, these outrages were committed too with a view of exciting the populace to outrage, whence a pretext might have been afforded to the French for breaking with the government, declaring war against them, and revolutionizing the whole country. Our historian, at least, has in these pages represented Bonaparte as being constantly studious to foment among the inhabitants of the provinces an unrestrainable spirit of enmity against the French; this abhorrence being destined at some future day to serve both as the means and justification of his projects!

The final overthrow of the republic now became imminent. Bonaparte had suffered it to escape him that it was his intention to take possession of Venice, of Brescia, of Bergamo, and of Crema, and that "as he had clipped the wings of the imperial eagle, he would compel the (Venetian) lion to lift his paws from the earth, and leave them but little on the ocean." The government seemed determined on a most vigorous resistance whenever the French should dare to attack the shores of the Lagoon: and every possible measure was adopted for defending the capital: it had been the policy of the French to exhaust the treasury by rapacious requisitions, and its present means were insufficient for the emergency. Things were in this state when a general peace was in agitation on the continent.

"At the end of August 1796, four dispatches all on the same subject, arrived together, from the provéditeur extraordinary, Bateggia, and from the Venetian ambassadors at the courts of France, Madrid, and Constantinople. They all stated a proposal, by Bonaparte to the former, and by the principal ministers of the abovementioned courts to the three latter, of an alliance between France, Spain, the Ottoman Porte, and the Venetians, and urging it as the palladium on which the existence of the state depended."

The senate, with a degree of magnanimity which their former conduct had not given reason to expect from them, spurned at the proffered junction. Russia offered

to the Venetians her alliance, but the acquisition of state, in concert with the *Savoy*, thought proper not to communicate this proposal to the senate! The Venetian ambassador at Paris, also admonished his government that the states were to be thrown into the scale of compensations, and that already, in a negotiation for peace, they had been offered to the House of Austria. But this dispatch, also, we are assured by our author, was suppressed. Is it possible that an authority of suppressing documents of state, an authority pregnant with incalculable mischief, and from which mischief alone, and unmingled with advantage, can proceed—is it possible that such authority can be delegated to any constituent portion of any government? It is scarcely credible.

While the Venetian empire was thus threatened from without, a formidable faction of her own citizens was preparing to overturn the republic at Milan: the province of Bergamo rose against these recreant Italians, who, assisted by the French, were but too successful. The French had taken possession of the castle of Bergamo in 1796, planted cannon on its walls, and constructed military works round it: the complaints of the senate at this occupation were treated by the directory with contempt. On the 12th of March 1797, the revolution at Bergamo broke forth: cannon were pointed against the palace of the government, guards were doubled at the gates, and every moment threatened to produce some violent explosion. *French officers went from house to house, and under pain of death compelled the inhabitants to subscribe a national declaration in favour of liberty.* In short, the Venetian governor, leaving all his property, was compelled to quit the city, and resign his palace into the hands of the French. The noble spirit of the inhabitants of the vallies, who, unsolicited, precipitated themselves under the walls of their city resolved to plant again the national standard on the bodies of their invaders—that noble spirit was unavailingly exerted.

Brescia, Crema, Salò, Laugier, and Verona, all in rapid succession, were overwhelmed by the irruption of this revolutionary volcano. The same scene of desolation, ruin, and wretchedness was every where presented. We turn from the picture with mingled emotions of horror, pity, and indignation. Some reflections, however, force themselves upon the mind which may not be deter-

ther useless: the first, obvious and trite as it is, can scarcely be too frequently repeated, namely, that the happiness of its people should be the primary object of every government. When the redress of grievances is temperately and constitutionally demanded; let it instantly and graciously be granted, nor wait till an angry people, goaded with oppression, rise and seek a terrible redress on the heads of their oppressors. The next reflection which occurs is, on the importance of having not only a well-disposed, but a high-spirited, a vigorous, and resolute government. One grand cause of the disasters which fell upon the Venetian states was the irresoluteness, the credulity, and pusillanimity of the senate, which, afraid, of the enemy at their gates, yet repressed the ardour and courage of those patriots who sought to shed their blood in the cause of their own country, and which exerted all its efforts to avoid coming to an open rupture with France, idly and ingloriously hoping to relax the stern brow of war by courtesy and submission; by acts of conciliation and even kindness to avert his wrath; and by an acknowledgment of weakness to excite the conqueror's compassion! A third reflection which presses itself into notice is the absolute necessity of a reciprocal connection and co-operation between the constituent parts of any government: nothing can more strongly demonstrate the absurdity, the folly, the very madness of investing one portion with an authority to suppress and withhold from another any communication of state, than the treacherous use which was made of it by the Venetian *Savji*.

It is worthy of remark, that the inhabitants of the Venetian cities were with little exception disaffected, and disposed to receive the French, while the country people of the provinces, the mountaineers and inhabitants of the vallies, were zealous in the defence of their country and their ancient constitution. We are here told that the French had been unable to find in all Crema a single wretch willing to take on himself the odium of promoting a civil convulsion. In the very same page, however, it is stated that forty French hussars—only forty, obtained permission to pass the night there, and on the morrow, when the French troops advanced to the city, when the gates were shut, the draw-bridges elevated, and the barriers closed, these forty hussars, instead of being sacrificed to the just

fury of the populace on the spot, were sufficient to wrest the muskets from the national guards, open the gates of the city for their companions in arms, and march with insolent triumph to the government palace, forcibly take his sword from the Venetian governor, and make him prisoner of war! Verona, indeed, seemed determined on making a noble resistance; and had the patriotism of its inhabitants been seconded by the courage of the senate, might have kindled an enthusiasm at which their enemies would have trembled; but irresolution crept into their councils and palsied the arm of the people. They had armed almost to a man: never did a city, says our historian, prepare for war with greater ardor, or appear disposed to wage it with more energy. The national troops, under officers of eminence, were divided into three bodies of from four to five thousand each and took the field. Whatever was to be done to repress the rebels was executed with intelligence, with the applause of their officers, and even of the French generals. The senate at first caught the enthusiasm of the people, and issued orders to repel force by force, even should the latter be attacked by the troops of Bonaparte. This was on the 18th of March, 1797: by an ignominious decree, however, passed within eight and forty hours afterwards, they commanded them only to engage the rebels, *provided the French troops should take no part in the aggression*: and at last, modifying both these resolutions, they circumscribed all military operations to doing nothing which should uselessly expose the lives of so many faithful subjects; and passed an edict which was to be published throughout Terra Firma, ordering that all subjects should act with the most circumspect moderation in the use of their arms; and another, to be circulated in Venice, requiring the people to behave with all regard to the French. With such shifting, cowardly, cringing greybeards at the head of government, was it possible that the republic should be saved from sinking in the storm? Traitor to itself, did it deserve the faithful support of the people? To flattery, submission and entreaties, Venice had the baseness to add bribery: the directory, it was said, were divided as to the future fate of this degenerate republic; two of its members supported a revolution and two opposed it. Barras was yet undecided, and the sum of

700,000 livres tournois was the price agreed on for his casting vote. The money was paid, the contract of course broken. Querini, the Venetian ambassador, had advanced the money out of his private fortune; he returned home, and after the fall of the republic, when notes were presented to him for reimbursement, inspired with the highest sense of honour and generosity, he refused to accept them, as the conditions on which he had expended the money had not been fulfilled.

After the fall of Verona, the troops which guarded Vicenza, Padua, and Treviso were recalled to Venice, and these defenceless places were in their turn revolutionized. Upon a demand from L'Allemand for the free admission of armed ships, and for that of his countrymen into Venice, the senate seemed for a moment to revive, and instructed their admiral to compel the French squadron to respect the laws and customs of a neutral power. Thus closed the meeting, the last meeting of the senate, which from this moment abdicated its sovereignty, and sealed for ever its own disgrace. It would occupy too much room to particularize the defensive preparations which at this time existed for insuring the execution of the order: we must refer our readers to the volume, simply stating that they were in every respect ample, and that cowardice or treachery could alone have defeated it.

Cowards must expect to be treated like cowards: when the Venetian deputies met Bonaparte at Gratz, he required the liberation of all prisoners confined for their political principles: and the abolition of the senate. The deputies having no power to accede to that palpable and gross infringement of the constitution which this Corsican Attila demanded, the great council, the original source of all sovereign power, was convened. When assembled, the fathers swore to keep the secret of state; with pallid countenance, "and more venerable through his misfortunes, the Doge arose, and with broken accents declared that it was matter of absolute necessity to liberate the persons confined for political opinions, and to communicate to the deputies their unanimous disposition to treat with Bonaparte on some modification in the present form of government. A profound silence prevailed throughout the hall, interrupted only

by the proposition which was to be sanctioned. Nothing more was heard than that it was confirmed by a large majority." The decree was announced too late—the directory had determined that no submission on the part of Venice should frustrate her intention to revolutionize the state. It had the unparalleled audacity to send a squadron into the Adriatic without any flag whatever, ordering them to arrive there at a period fixed for the treacherous usurpation of the capital. Having advanced within sight of the Port of the Lido, they directed three ships of war, one of which, in contempt of the senate and the laws, which prohibited all armed vessels of every nation from entering the Lagunes, resolved to force a passage. The Venetian commander gave warning to Laugier, the captain of the French ship, that he would not suffer him to advance with impunity. In defiance of the admonition, Laugier now prepared to employ force. A heavy fire commenced from the port, and he fell a victim to his audacity. The senate, ever crouching, ordered the ship to be repaired, and the surviving crew to be compensated for their losses, and forwarded to Bonaparte a mean, grovelling, and submissive letter, communicating the circumstances of the case and imploring his forgiveness! He replied—*by a declaration of war.*

The deputies were instantly ordered to present themselves before Bonaparte, with the decree of the great council, and implore from his mercy at least a suspension of hostilities. He shewed himself inexorable to all negotiation, unless the *assassination* of the French were first expiated with the blood of the inquisitors of state, the commandant of the castle of Lido, and the captain of the galley!! The deputies did at length succeed in softening the monster's heart: he at last condescended to grant an armistice of four days; in lieu of inflicting death on the persons to be delivered up, he contented himself with exemplary punishment, and in lieu of condemning two persons for the affair at Lido, he was satisfied with one!

We are induced to take an extended notice of the volume before us, not merely from the intrinsic interest of the subject, but from the interest which that subject bears in relation to the present state of our own kingdom. This same Bonaparte, this second Attila, as he has

appropriately sturnamed himself, has long threatened to make these islands the theatre of the same dreadful drama with which he stained the soil of Venice. A British parliament, indeed, unlike her pale, panic-stricken senate, will certainly not long debate, 'Which of the two to chuse, slavery or death,' nor will the hardy and courageous people of these realms suffer, without resistance, one blade of grass to be bent by the foot of an enemy. It is nevertheless useful that we should be well acquainted with the character of the foe who threatens us; it is useful that we should be informed of the conduct which that foe has adopted in countries where he entered *as a friend*, that we may form some faint and feeble conception of the blasting atrocities that he would perpetrate here, if our dear native country were to be profaned by his hostile presence.

Disgusted and indignant as the reader of this narrative must necessarily be at the treachery and tyrannous conduct of the French, he must, if he has the commonest feelings, merely the ordinary spirit of a man about him, feel equally disgusted and indignant at the base, the truckling, cowardly conduct of the Venetian government. In spite of his better judgment, he will be ready to exclaim, that such a government deserved such a fate: Bonaparte trampled upon it with ignominy, and the worm had not spirit to curl against the foot that crushed it.

The GREAT council had the insufferable meanness to sacrifice to the ambition of Bonaparte their brave commandant of the castle of Lido, and the three inquisitors of state, by an official note, which serves as a memorial of their baseness. They were arrested and sent to the island of San Giorgio Maggiore, and to complete this iniquitous climax, immediately afterwards the gates of the Biombi prison and of the castles were thrown open to the prisoners confined for high treason!*

The French had contrived to gain a very powerful party; in short, as the government was contemptible to the last degree, it could afford no security, and

could inspire no confidence. When the Venetian government had first begun to suspect the faith of France, among its measures for the defence of the capital, it had garrisoned the different ports with 12,000 Slavonians. The French had now contrived, by the publication of hand-bills, &c. in the Slavonian language, to spread among these troops a belief that their leaders intended to abandon them, and to deliver them into the hands of the French, against whom they harboured an implacable hatred. The furious excesses into which these deluded savages were urged, and which they threatened to perpetrate, produced a resolution that they should be sent back to their own country. An opinion that they were to be disarmed by their own officers, and delivered into the hands of the French, was the origin of this commotion among the Slavonians: from the removal of them, however, it resulted, that there were no longer any forces to man the flotilla, or to defend the capital, which was consequently exposed to the attack of the French from without, and of the supposed conspirators within.

Such was the panic of the Conferenza, a body of citizens who had filled the chief offices of state, and after the abdication of the senate, had assumed all the powers of sovereignty; such was their panic, that, with the exception of seven recusants, they signed away the independence of the republic to the insolent threats of the French secretary Villehard, notwithstanding that the Venetian deputies had obtained an enlargement of the armistice, and were at that very time in negotiation with Bonaparte at Milan, for the conclusion of an honourable treaty! Among the many disgraceful conditions to which these reptile patricians acceded, were the following: "That the prisons called the Piombi and Pozzi be left open to the inspection of the people. That all prisoners, detained for any crimes whatsoever, be allowed new trials, and the punishment of death in all cases abolished. That the Slavonians be disbanded; that the city guards should depend on a provisory committee, the mem-

* The name of the valiant commandant of Lido was Dominic Pizzamano: the three inquisitors were Augustin Barbarigo, Angelo Maria Gabrielli, and Catterin Cornaro. We are informed in a note, that the government having abdicated its sovereignty, the trial of these victims was conducted by the patriots, who, in spite of the calumnies of Bonaparte, declared the inquisitors of state innocent. This however did not save them from an imprisonment of several months, and a heavy pecuniary fine. What the fate of Pizzamano was we are not informed.

bers of which were nominated by Villard. That a manifesto be circulated announcing democracy, &c.; that the insignia of the old government be burnt under the tree of liberty. That four thousand French be invited to enter the city to guard the arsenal, castle, &c.; and that the Venetian fleet be recalled, after the entry of the French, on whom it shall depend, with the privity of the municipality, for the command and disposal thereof."

Such, among others, were the ignominious terms acceded to; and Condulmar, captain of the navy, having solicited from the Conferenza decisive instructions, in case the French should act hostilely against Venice, was, in writing, ordered, to avoid any opposition to their advances, and even to surrender the capital, only endeavouring to obtain such conditions as might somewhat mitigate the severity of so enormous a sacrifice.

The Conferenza, who, on the dissolution of the senate, were so eager to seize the reins of sovereignty, were in the moment of peril equally anxious to free themselves from the responsibility of their situation. They accordingly summoned—it was for the last time—the great council, on whose supreme will depended the dissolution of the aristocracy, and the sanction of the proposed articles. On the 12th of May 1797, this synod ratified the decree which annihilated the Venetian republic: the doge opened the assembly with a picture of the wretched and defenceless situation to which the capital was reduced; and conjured the members rather to remove the sovereignty, than expose themselves or their subjects to the danger of bloodshed! The moment that this act of abandonment was passed, the gates of the great council were thrown open, and the renegade members rushed out in the utmost confusion. "Some hastened to

throw off their gowns, lest they should be insulted by the rebels, others cursed and trampled under foot their hereditary patrician insignia." The people of Venice, however, whilst the revolvers were shouting *Viva la Libertà*, joined not the outcry, but opposed to it the shout which had been consecrated by so many centuries of prosperity, *Viva san Marco, viva!* Patriotism and rebellion now became opposed to each other, the passions of the people became excessively inflamed, and thirty thousand betrayed patriots were anxiously and unavailingly seeking for one solitary patrician to give his influence and direction; not a patrician was to be found; the doge had slunk from his palace; and, after the fury of the populace was abated, the French took possession of the capital.

The concluding chapter of this melancholy memoir describes, in a tone of very animated and indignant eloquence, the infamous conduct of the directory towards this subjugated, this dismembered republic. We have read the narrative before us with great interest, but certainly with emotions very different from those which we experienced in reading the accounts which have been given us of the invasion of Switzerland by the French. The Venetians had no *ALLOYS* *RENNING*, to march at their head: they were betrayed and sacrificed by a dastardly government, which merited by its cowardice the ignominious fate it met with. Such a government could claim no confidence, no respect: patriotism was discouraged, and the uplifted arm of the hero repeatedly palsied in the very act of striking.

The narrative is uniformly animated; the historian feels warmly, and his style, though oftentimes too oratorically laboured, is certainly calculated to excite sympathetic feeling in a majority of readers.

ART. II. *Historical Outlines of the Rise and Establishment of the Papal Power, addressed to the Roman Catholic Priests of Ireland.* By HENRY CARD, of Pembroke College, Oxford. 8vo. pp. 140.

FROM the introduction prefixed to this little volume, it appears to have been composed for the purpose of detaching the Irish multitude from that excessive and dangerous reverence for the papal see, which has contributed repeatedly to disturb their allegiance, and which, now that the pope will always be under French influence, is become ad-

ditionally dangerous among British subjects. Dr. Geddes has indicated the line of argument, in which the catholic clergy can found, consistently with their essential principles, a strictly patriotic sect. We much doubt whether any one, not educated in the catholic schools, could have detected where the collar may best be unbuckled; or have supplied

the masterly bolstering of the apology.

The chief fault of the historical outline before us, is its extreme abbreviation. It professes to instruct the catholic priests of Ireland; yet it omits to detail the very gradual ascent to influence of the pastors of the principal Christian congregation at Rome: it neglects to detain attention on the pristine impotence of the successor of St Peter, and to enumerate, with affected detail, the instances of disobedience to his authority, and of resistance to his supremacy. The greatest care ought to have been taken to mark the commencement of every assumption; because that alone can be resumed by a Christian public, which does not derive from apostolic institution.

The word *pope* is originally Greek, and signifies *father*: it was in early times applied to all the elderly clergy, and especially to bishops. St. Augustin, writing to his sister, says, "I think you possess the works of the holy *pope* Ambrose." St. Jerome, writing to St. Augustin, calls him *the blessed pope Augustin*. In the eighth œcumenical council held at Constantino-ple in 869, all the patriarchs were called *popes*. Gregory VII. in a council held at Rome, first ordained, at the close of the eleventh century, that the title of *pope* should be given to the bishop of Rome only. In the Greek church the ancient usage remains, and every village has still its own *pope*.

The original cathedral of Rome was not St. Peter's, but St. John's church: it was this which Constantine endowed with some lands in Calabria, and on whose pastor he settled, out of the public treasury, an income of a thousand marks of gold. In the fourth century there were already rival claimants of the episcopal see, *antipopes*, as each called his adversary; and the income was so considerable and so splendidly employed, that the consul Pretexa, a heathen, declared in 466, that, if they would make him bishop of Rome, he would turn Christian.

Ecclesiastical allegiance is always conditional: it is to be had at the price of professing and patronizing the doctrines of the church, and at no other. As it provides a numerous party of ready-made subjects, it is of immense importance to upstarts and usurpers, who have usually owed their stability to becoming benefactors of the clergy. Thus Constantine among the ancients, Henry IV.

among ourselves, Pepin and Bonaparte among the French, sought and found, in the alliance of the church, an adequate prop for an intruded dynasty. Where usurpations are frequent, the church naturally becomes a stronger authority than that represented by the sovereign. In those perturbed times, when the military chieftain of the district was continually varying or removing, the quiet multitude wisely sought for the fixed shelter of the church. Priestly power at that æra was more subservient to peace, to judicial equity, to the definition of property, to domesticity, to plenty, and to public amusement, than the eternal feuds and wars of the barons and the kings. When not a nobleman could write or cypher, every village needed its notary public, and found one in the priest.

The conquests of the Goths, and next of the Lombards, in Italy, taught the Romans experimentally, how important it was to place the registers of marriage and the titles of property, rather under the ecclesiastical than the civil magistrate; under the party which retained the respect of every fresh conqueror, than under that which he plundered and superseded. Boethius might wish to revive the authority of the senate, and to trammel the gothic sovereigns with a parliament of civil lawyers; but it is probable that no force feebler than that of superstition could have given any laws at all to the barbarian invaders. The tacit consent of the wise went with the progress of ecclesiastical authority. Not the virtues of the popes, not the confidence of the instructed in the domineering persuasion, were the causes of that power; but its real and felt expediency then and there. After a third part of the lands of Lombardy had been distributed among Gothic captains, who acknowledged no laws but those of their native pastures, what force was to call them to account for deeds of violence and rapine? It was only by giving to interdict and excommunication, the weapons of the priesthood, an artificial value, that these ignorant men of might could in any degree be subjected to the public opinion of the wise. Such experiments were first tried with success on the small scale in Italy, and were afterwards applied with a prodigious boldness to whole empires, when the Italian missionaries had established concatenated churches throughout the barbarous

sovereignties of the north. The influence of the clergy may be incompatible with the higher degrees of civilization : but it is certainly favourable to the lower : and it will be found to have been progressive in Europe, only while it was wanted to keep alive the very elements of literature and justice. The pursuit of uniformity of opinion, now fitly considered as an attempt no less pernicious than vain, admits of some apology in a military age, when every appeal was to the sword. The civil wars of contending sects could not then have been repressed by the strength of the magistrate, or prevented by the useful contempt of an indifferent majority. Controversy in a learned age stimulates and advertizes learning : it is most in its place when it merely influences the distribution of some parish-lectureships and college livings, and, without appealing to the sovereign, or dividing the senate, secures, from the attracted participation of the people, an adequate recompense of advancement to the excellent antagonists on both sides.

An important step to the independence of the Romish see was taken under the tolerant Gothic king Theodoric. The names of Symmachus and of Laurence were laid before him, as having both been chosen popes ; and he was desired to decide between them. He named Symmachus, *because Symmachus had been first elected* : this was waiving the royal veto, and conferring a real *congratulation* on the metropolitan chapter. From that time forwards popes were appointed, not because they were agreeable to the sovereign, but because they were agreeable to the church. The spirit of the church was immediately breathed into the whole body ; and it began that very century to perform in miniature in Italy all those actions, which were to be repeated in colossal dimensions throughout Europe during the next five hundred years. Intolerance, unrelenting intolerance, is an essential feature of popery : against the rich and defenceless Jews, who had formed their establishments at Naples, Rome, Ravenna, Milan, and Genoa, for the benefit of trade, and under the sanction of the laws, even under the tolerant Theodoric, a persecution was got up. Their persons were insulted, their effects were pillaged, and their synagogues were burnt by the mad populace of Ravenna and Rome. A legal inquiry was instantly directed, and the

whole community was condemned to repair the damage : the bigots, who refused their contributions, were whipped through the streets. This simple act of justice exasperated the discontent of the catholics, who applauded the merit and patience of these holy confessors, and attributed to the arianism of Theodoric his attempt at impartiality. This persecution was the model of those, which afterwards accompanied the commencement of almost every crusade.

Belisarius banished the pope Silverius, whom he suspected of favouring the independence of Italy : but the avowed separation of the western from the eastern church was deferred till the eighth century, when the heresy of the Iconoclasts became established at Constantinople. This innovation produced and justified the rebellion of the Romans, who proudly deposed the heretical emperor of the Greeks, and applied to Charles Martel, to accept with the patrician rank the tutelary care of the Romish republic of priests. Pope Gregory II. had the merit of this revolution : his letters to the Byzantine emperor Leo are still extant : they want urbanity and learning. Yet it is not unsatisfactory to observe a power founded on opinion able to overcome the hereditary sceptre and the military truncheon ; arming Italy in behalf of its altars, and beating back, under the walls of Ravenna, the armies and the fleets of Constantinople. There was however a want of statesmanship in not then contriving to consolidate all Italy under one form of government ; a measure which would have perpetuated, under every political change, its European importance.

This ecclesiastical revolt of the Italians was supported by a strong party in the Greek church, who expected the reunion of Italy with the eastern empire, whenever the worship of images should be restored by the expected penitence of the Byzantine court. Pepin's usurpation of the throne of France prepared a transfer of the Italian alliance to the chief potentate of the west. The pope Zachariah thought fit to consecrate this usurpation ; and obtained, for legitimating the new dynasty in the eyes of the superstitious, a recognition of the independence of the ecclesiastical state. On the imperial coronation of Charlemagne, the son and successor of Pepin, this independence was further established : Charlemagne accepted the titular rank

of Roman patrician, and left the whole exercise of sovereignty to the pope. Indeed Pepin seems to have been hired by the wealth of the Vatican to undertake those expeditions against the Lombards, which emancipated the papal territory.

The secret will of the church affected much the domestic popularity of the military monarch of the feudal ages: it probably affected the oscillations of conquest; for we find the limitary line between Germany and France westerling considerably, when the family of the Otthos became greater favourites with the popes than the French sovereigns. Otho III. presented to the papal see the march of Ancona. Matilda, countess of Tuscany, made a similar donation of her states to pope Gregory VII. There is nothing of usurpation in papal dominion: much territory honestly come by has on the contrary been withheld by the cupidity of temporal sovereigns. Avignon was regularly purchased by Clement VI. in the year 1348 for eighty thousand florins. It was acquired by as pure and exemplary a title as Pennsylvania and Louisiana.

The most interesting piece of relation in this volume, is the controversy between the emperor of Germany and the pope, which began in 1076. As it displays the papal power in the zenith of its lustre, we shall lay before our readers the striking narrative of Mr. Card.

"Both priest and king had now assumed such an hostile aspect, that they were become too impatient either to wish or to propose any terms of accommodation. Gregory had the honour or infamy of darting the first lance, when he summoned Henry to answer, in person, the crimes of which he was charged, at Rome, on the Monday of the second week in Lent; and this audacious mandate also declares, that unless his attendance is punctual to that very day, he shall be immediately cut off from the body of the holy church, by an apostolic interdict. Henry answered, and revenged this unexpected insult, by dismissing the legates with every mark of ignominy, and by convoking a council at Worms, to reduce the papal power. In the assembly, chiefly composed of bishops, princes, and lords, obedient to the wishes of Henry, it was not long before these fatal words dropped from their lips: "Gregory, whose life is blotted with the foulest crimes, is no more entitled to the appellation of pope, or to the power of binding and unloosening, according to the privilege of the papal see." The bishops of Wirzburg and Metz, more cautious, more moderate, or more impartial than their bre-

thren, ventured however to declare; that the condemnation of the pope, without the consent of a general council, or without the appearance of respectable accusers and witnesses, was not agreeable to the canons; and they might have added, incompatible with the principles of justice. But the quick and artful zeal of William, bishop of Utrecht, a staunch friend to Henry, presently overruled their objections, and obtained their signatures, by the observation, that their refusal left them no alternative, but that of renouncing the allegiance they owed the king.

"Before the separation of the bishops, they employed some part of their time in composing a letter for the perusal of the pope, which, exposing and justifying the grounds of their proceedings, required his immediate acquiescence to their sentiments. The king's letter to Gregory may be almost regarded as a transcript of the bishops', except, that the style is more reproachful, acrimonious, and magisterial. In his to the clergy and people of Rome, the monarch chiefly expatiates upon the intolerable pride of the pope to his fellow bishops and to crowned heads; and his extravagant and unlawful passion for exercising an absolute dominion over Christians of every denomination. He exhorts them to let their efforts be united in delivering the church from the impending tyranny of Gregory, which must be inevitable if he is not pushed from the seat of his usurpation. With these three letters Roland, a clerk of Parma, came to Rome, the evening before the opening of the council which Gregory had convened in the first week of Lent. No sooner therefore had the synod assembled than Roland appeared; and, while he presented to the pope the letters of the king and the council of Worms, pronounced, in an audible voice, these unexpected words:—"Descend immediately from that place which you have so illegally obtained, by the command of Henry, my master, and the whole body of the Transalpine and Italian bishops." Then turning to the Roman clergy, in the same bold and laconic language, he summoned them to repair to the king at Pentecost, "to receive from his hands a pope in the room of this ravenous wolf." Impatient of such insolence of speech, John, bishop of Porto, started up from his seat, and demanded the arrest of Roland, whose blood would undoubtedly have paid the forfeit of his temerity, had not the authority of Gregory interposed.

"It was with some difficulty that the pope could procure silence in this general scene of surprise, confusion, and rage. When the violence of their zeal was however sufficiently abated for him to obtain a hearing, well knowing, from repeated trials, the obsequious temper of his hearers, with a composure, which could not inwardly have been felt, if we are the least conversant with the spirit of the man, he addressed them to the following effect: "My children, let not

violated the nature of his office, in presuming to exercise the power of the sword, and that the people who gave, alone possessed the right of depriving Henry of his sceptre of dominion, he condescended to unfold his high prerogatives, in a long epistle, addressed to Herman, bishop of Metz, one of those prelates who sacrificed their king and conscience, to regain the friendship and favour of this self-appointed judge of the world.

"The epistles of Gregory we have shewn, are only worthy to be selected for imitation, and to be praised as models of genius and piety, by those who never looked beyond the precincts of a convent for eloquence, nor ever reflected that the performance of external ceremonies, with apparent sanctity, and a prolix discourse, spun out by spiritual quotations, exhibits no proof that the heart was pure, or the doctrine sound. But if this headstrong man really intended to achieve the reformation of princes, the weapons that he used, and the armour in which he was clad, were both unsuitable for so glorious a victory. Instead of those arguments, which, always having a moral purpose, work shame, while they awaken respect and veneration; instead of that dignified humility, which displays a mind fixed above the things of this world; and instead of that God-like benevolence, which casts an eye upon human frailties, Gregory presents himself to us, in his epistle, paradoxical, ambitious, haughty, and unforgiving. In what an odious perfection are all these last-mentioned qualities united in the following epistle; but as we do not wish, nor is it at all necessary, to fatigue the attention, by a too minute representation of papal imperfections, we shall only produce some of those passages, which are more peculiarly applicable to this design.

"Although the impertinence of those who affirm that we are not entitled to excommunicate kings, is undeserving of an answer;" (such is the dogmatical language of Gregory), "yet, to restore them to a wholesome doctrine, let us examine the words and examples of the fathers." After this modest exordium, we confess that it is not to our surprise, though to our indignation, we behold him outstep the strict limits of historical truth, in search of evidence for his first assertion. He then proceeds to ask, with all the insolence of imaginary triumph, whether kings were excepted in this command of our Saviour to St. Peter: "Feed my sheep;"—and is it not likewise evident that, in the power which was granted him of binding and unloosening, all persons were included. Perhaps they may be inclined to place the royal above the episcopal dignity: the difference of each may be clearly demonstrated in the origin. The one has been invented by human pride; the other instituted by divine goodness. The former is perpetually seeking after vain glory; the latter always aspiring to a celestial life. Thus St. Ambrose has expressed himself in his pastoral;—that the

mitre as much transcends the diadem, as lead is excelled in value by gold: and the emperor Constantine took the last seat among the bishops. This letter is followed by another to the bishops, lords, and faithful, of the Teutonic kingdom; in which, still holding his unquestionable right to excommunicate Henry, he labours to vindicate his conduct to that prince, in sentences worked up with an equal mixture of truth and falsehood.

"Much time had now been employed, and much dexterity exerted by Gregory, before he could draw to his side characters of a sufficient weight to lead the multitude, and thus to contribute immediately to the success of his designs. At last he had the unchristian pleasure of beholding the princes of Swabia, Bavaria, Corinthia, Rodolph, Gwelf, and Berthold, and the bishops of Wirtzburg and Worms, all eager to stain their names with the crime of rebellion. Grown more bold and unjust than ever by this powerful confederacy, the revengeful priest, now meditated to exalt another to the throne of Henry, and for this purpose he addressed, a third time, the lords, bishops, and people, of Germany. "If Henry," says the authoritative pontiff, "does not reform, we empower you to elect another master; but be careful that your choice is not obnoxious to the Roman see, and the empress Agnes," a weak, vain, and credulous woman, who could forget the natural affection of a parent, to obtain the praises, and assist the views, of the pope.

"Upon the contents of this letter, the standard of rebellion was openly erected at Ulm. And the fifteenth of August, at Tribur, near Metz, were the time and place appointed by a numerous body of princes, bishops, and nobles, to hold an assembly, which should heal the dissensions of their kingdom; or, in other words, support the pretensions of Gregory, and favour the hopes of Rodolph, who looked, with a proud eye, to the vacant crown. The lords of Saxony, Bavaria, Lorraine, and Lower Germany, were conjured, in the name of God, to disregard their ordinary concerns for a time, that they might promote the public good at this meeting. When the day arrived, the influence of the pope was testified, by the crowd of illustrious persons who pressed forwards to obey his commands. To swell the pomp, and to regulate the opinions of this assembly, Sigward, patriarch of Aquileia, and Altman, bishop of Passau, appeared in the character of apostolical legates. Part of their train was adorned, or disgraced, by some laymen, who once possessed power, wealth, and titles; but resigned them for beggary, and the fleeting applause of the pope. They were exhibited before the assembly, and instructed to declaim upon the justice of their patron's conduct to Henry, and to promise his consent to their proceedings. But any device, however miserably deficient in ingenuity, if it only

bore the papal stamp, was sure to be admired by this superstitious age.

"Six days were consumed in deliberations; in which time, the complaints of those who had been injured by the king were heard, believed, but we cannot find any authority to add, redressed. The result of their deliberations was such as might be expected from the violent and prejudiced temper of the men:—their monarch's abdication, and the investing another with his regal office.

"While these resolutions were forming, the excommunicated Henry, with the few courtiers who still followed his drooping fortunes, had fixed his residence at Oppenheim, on the opposite side of the Rhine. The sovereign, whose greatness is so much reduced as to be compelled to supplicate his rebellious subjects for pardon and reconciliation, must not flatter himself with the prospect of success in his petition. Each day, deputies repaired to the diet, with the promises of their monarch to correct the abuses which had been committed in his government, and to submit, in future, his actions to the judgment of the princes; they were even authorized by Henry to say, so much was his spirit humbled by their revolt, that he would place the reins of administration in their hands, if they only allowed him to retain the titles and ensigns of royalty. But the only answer they deigned to return to these repeated assurances of his reformation, was, the bitter reproach of his never having performed what he promised. To mortify his pride still further, they added, that while he lay under the anathema of the pope, they even offended their own consciences by holding any communication with him; and that, as the papal sentence had released them from all oaths, and allegiance, they would justly be arraigned for their folly, in not seizing the opportunity which Providence gave them of tendering their homage and services to a more worthy ruler.

"It was now resolved by the confederates to attack their sovereign next morning, as all obstacles to their passage had been removed by the archbishop of Mayence conveying the boats from their station, when he forsook Henry, to give a timely support to the determination of the assembly. Henry, aware of his danger, collected all the troops that could be found in that neighbourhood, with the intention of assaulting them as soon as they had passed the river; but the discovery of this design stopped the march of his adversaries, and taught them to practice safer arts for his depression. At the break of day, the deputies of the princes appeared before the king, with the unfair proposal of appointing

the pope the sole arbiter of their differences, at an assembly which should be convened in the city of Augsburg, upon the purification of the Virgin: this offer was also coupled with the threat, that, unless Henry made it his indispensable duty to obtain absolution before the year and day of his excommunication, he should ever despair of ascending his throne; while, to attest the sincerity of his faith, if he acceded to those conditions, they required, among other painful sacrifices, his immediate separation from all those who had embraced the magnanimous resolution of never deserting his cause, and his retirement to Spire, with the bishop of Verdun, in the character of a private individual, without even the decent and reasonable privilege of performing his devotion in the church. The popularity of Henry had so much declined, and his spirit was so much broken, that, without a murmur, he ratified the demands of his refractory subjects."

In the dissolution of civil constitutions which is likely to take place during the present century in so many countries, and which will of course be accompanied with many instances of military usurpation and domineering violence, the want may again begin to be felt of an influence, constantly operating to organize anew the stationary elements of society, and to direct public opinion, and popular instruction, toward a more beneficent constitution of things. This influence will be found in the mass of authors by profession, who will insensibly combine into a sort of literary priesthood, and, by the mere skilful distribution of praise and blame, win from alternate usurpers, constitutions of government more elective and more rotatory, purer instruction, wiser laws, and freer institutions. A sort of philosophocracy, analogous to the papacy, seems likely to grow out of the approaching anarchy of the continent; a mandarinat, in which the literary order is the ruling, or rather the managing, class. Such was, in some degree, the interior government of France, under Bonaparte, before the restoration of popery; but the public instructors, professors, prefects, and publishers, are now subdued into an excessive dependence on the state, which renders benevolence and wisdom useless.

ART. III. *The modern History of Hindostan, comprehending that of the Greek Empire of Bactria, and other great Asiatic Kingdoms, bordering on its western Frontiers; commencing at the Period of the Death of Alexander, and intended to be brought down to the Close of the eighteenth Century.* Vol. II. Part I. 4to. pp. 256.

OF the preceding two parts of this history we long since (vol. 1. p. 322.) gave an account.

This new portion of the work commences with the incursion of Timur into Hindostan in the year 1398, and traces the succession of that prince's descendants on the thrones of Tartary and India, to the death of Jehanguire in 1627: a period including the opening of a passage by Gama to India, round the Cape of Good Hope, and the consequent overthrow of the oriental systems of policy by the successive intrusions of European colonists.

The irruption of Timur Bec, and the history of his immediate descendants down to sultan Baber, is here lazily reprinted from a manuscript of the author, composed before he had read Ferishta. This manuscript occupies about fifty pages; the account of Ferishta is then inserted, instead of being used progressively, and critically corrected; and thus a tautologous statement occurs, not freed from the inconsistencies which are apt to float about in distinct sources of intelligence. For the historian of a learned age thus to borrow his method of composition from the compiler of the Pentateuch is extraordinary.

In the first chapter Timur crosses the Indus, assists in the reduction of Multan, destroys Batnir, and marches to Delhi. The decisive battle, the flight of Mahmud, the massacre of the captives, and the plunder of this city of riches, are related with the emotion they excite. Timur next razes Merat, and pursues the Hindoos to the streights of Kupele, where nature and superstition invited to vigorous resistance; he is said to defeat them, but recrosses the Ganges, and returns through Kashmere to Samarcand, where he nominates Pir Mohammed and Chizer Khan to the vice-royalty of his new dominions; this last, on the death of Mahmud, is suffered to assume the diadem.

The second chapter comprehends the history of the dynasty of the Scyds, founded by Chizer. Under his successor Mubarik II. two rival kingdoms are formed on the eastern and western sides of the Ganges. Mohammed, the grandson, and Alla II. the great grandson of

Chizer, attain the throne; but a feudal anarchy, in which the rajahs of every province assume the title of king, is perpetually progressive. Beloli, an afghan of the tribe of Lodi, is called in to restore cohesion. This is a regular process in human society: to anarchy succeeds every where the military despotism of the best general. Beloli takes possession of Delhi, re-establishes the empire with a splendour which the new spectators think equal to the antient, is overpraised by his adherents, in order to keep under a latent opposition, and dies with a great name; having founded the dynasty of Lodi. His son, Secunder I. removes the court to Agra; but his grandson Ibrahim disgusts the great omrahs, who invite sultan Baber, the mogul, from Cabul. Ibrahim is deprived both of life and kingdom in the decisive battle of Panniput.

The third chapter treats of the mogul dynasty founded by Baber. This conqueror, like Cæsar, composed commentaries on his own campaigns, the *Pakeat*, so frequently appealed to by Ferishta. He waged long wars with the Patan omrahs, but his courage, generosity, and magnanimity, operated in turn to weaken their confederacy. His son Humaioon succeeded, but was opposed by Shere Khan, an afghan, who drove Humaioon into Persia for refuge. This rebel was killed at Chitore by the bursting of a bomb-shell, and succeeded by his younger son Selim, who died of disease, or poison, at war with his elder brother, and who made room for the transient usurpations of Mohammed, Ibrahim III. and Secunder. These violent competitions prepared the triumphal return of Humaioon to the throne of his illustrious progenitor; he too cultivated letters, and left historical memoirs: his death was occasioned by a fall from the terrace of the palace of Delhi.

The fourth chapter begins with the accession of Akber, the son of Humaioon. To him is due much of the magnificence of Agra. He waged successful war against many rebellious omrahs, and killed Himer, the Patan general, with his own hand: toward the close of his life his eldest son Selim re-

belled against him. Akber died of poison on his march against his son: he is said, however, to have swallowed this poison by mistake, and to have sent for Selim, and presented to him the diadem: probably he was removed by some creature of Selim's, and stories were told to facilitate a smooth succession. The character of Akber is thus delineated:

"Akber may be justly ranked in fame with the greatest legislators and heroes of antiquity. His personal valour and presence of mind upon all occasions, were astonishing.* With one vigorous arm he repelled the barbarians of the north, and with the other conquered the war-trained mountaineers of the south. The khan of Uzbek Tartary trembled on his throne at the name of Akber; the determined race of Rajapouts bowed before him; and the sovereigns of Visiapore and Golconda exhausted their treasures to appease his resentment. His generosity and clemency were alike unbounded. To him may be attributed the glory of establishing on the firm basis of united wisdom and equity, that mighty empire, of which Baber laid the foundation in Hindostan; which Hamaoun extended, but which it was left to himself to perfect. In civil and domestic concerns he was a bright exemplar to all the potentates of the earth. The Ayceen Akbery contains the noblest institutes ever promulged for the government of an Asiatic empire, and at the same time abounds with the most enlarged and liberal sentiments in religion and morals, at a period, and in a country, in which the former was polluted by the basest superstition, and the latter had become almost an empty name. The professor of Mohammedism, while he shuddered at the consequence of an omitted ablution, scrupled not to commit acts of the most sanguinary atrocity; and wallowed in all the turpitude of incestuous and unnatural lust. Instead of exterminating, with the remorseless fury of his bigotted predecessors, the race of patient and timid Hindoos, trampling to the earth their beloved idols, the symbols of the attributes of God, and plundering and burning their august and venerable shrines, Akber nobly and wisely extended to them the tolerating system of their own benevolent creed; gave inviolable security to their persons, and unshaken stability to their property. He was also, in a high degree, the friend and patron of letters and genius, of which Abul Fazil, and many other learned men, caressed and pensioned at his court, are illustrious proofs. He ardently encouraged commerce, both do-

mestic and foreign; and if we may believe the Portuguese historians, he not only allowed the merchants of their nation settled at Agra, most extensive immunities, but built them a church in that city. In Fraser's more authentic publication may be seen the translation of a very curious letter from this monarch to the king of Portugal, dated A. H. 990, or A. D. 1582, in which he requests of him to send an Arabic or Persian translation of the scriptures, and with it proper persons, to explain its genuine principles. That this letter, as Frazer hints, never went farther than Goa, is a circumstance, on many accounts, greatly to be lamented.† In short, the history of Asia scarcely exhibits a parallel to Akber, either in the extent and grandeur of his designs, the vigour and wisdom of his counsels, his moderation in peace, or his success and glory in war. The verdure of the double laurel, which he obtained in the field of science and arms, still blooms with unfading lustre; a lustre that illumines, though it can no longer animate, the fallen descendants of the great Timur."

Selim assumed the name of Jehanguire, or conqueror of the world. His sway is said to have included fifteen large provinces, once so many independent kingdoms; to have collected a revenue of fifty millions sterling; and to have been propped by an army of three hundred thousand foot, and a proportionate cavalry. Within six months of his accession, his eldest son Khosro, under pretence of visiting the tomb of his grandfather, (that is, of avenging a suspicious death,) had withdrawn, and was in open rebellion. He was defeated, seized, and blinded. To the mother of Khosro succeeded a new and favourite sultaness, Nourmahal, transferred, like the wife of Uriah, by the murder of her husband, and beloved with a persevering and doating fondness, of which there are few examples. Her relations monopolised the first places of the empire, her will was in every thing the law. During her ascendancy the English embassy, headed by Sir Thomas Roe, arrived. Jehanguire died in October, 1627, in the sixtieth year of his age; he left an autobiography, in which he thus confesses one of his foibles:

"He says, that at the age of fifteen he went along with his father to Attock, against

* As Akber was hunting once near Narvar, a great royal tigress, with five young ones, took the road before him. Akber advanced to the animal, while his retinue stood trembling with fear and astonishment to behold the event. The king having meditated his blow, spurred his horse towards the fierce tigress, whose eyes flamed with rage, and with one stroke of his sabre cut her across the loins, and stretched her dead at his feet.—*Ferishta*, Vol. 1. p. 221.

† See Fraser's *Mogul Emperors*, p. 11.

the tribe of Yousel Zai; when, one day, having separated from him, on a hunting party, and being exceedingly thirsty and fatigued, Shah Kuly, the commandant of the artillery, told him, that if he would drink a cup of wine, it would completely refresh him. He followed this man's advice, and drank a cup of sweet white wine, which he found so delicious, that from that time he became fond of liquor, and daily increased his dose, till at length the expressed juice of the grape had no effect upon him. Constantly, for nine years, he drank of double-distilled spirits, fourteen cups in the day, and six cups at night, which, he says, were altogether equal to six Hindostan seers, or English quarts. At this time he had hardly any appetite, his daily food being a chicken, with a little bread and some radishes. By a continuance of this course, his nerves became so affected, that he was obliged to get somebody to lift the cup to his mouth. He then discovered his case to Hakeem Hemam, one of his father's physicians and intimate companions, who freely told him, that if he persisted in this way six months longer, his disorder would be absolutely incurable. Having a great affection

for this friend, and confiding in his medical skill, he gradually lessened the daily quantity, and reduced the strength of the liquor, by diluting it with two parts of water; and, with the help of a small dose of philonium, at the end of seven years, brought himself to be satisfied with six cups daily. For fifteen years he drank at this rate, taking the whole at night, excepting on Thursday, the day of his accession; and Friday, the most holy night in the week with the Mohammedans, when he totally abstained from strong drink."

The fifth book is consecrated to a history of the European establishments in India: those of the Portuguese occupy the first chapter, with which the volume terminates. As this portion of the narrative has little novelty, any specific analysis would be superfluous.

There are many repetitions and digressions in this history, and many long quotations from the author's former works, to which a reference would have sufficed; but, on the whole, it ranks high for latitude of research, majesty of composition, and rationality of interest.

ART. IV. *The History of Free-Masonry, drawn from authentic Sources of Information; with an Account of the Grand Lodge of Scotland, from its Institution in 1736 to the present Time, compiled from the Records; and an Appendix of Original Papers.* 8vo. pp. 340.

THE origin of free-masonry is a curious, and yet undecided, literary question. The actual condition of the society is that of a purse-club, or benevolent association, where much of the collection is spent in jollity, some in mummery, and some in beneficence. It would appear to us very impertinent in the state, to be interfering with the meetings of these friendly societies; even if the ritual had a tendency to make deists of the initiated, by insisting exclusively on those tenets common to the different sects which it incorporates. Freemasons, like freemen of the grocers or fishmongers company, will always be acted upon by surrounding opinion and literature. If a majority of them, as was once the case in England, incline to the restoration of a deposed dynasty, they will naturally lend their places of meeting and their corporate influence to the cause they espouse; the friends of that cause will as naturally press into the society, for the accommodation of an established pretext and place of meeting, and for the facilitation of unnoticed intercourse. Thus the freemasons might, and did, become a powerful combination of friends

of the pretender; and, while they continued such, would be reviled by their adversaries as tools of the jesuits, and friends of unlimited ecclesiastical and civil monarchy. On the other hand, if a majority of freemasons, as was once the case in France, incline to the foundation of representative institutions, and to the political equality of religious sects, they will as naturally lend their places of meeting and their corporate influence to the cause of liberty and tolerance: the zealots of eleutherism will then press into the society, and avail themselves of its prescriptive security, to disseminate their principles and prolong their cohesion. Thus the freemasons might, and did become a powerful combination of friends of democracy; and, while they continued such, would be reviled by their adversaries as apostles of anarchy and atheism. In both cases, the state of the order would be a symptom, not a cause, of public opinion: freemasonry ought not to be blamed for its antijacobinism in 1745, or its jacobinism in 1790. All associations, secret or public, strengthen the subject; all associations, secret or public, weaken

the government : toryism bught on principle to be solitary, whiggism to be gregarious.

The guilds, or purse-clubs, of the different companies of tradesmen, were already gaining a footing in the north of Europe, in the eighth and ninth centuries ; they are mentioned in the capitularies of Charlemagne, that is in 882, and in some earlier synodical acts. The company of masons, like the company of chandlers, had no doubt its guild, or fraternity of contributors ; but as the masons of that æra were chiefly employed in the structure of churches, and other public edifices, the private accommodation of the people being on a humble scale, they were a very migratory body, especially all the higher orders of the craft. They staid long enough in one place to add a chapel to a cathedral, and were then invited to another. It became necessary therefore for the masons, in contradistinction to other similar associations, to facilitate the admission of non-residents, of temporary guests, of foreigners even, into their combinations ; and perhaps to agree on private signs of recognition, as a preservative against imposture. In the third year of our Harry the Sixth, a law was passed concerning the congregations and chapters of the masons ; so that the builders were already embodied, and affected an ecclesiastical nomenclature of their classes.

The first decisive trace of *mysterious* combination, of the use of *secret* symbols protected by oaths from the knowledge and abuse of the profane, occurs in the works of Henry Cornelius Agrippa (*Opuscula* II. 1073), who, in the year 1510, came to London, and founded a secret society for alchemical purposes, similar to one which he had previously instituted at Paris, in concert with Landolfo, Brixianus, Xanthus, and other students at that university. The members of these societies agreed on private signs of recognition ; and they founded in various parts of Europe corresponding associations for the prosecution of the occult sciences. But how this practice of initiation, or secret incorporation, became common to the rosicrucian and to the masonic confederacies, is still enigmatical ; yet the platonic tenets, the chemical emblems, the rabbinical anti-quarianism, and the womanish mum-mery, can hardly have penetrated into

lodges of architects, without some such coalition. There are curious observations on this subject in the *Monthly Review* (XXV. 501) by the critic of Bar-nuel.

Our author is not for beginning masonry with the guilds of the masons ; but for deducing its pedigree from the Dionysian mysteries of the antients.

“ About a thousand years before Christ, the inhabitants of Attica, complaining of the narrowness of their territory, and the unfruitfulness of its soil, went in quest of more extensive and fertile settlements. Being joined by a number of the inhabitants of surrounding provinces, they sailed to Asia Minor, drove out the inhabitants, seized upon the most eligible situations, and united them under the name of Ionia, because the greatest number of the refugees were natives of that Grecian province. As the Greeks, prior to the Ionic migration, had made considerable progress in the arts and sciences, they carried these along with them into their new territories ; and introduced into Ionia the mysteries of Minerva and Dionysius, before they were corrupted by the licentiousness of the Athenians. In a short time the Asiatic colonies surpassed the mother country in prosperity and science. Sculpture in marble, and the Doric and Ionian orders were the result of their ingenuity. They returned even into Greece ; they communicated to their ancestors the inventions of their own country ; and instructed them in that style of architecture, which has been the admiration of succeeding ages. For these improvements the world is indebted to the Dionysian artificers, an association of scientific men, who possessed the exclusive privilege of erecting temples, theatres, and other public buildings in Asia Minor. They supplied Ionia, and the surrounding countries, as far as the Hellespont, with theatrical apparatus by contract ; and erected the magnificent temple at Teos, to Bacchus, the founder of their order. These artists were very numerous in Asia, and existed under the same appellation in Syria, Persia, and India. About three hundred years before the birth of Christ, a considerable number of them were incorporated, by command of the kings of Pergamus, who assigned to them Teos as a settlement, being the city of their tutelary god. The members of the association, which was intimately connected with the Dionysian mysteries, were distinguished from the uninitiated inhabitants of Teos, by the science which they possessed, and by appropriate words and signs by which they could recognize their brethren of the order. Like freemasons they were divided into lodges, which were distinguished by different appellations. They occasionally held convivial meetings in houses erected and consecrated for this purpose ; and each sepa-

tate association was under the direction of a master, and presidents, or wardens. They held a general meeting once a year, which was solemnized with great pomp and festivity; and at which the brethren partook of a splendid entertainment, provided by the master, after they had finished the sacrifices to their gods, and especially to their patron Bacchus. They used particular utensils in their ceremonial observances; some of which were exactly similar to those that are employed by the fraternity of freemasons. And the more opulent artists were bound to provide for the exigencies of their poorer brethren. The very monuments which were reared by these masons, to the memory of their masters and wardens, remain to the present day, in the Turkish burying grounds, at Siverhisar and Eraki. The inscriptions upon them express in strong terms the gratitude of the fraternity, for their disinterested exertions in behalf of the order; for their generosity and benevolence to its individual members; for their private virtues, as well as for their public conduct. From some circumstances, which are stated in these inscriptions, but particularly from the name of one of the lodges; it is highly probable, that Attalus, king of Pergamus, was a member of the Dionysian fraternity.

“Such is the nature of that association of architects, who erected those splendid edifices in Ionia, whose ruins even afford us instruction, while they excite our surprise. If it be possible to prove the identity of any two societies, from the coincidence of their external forms, we are authorised to conclude, that the fraternity of the Ionian architects, and the fraternity of freemasons, are exactly the same; and as the former practised the mysteries of Bacchus and Ceres, several of which we have shewn to be similar to the mysteries of masonry; we may safely affirm, that, in their internal, as well as external procedure, the society of freemasons resembles the Dionysiacs of Asia Minor.

“The opinion, therefore, of freemasons, that their order existed, and flourished at the building of Solomon's temple, is by no means so pregnant with absurdity, as some men would wish us to believe. We have already shewn, from authentic sources of information, that the mysteries of Ceres and Bacchus, were instituted about four hundred years before the reign of Solomon; and there are strong reasons for believing, that even the association of the Dionysian architects existed before the building of the temple. It was not, indeed, till about three hundred years before the birth of Christ, that they were incorporated at Teos, under the kings of Pergamus; but it is universally allowed, that they arose long before their settlement in Ionia, and, what is more to our present purpose, that they existed in the very land of Judea. It is observed by Dr. Robison, that this association came from Persia into Syria, along with that style of architecture, which

is called Grecian: and since we are informed by Josephus, that that species of architecture was used at the erection of the temple, we are authorised to infer, not only, that the Dionysiacs existed before the reign of Solomon, but that they assisted this monarch in building that magnificent fabric, which he reared to the God of Israel. Nothing, indeed, can be more simple and consistent than the creed of the fraternity, concerning the state of their order at this period. The vicinity of Jerusalem to Egypt, the connection of Solomon with the royal family of that kingdom, the progress of the Egyptians in architectural science, their attachment to mysteries and hieroglyphic symbols, and the probability of their being employed by the king of Israel, are additional considerations, which corroborate the sentiments of freemasons, and absolve them from those charges of credulity and pride, with which they have been loaded.

“To these opinions it may be objected, that if the fraternity of freemasons flourished during the reign of Solomon, it would have existed in Judea in after ages, and attracted the notice of sacred or profane historians. Whether or not this objection is well founded, we shall not pretend to determine, but if it can be shown, that there did exist, after the building of the temple, an association of men, resembling freemasons, in the nature, ceremonies, and object of their institution; the force of the objection will not only be taken away, but additional strength will be communicated to the opinion which we have been supporting. The association here alluded to, is that of the Essenes, whose origin and sentiments have occasioned much discussion among ecclesiastical historians: They are all of one mind, however, respecting the constitution and observances of this religious order.

“When a candidate was proposed for admission, the strictest scrutiny was made into his character. If his life had hitherto been exemplary, and if he appeared capable of curbing his passions, and regulating his conduct, according to the virtuous, though austere, maxims of their order, he was presented, at the expiration of his novitiate, with a white garment, as an emblem of the regularity of his conduct, and the purity of his heart. A solemn oath was then administered to him, that he would never divulge the mysteries of the order; that he would make no innovations on the doctrines of the society, and that he would continue in that honourable course of piety and virtue, which he had begun to pursue. Like freemasons, they instructed the young member in the knowledge which they derived from their ancestors: they admitted no women into their order. They had particular signs for recognising each other, which have a strong resemblance to those of freemasons. They had colleges or places of retirement, where they resorted to practise their rites, and settle

the affairs of the society; and, after the performance of these duties, they assembled in a large hall, where an entertainment was provided for them by the president, or master of the college, who allotted a certain quantity of provisions to every individual. They abolished all distinctions of rank, and, if preference was ever given, it was given to piety, liberality, and virtue. Treasurers were appointed in every town, to supply the wants of indigent strangers. The Essenes pretended to higher degrees of piety and knowledge, than the uninitiated vulgar; and though their pretensions were high, they were never questioned by their enemies. Austerity of manners was one of the chief characteristics of the Essenian fraternities: they frequently assembled, however, in convivial parties, and relaxed for a while the severity of those duties which they were accustomed to perform. This remarkable coincidence, between the chief features of the masonic and essenian fraternities, can be accounted for only by referring them to the same origin. Were the circumstances of resemblance, either few or fanciful, the similarity might have been merely casual. But when the nature, the object, and the external forms of two institutions, are precisely the same, the arguments for their identity are something more than presumptive. There is one point, however, which may, at first sight, seem to militate against this supposition. The Essenes appear to have been in no respects connected with architecture, nor addicted to those sciences and pursuits, which are subsidiary to the art of building. That the Essenes directed their attention to particular sciences, which they pretended to have received from their fathers, is allowed by all writers; but, whether or not these sciences were in any shape connected with architecture, we are, at this distance of time, unable to determine. Be this as it may, uncertainty upon this head, nay, even an assurance that the Essenes were unconnected with architectural science, will not affect the hypothesis which we have been maintaining. For there have been, and still are, many associations of freemasons, where no architects are members, and which have no connection with the art of building. But if this is not deemed a sufficient answer to the objection, an enquiry into the origin of the Essenes will probably remove it altogether, while it affords additional evidence, for the identity of the masonic and essenian associations."

In this apparently learned passage, our author, by attempting to prove too much, proves nothing. Had he stated that a guild of architects existed in Asia-Minor, and that free-masonry is probably a continuation of that association, he would have advanced an ingenious and supportable proposition. But when he proceeds to assert that masonry also de-

rives much of its interior organization and ritual from the jewish sect of Essenes, he wanders into inconsistency and total incredibility. The Dionysiac fraternities of the heathens were certainly not identical with the jewish sect of Essenes; if masonry derives from the one, it cannot derive from the other. There is a great parade of quotation in the notes; but if the passages referred to had been examined by our author, he would have perceived that they offer little or no evidence of the positions, in support of which they are rashly adduced. A remarkable instance occurs (p. 35) where Philo is twice quoted in proof, (1) that the Essenes admitted no women into their order; (2) that the Essenes had private signs of recognition. The page referred to in Philo for both facts, is the 691 in the treatise of contemplative life. Now it happens in this very page, that Philo tells us, "The women among the Essenes sup apart from the men:" so that they did admit women into the order; but that they had private signs of recognition is no where in the least insinuated. This fraudulent pedantry cannot too much be reprobated.

The derivation of masonry from the Essenes has been zealously defended in Hutchinson's *Spirit of Masonry*, 1775; and this book was sanctioned by the then supreme head of the society, Lord Petre.

The derivation of masonry from the Templars, has been curiously examined in Nicolai's *Versuch über die Beschuldigungen und Geheimnisse des Tempelherren Ordens*, 1782.

Bode's idea that it was invented by English jesuits, because it was introduced at Paris by the exiled catholic friends of the pretender, is obviously putting the cart before the horse. The society must have existed before the expulsion of the Stuarts, or the friends of the Stuarts would have derived no protection from assembling as freemasons.

Ramsay's derivation of masonry from an order of chivalry; and Clinch's derivation of masonry from the Pythagorean societies, are far from satisfactory. We incline to suspect that the guilds, or purse-clubs, of the different companies of tradesmen are not modern inventions, but of Syriac origin; and that they were carried by the Phenicians to most of the towns with which they traded. There may have been in Asia Minor such clubs of masons or builders. It must however

be-admitted, that, at some period or other, the company of masons was thrown open to a set of philosophists and experimentalists, who, after the manner of the sixteenth century, gravely studied theosophism and alchemy. It is convenient to call this chemical platonical sect, roscrusians; although the name is long posterior to its origin. This sect, which has been the parent of experimental philosophy, Henry Cornelius Agrippa had the merit of embodying. Its union with the masons was probably accomplished in London, under James the First. The masons, by a natural consequence of their professional pride, had the best hall of meeting of any of the chartered companies. This might tender the use of their hall an object to the philosophic society, of which lord Bacon had been devising the improvement, and of which king James was becoming a patron; and thus occasion the commixture of the two. In the Atlantis, at least, is presented the model of a college for interpreting nature, to be called the house of Solomon, in which the mason must detect allusions to the craft: and we much suspect that the legend of St. Alban, so credulously insisted on in Preston's Illustrations of Masonry, has resulted from the masonic association being devised at St. Alban's. Maier's *Atalanta fugiens*, printed in 1617, gives some idea of the rage for emblems which pervaded the philosophy of those times: it is certainly not improbable that a somewhat extensive and popular philosophic society of lord Bacon and king James's friends should have delighted in the abraxas of pretended magic, and in such caryatids for their doorposts as Jachin and Boaz. A just delineation of the illuminees, or illuminati, occurs at page 142.

"About the middle of the eighteenth century, the literati on the continent were divided into two great parties. The one may be considered as ex-jesuits, or adherents to the catholic superstition, who were promoters of political and religious despotism, and inculcated the doctrines of non-resistance and passive obedience. The other party was composed of men, who were friends to the reformed religion, enemies of superstition and fanaticism, and supporters of the absurd doctrine of the infinite perfectibility of the human mind. They were dissatisfied with that slavery which was imposed by the despotism of the continental rulers, and the superstition of the church of Rome; and

many of them entertained opinions adverse to the christian religion, and to every existing form of government. Between these two parties there was a perpetual struggle for power. The ex-jesuits accused their opponents as heretics and promoters of jacobinism and infidelity; while the others were constantly exposing the intrigues of priests, and the tyranny of despots. To this latter class belonged Weishaupt and his associates, who instituted the order of the illuminati for no other purpose than to oppose these corrupted priests, who would have degraded them as christians, and those tyrannical despots who have enslaved them as citizens. The collision of these parties was certainly productive of the greatest advantages. While the jesuits restrained the inclination of one part of the community, to overrate the dignity of the human mind, and anticipate ideal visions of religious and political perfection; the illuminati counteracted those gloomy opinions which debase the dignity of our nature, which check the energies of the mind, and impose the most galling yoke of religious and political servitude. Both these parties were, without doubt, deserving of blame. But had any of them prevailed, the triumph of the illuminati would certainly have been most desirable. As a christian, I would glory in the downfall of that papal hierarchy which has so long deluded and enslaved the world. As a man, I would rejoice at the overthrow of every throne which is raised upon the ruins of civil liberty and domestic happiness; and as a Briton, I would wish that all my brethren of mankind should enjoy those religious and political privileges, which have so long been the boast of our friends, and the envy of our foes."

"After the French revolution, which, as Mounier has well shewn, arose from other causes than those to which Barruel and Robison ascribe it, the plans of these parties were not carried out in Germany so systematically as before; and, notwithstanding the fabrications with which the jesuitical Barruel has calumniated the lodges in that country, freemasonry prevails to this day, respected by the most virtuous and scientific members of the community, and patronized by the most distinguished princes of the empire.

"In Germany, the qualifications for a freemason are great and numerous. No person is initiated into the order without the consent of every member of the lodge: and it frequently happens, that a German even is excluded by a single dissenting voice. On this account, the lodges of that country are filled with persons of the first rank and respectability, and every thing is conducted with the greatest decorum and solemnity. As masonry is there held in the highest estimation, an Englishman will obtain an easier introduction to the chief nobility and literati of Germany in a mason lodge, than in any other place; and will never repent of having

been initiated into the order in his native country.

"After the publication of the works of Barruel and Robison, the progress of freemasonry in Britain was retarded by an act of Parliament in 1799, for the suppression of seditious societies, in which the fraternity were virtually prohibited from erecting new lodges in the kingdom. But this act was not prompted by the calumnies of these writers. It became necessary from the political condition of the kingdom: and the exceptions which it contained in favour of freemasons, are a complete proof that government never credited the reports of these alarmists, but placed the most implicit confidence in the loyalty and prudence of British masons. Dr. Robison, indeed, asserts, that the emissaries of corrupted freemasonry and illuminism were lurking in the British empire, and plotting its destruction. But such monsters of iniquity have never yet been discovered within the circuit of our island: they have never polluted the British lodges. Tell us then no more, that our lodges are the receptacles of sacrilegious and revolutionary miscreants.—I see them frequented by men of unaffected piety and undaunted patriotism. Tell us no more, that our brethren of the order are less holy and virtuous than the uninitiated vulgar.—I see them in the church and in the senate, defending, by their talents, the doctrines of our religion, and exemplifying, in their conduct, the precepts it enjoins; kind to their

friends, forgiving to their enemies, and benevolent to all. Tell us no more that they are traitors, or indifferent to the welfare of their country.—I see them in the hour of danger rallying around the throne of our king, and proffering, for his safety, their hearts and their arms.—I see them in the form of heroes, at the head of our fleets and our armies; and the day will arrive when a freemason shall sway the sceptre of these kingdoms, and fill, with honour and with dignity, the British throne."

A curious antiquarian history of the grand lodge of Scotland terminates the volume. As this extended portion, however accurate and authentic, is rather locally than britannically interesting, we shall waive any selection of the particulars it may contain. Those who pursue distinction in sects and subordinate associations, attain the natural reward of their body-spirit; they seldom aspire to, they would seldom be wise to claim, a national notice for the efforts of their local and circumscribed allegiance. But to win in the competition for popularity among club-mates and associators, is ominous of eventual success as a demagogue, and is a pledge of party-fidelity.

ART. V. *The History of Scotland, from the Union of the Crowns on the Accession of James VI. to the Throne of Scotland, to the Union of the Kingdoms in the Reign of Queen Anne.* By MALCOLM LAING, Esq. 2d Edition. 8vo. 4 vols.

DR. ROBERTSON'S History of Scotland maintains its ground, although the superior talent and eloquence of Gilbert Stuart attempted to supersede it; patient inquiry and honest equity outweigh and outlast the colourings of declamation and the prejudices of party. Mr. Laing has undertaken to continue, and is worthy to continue, the history of Robertson, by his similar laborious investigation and impartial estimate. He has, however, less neatness of redaction, less knack of abbreviation, and a less picturesque and characteristic selection of circumstance in his narrative and descriptive passages. Like Rapin, in aspiring to be complete, he risks to be dull; his style is polysyllabic and sonorous, but deals in abstractions and tautology.

Beside the usual printed authorities, Mr. Laing has derived assistance from manuscript materials contained in the Advocates Library of Edinburgh; from Calderwood's, Crawford's, and other manuscripts deposited in the archives of the

church of Scotland; from the records of the court of Justiciary and of the Privy Council; and from various private repositories. Mr. Laing has especially distinguished the communications of Mr. Erskine, of Mar; of Mr. Clerk, of Eldon; and of the Honourable Mr. Maule.

The two first volumes are consecrated to a further investigation of the conduct of Mary queen of Scots. If any thing was wanting to confirm the sentence of Hume, and of Robertson, it will here be found. Even the obstinacy of that infallible church, which, in every controversy, repeats, after refutation, the ancient arguments with the original positiveness, must here, one would think, have found its quietus. The participation of Mary in the murder of Darnley supplies, however, no apology for Elizabeth. It was not a crime within her jurisdiction; it extenuates not the ungenerous jealousy of the English queen. Mr. Laing thus sums up his admirable but very detailed examination of the ge-

guineness of Mary's imputed correspondence.

"When the letters themselves are impartially examined, no doubts of their authenticity can remain. In vain does Whitaker contend that the French and British languages were originally the same; that they were still the same in the time of our Saxon ancestors, (because Augustine, in his legation to Britain, obtained interpreters from among the Franks); and that many idioms in the two languages must continue the same.* The complaint of Scotland, and Bellenden's translation of Hector Boethius, the first prose compositions in Scotch, contain occasionally some French words, but the idioms of the language are genuine Saxon, and in Piuscottie, Knox, Buchanan, Crawford's MS. and the state-papers and letters of the period, no Gallicisms were afterwards introduced. Every impartial reader who examines, and compares the letters with other contemporary productions, will determine, without a comment, whether they are not replete throughout with those French phrases, words and idioms, which are unavoidable, and can only occur in a literal translation from the French. Every impartial reader of taste and judgment will also determine whether they are not the genuine productions of a female, and that female indisputably the queen. Amidst the numerous and daily productions of romance, no great discernment, or literary acumen, would be necessary to pronounce on each novel that occurs, whether the author were a male, or some female letter-writer, whom the most accomplished scholar would in vain attempt to imitate in her incessant volubility and easy chit chat; in the habitual amplification of the most trivial objects; and in the quick and incoherent transitions of female sentiment, passions, prejudices, intrigues and pursuits. Nothing can be more natural or characteristic, than the flippant loquacity

of the letters to Bothwell; the exuberance of sentiment and affected gallantry; the sudden vicissitudes of love, grief, indignation, fear, discrimination, jealousy and hatred of Darnley, intermixed with compunction at his approaching fate. The first letter, in particular, affords a curious spectacle of the secret workings of the female heart. Nothing is explained of which Bothwell was informed; nothing omitted, of which he required information; and the murder is darkly, yet undisputably intimated, as a deed to which Mary was impelled by her lover, but on which she could not venture to discourse, even with herself. But the letters subsequent to the murder contained no mention of her late husband, to whom, indeed, the most remote allusion would be carefully avoided, as a subject of conscious and mutual guilt. As the letters were written in a cultivated and refined language, in which she excelled, the elegance, as well as the idiom of the original, breaks forth occasionally through the rude medium of a homely translation; and every impartial reader, who compares them with her subsequent letters to Elizabeth and others, will determine, from the same loose and voluble declamation, unrestrained invective, and passionate complaint, whether they are not the genuine indisputable productions of the Scottish queen.

"The very disappearance of the originals, demonstrates that they were genuine. During the administration of the four regents, they were carefully preserved. From Murray they passed successively to Lennox and Morton, on whose execution they were conveyed secretly to Ruthven, created earl of Gowrie, one of the confederates, from whom Elizabeth's solicitude to obtain the custody of the casket, attests her conviction that the letters were authentic. It appears, however, that they were retained by Gowrie for the vindication of the confederates. As the young king was informed that they were then (1582) in

* See Whitaker, ii. 329, who struggles hard to obviate the French idioms produced by Hume. In limiting the idioms quoted by Hume to the similarity of a single word, it is obvious, that he was ignorant of a plain proposition, that the idioms of a language may reside either in the peculiar use and acceptance, or in the peculiar collocation, arrangement, or construction of a word, or of a phrase. *To make fault, make breck, make gude wutch, make me advertisement, make it seem that I believe*, are evidently translated from the French phrases *faire des faulx, faire brecke, faire bonne garde, faire m'acertir, faire semblant de la croire*, in which the construction of the phrase, and the use or acceptance of *faire* are peculiar to the tongue. *Have you not desire to laugh, the place will hold until the death*, are derived from French constructions; "*n'avez vous pas envie de rire*;" "*la place tiendra jusque à la mort*;" in the first of which the article is omitted, in the other inserted, in strict conformity with the French, and in direct opposition to the Scottish idiom. *He may not come forth of the house this long time; put order to it*, "*il ne peut pas sortir du logis de long tems*;" "*mettez ordre à cela*;" in which Whitaker searches in the word, for that idiom which consists in the construction and acceptance of the phrases. *Discharge your heart; this is my first journey: deschargez votre cœur; c'est ma première journée*; the first of which I have never found in any letters of the period, and the scurrilous assertion, that journey, though unknown to Hume, who talked nothing but French in his sleep, still signifies, when uncompounded, a day's work in Scotland, is an assertion which Tytler himself was afraid to hazard. These writers forget the question, that it is not whether a few French words, as *moyen fashions*, have crept into Scotch; but whether a professed translation, word for word, from the original French; contains a literal transcript of such French idioms as *a journey for a day's work*, and *a voyage for a journey*. Whitaker, ii. 398, 400. Tytler, i. 226, n.

his hands, as Mary was solicitous to get them delivered up or destroyed, and as the duke of Lennox, his favourite, who was entirely in her interest, had applied to obtain them,* their disappearance on the attainer and execution must be ascribed to the desire of her son to suppress those documents of his mother's guilt, which, if spurious, would neither have been preserved by the four regents, nor destroyed by James. The records of judiciary: the acts or proceedings of the conferences at Westminster; and the books of the privy council of England, at the period when the letters were examined, must have disappeared from the same cause; and the evidence is reduced to such of the first loose draughts of the minutes as Cecil retained, or communicated to sir Robert Cotton, before the accession. But the loss of these volumes, which no simplicity can regard as merely accidental, confirms our conclusion, that the letters were intentionally destroyed by James, in order to efface the proofs, and to obliterate the memory of his mother's guilt."

He examines every other document and argument adduced by the apologists of Mary, and is fully justified in his own confident assertion, that "the participation of Mary in the murder of her husband must rest hereafter as an established truth, which no prejudice can evade, nor the perverse ingenuity of disputants confute." The appendix is a very complete collection of the documents in discussion, accompanied with elucidatory notes. The Italian sonnet, in which Mary solicited admission to the presence of Elizabeth, in September 1568, deserves selection, as a specimen of the talents of this accomplished woman.

"Il pensier che mi nuoci insieme e giova
Amare et dolce al mio cor cangia spesso,
E fra tema e speranza lo tien'si oppresso
Che la quiete pace unque non trova.

Pero se questo carta a voi renouva
Il bel desio di vedervi in me impresso
Cio fa il grand affano ch' me se stesso,
Ma non puotendo homai da se far prova.

Ho veduto talhor vicino al porto
Respinger nave in mer contrario vento;
E nel maggior seren, turbarsi il cielo:
Con Sorella cara, temo e pavento,
Non gia pervoi, ma quanta volte a torto
Rompe fortuna un ben ordito velo."

The character of Mary queen of Scots has, at all times, been a topic of greater

interest in the northern than in the southern half of Britain, and its zest decays with Scottish nationality; the diminished animosity of the catholics and calvinists has contributed to abate the persistence of the rival advocates; the extinct claims of the Stuart family have annihilated every unfair solicitude to whitewash their ancestry. It may be, presumed, therefore, that this controversy will henceforth lose much of its stimulus and all its bitterness, and will be preserved or forgotten in the state in which it has been left by Mr. Laing.

With the third volume begins the reign of James the first. Its ecclesiastical history is well detailed. The personal character of the prince is overhung with a modest veil; his predilection for male beauty is stated by historians to have excited the jealousy of his queen. This monarch was probably the son of Rizzio, and in his love of art, literature, gaiety and magnificence, of power, peace, pleasure and profusion, rather resembled the princes of Italy than the kings of the north.

The reign of Charles the first is narrated in greater detail, and with superior skill: it illustrates many disputed particulars concerning the origin and continuance of the civil wars, and the character, motives and condemnation of Charles I. The original authorities are carefully indicated, and many inflections of the later relations are brought back to their first form. This portion of the narrative will be read with instruction, even by the proficient in English history.

The fourth volume extends from the restoration to the union, from Charles the second to Anne. The proceedings of the Scottish parliament during the revolution of 1688 form a distinguished, we had almost said, an enviable portion of these annals. The effects of the union are thus summed up.

"Nor was the union productive, for many years, of those advantages which at first were expected. A feeble attempt to obtain a share in the colonial trade was defeated by new regulations, which the commercial jealousy of the English merchants procured. The migration of stock and trade to the north was a visionary expectation. No new manufactu-

* Robertson, ii. 376. "For the recovery of the letters in the coffer, come to the hands of the earl of Gowrie, I have lately moved him earnestly therein, letting him know the purpose of the Scottish queen, both giving out that the letters are counterfeited by her rebels, and also seeking therein to have them delivered to her or defaced; and that the means which she will make in this behalf, shall be so great and effectual, as these writings cannot be kept in that realm without dangerous offence of him that hath the custody thereof, neither shall he that is once known to have them be suffered to hold them in his hands."

pers were attracted to Scotland by the cheapness of labour; no improvement was introduced into agriculture; on the contrary, commerce was still languid, and the price and rents of estates inconsiderable. Every national exertion was discountenanced; and, during the interval between the two rebellions, the country was alternately disregarded, or treated like a conquered province, prone to revolt. The nation, notwithstanding the gradual increase of its linen manufacture, appeared to be nearly stationary, and was certainly far less progressive for half a century, than if no union had ever been contracted. The factions of the preceding century were dissolved with the parliament that gave them birth; but it is observable, that factions are not less necessary in a free state, to preserve the spirit of freedom, than sects and controversial disputes in religion, without which the devout zeal and implicit faith of the votary would soon decay. The national spirit appeared to be sunk and extinguished with those factions which the union dissolved. Patriotism, that ardent and exclusive attachment to our native country which the national independence of the Scots had excited, could neither be preserved entire, nor transferred to another object, when Scotland merged into the British empire; and, from the narrow basis of representation, the people at large, having lost their own constitution, acquired little interest or share in the government into which they were received. The views of Queensberry and his friends in the union, to perpetuate their authority at home, and to establish a numerous party in the English parliament, were realized afterwards by the dukes of Argyle, two brothers to whom the whole country was long devoted; and the English mistook for the servility of the nation, the dependence of the few members whom Scotland returned.

“But the national spirit, thus apparently extinguished, burst forth in a new direction more beneficial to Scotland. When the contests of domestic faction had ceased, the turbulent fanaticism which distinguished the Scots, during the former century, was lost in the pursuits of industry, of literature, and the arts of peace. Some attempts had been made, before the last rebellion, to introduce a better cultivation into the Lothians, which has since extended through the west and the north, to the richest provinces beyond the Tay. The gentry, among other efforts to promote manufactures, had begun to breed their sons to mechanical arts, in order to retain them at home. By the abrogation and sale of hereditary jurisdictions, the poverty of the nobles was relieved, and the people were emancipated from their oppressive coercion. The country was gradually enriched by the troops retained to prevent insurrection; and from the advanced price and consumption of cattle in the English market, the farmers accumulated their first stock for the improvement of the soil. The situation of Scotland

attracted the peculiar attention of Pelham's administration; and, ten years after the last rebellion, the benefits of the union began to be universally felt. The forfeited estates, instead of being sold as formerly, were appropriated to objects of national improvement, and industry was promoted by every encouragement which bounties can confer. The Jacobites, soothed by indulgence, and reclaimed by the gradual extinction of the hopes, began to transfer their allegiance from the ill-fated Stuarts to the reigning family; and, under Chatham's administration, the Scots were employed in the army and navy in greater numbers than ever were known in any former war. Notwithstanding the commercial jealousy and opposition of the English, the merchants of Glasgow had acquired a large share in the tobacco trade; but their exports at first were supplied from England, till they adapted their own manufactures to the colonial market; and from that period the prosperity of Scotland has properly commenced.

“When the nation was no longer agitated by domestic faction, literature was again cultivated and restored with unexampled success. During the last civil wars the classical learning for which the Scots were early distinguished, was absorbed and lost in the controversial vortex of religion and liberty; two names ever dear to mankind, with which the world has alternately been guided or deceived. From the restoration down to the union, the only author of eminence whom Scotland produced, was Burnet, the celebrated bishop of Sarum, who, when transplanted into England, was conspicuous as a political writer, an historian, and a divine. As an historian alone he descends to posterity; and his curious researches into facts, the unaffected ease and simplicity of his dramatic narrative, his bold and glowing delineation of characters, are far superior to every historical production of the period. After a long interval, the poetical genius of the Scots was revived in the tender and luxuriant Thomson; but the spurious poems of Ossian, a recent forgery, still continue to pollute their history and to corrupt their taste. For a time the mathematical sciences were diligently cultivated; and the medical schools established at Edinburgh acquired an high reputation, which is still preserved. But the Scots, when deprived of their own, contemplated the English constitution, in which their passions were less interested, and the affairs of mankind in general, from which they were estranged, with a more discerning, calm and unprejudiced eye; and in metaphysical, moral and political science, Hume and Smith appear without a competitor, as the first and most original philosophers of the age. The history of England was investigated by Hume, not with the eyes of a patriot but a philosopher; and from each author whom he consulted, selecting alternately the choicest diction, he constructed an artful narrative, in which strength, precision, elegance, and a

copious simplicity are infinitely diversified ; a narrative interspersed throughout with the most profound reflections ; and, though partial, perhaps, to a particular system or party, enriched with the most philosophical views of the arguments and peculiar opinions of the times. Less acute, argumentative, and profound, but more correct, inventive, and uniformly elegant, Robertson aspired to the native graces of the English language, and added the rare praise of laborious fidelity to the palm of history which Buchanan originally conferred on Scotland. Their steps were followed by others with unequal success ; but a few original authors communicate their taste and literature, if not a portion of their divine spirit, to their age or nation ; and, instead of that classical erudition which adorns England, but which is apt, perhaps, to degenerate into verbal or at least grammatical disquisition, philosophy, moral and political, is cultivated in Scotland, whose authors are still distinguished by their science, and by an original freedom of thought and discussion. The administration of justice was improved by the union. When hereditary jurisdictions were abolished, each country was relieved from the most vexatious oppression, and thirty sheriffships at the disposal of government, soon reconciled the disaffected bar. The supreme judges, whom the government had no interest to bias, ceased to participate in domestic faction ; but the court of session was indebted to Forbes for its present purity, which succeeding presidents were anxious to preserve. Perhaps the least violent, and the most salutary improvement in the administration of justice, is to open the courts of justiciary and exchequer, under able judges, to the same causes which are competent to the session ; that when the subjects are admitted, in civil questions, to the cheap and expeditious alternative of a jury trial, the mutual emulation of the three courts may introduce the same simplicity and dispatch into the forms of judicial procedure. The presbyterian church, so conspicuous in the history of the former century, has excited little attention during the present. The rights of parentage were restored in the last years of queen Anne. A public toleration was granted to episcopal ministers, using the liturgy, and accepting the oaths to government, which were artfully imposed on the presbyterian clergy, with an implied acknowledgment, to which it was difficult to submit, that the successor to the crown must profess the same communion with the church of England. The obvious design of the tories in these acts, was to supplant the presbyterians in ecclesiastical government ; but the last act has disarmed the intolerance of the clergy, while the first has introduced a mild and more liberal spirit into the established church. While the choice of a pastor was lodged with the parish, the clergy were reduced to the necessity of low adulation ; and, to preserve their influence over the people, they were obliged to cultivate the most popu-

lar and fanatical arts. Grace and zeal were invariably preferred to moderation and learning ; but the clergy recommended to the notice of the patrons by more laudable arts, acquired more liberal and enlightened ideas. The austere and morose enthusiasm of their order has been gradually refined ; but it may be questioned whether the revival of patronage has contributed much to their influence, or to the stability of their church. Their dependence on the patron is slight, or of short duration ; and when their former connexion with the proprietors was dissolved, a pernicious emulation was naturally excited, productive of litigious and endless disputes. The adherents of patronage, in opposition to the popular or wild presbyterians, arranged themselves on the side of the court ; but within a few years the intolerance even of those moderate presbyterians, occasioned a wide and memorable secession, which undermines and threatens, at some future period, to overturn their establishment. Whatever fanaticism remains in Scotland is preserved by the Seceders, who adhere to the covenants and austere morals of the old presbyterians ; and though divided among themselves, have continued rapidly to increase, while episcopacy, destitute of enthusiasm for its basis, has almost disappeared.

“ But the beneficial effects of the union were peculiarly reserved for the present reign. The progress of industry and trade was immense ; new manufactures, particularly of silk, were introduced with success ; the Scots employed in the seven years war, returned from abroad with the means or spirit to improve their estates ; and the rapid cultivation of their country has redoubled the produce and the value of the soil. Before the commencement of the American war, the merchants of Glasgow had engrossed the chief trade in tobacco for exportation. The interruption of trade during that disastrous war, directed their capital and the national industry, to the improvement of domestic arts ; and from the perfection of modern machinery, the cotton manufacture, a recent acquisition, in all its branches so prodigiously increased, already rivals and supplants the productions of the ancient looms of Indostan. Doubtless much is to be ascribed to the spirit and progressive state of the nation ; but without an union, its unavailing efforts would have still been discountenanced by the commercial jealousy, and depressed by the influence of the English government. The recent benefits of the union are truly inestimable ; and if its articles, which are too numerous, and on some occasions preclusive of improvement, have ever been infringed from inadvertence, a British parliament can have few temptations to depart from them by design. National animosities are at length obliterated ; and though still regarded as scarcely naturalized, the Scots assimilate so fast to the language, the manners and taste of the English, that the two nations

ease to be distinguished in the subsequent history of the British empire."

As an appendix to this volume, is given a long and satisfactory dissertation on the supposed authenticity of Ossian's Poems. The author considers, 1. Macpherson's Roman history of Britain; 2. his traditions; 3. the manners imputed to his heroes; 4. the real origin of the poems; 5. the contained imitations of ancient and modern poets; 6. the pretended originals, and Macpherson's own admission of imposture.

'Perhaps the most novel and curious of these chapters is that which indicates the Highlander, an epic poem published and avowed by Macpherson in 1758, as the basis of Fingal. The fable and innumerable passages are shown to have been borrowed, or transplanted.

"When the Highlander is examined, its plot exhibits the very outlines of Fingal. Swein, king of Norway, invading Scotland with a large fleet and a numerous army, is opposed by Indulph, its seventy-fifth king. Alpin, a young chieftain, from Lochaber, joins the Scottish army; explores the Norwegian camp by night; engages in single combat, and exchanges shields with Haco; and the battle is decided next day by his prowess and address; the Norwegian fleet is burnt, and the invading army destroyed. Haco, overpowered with his band, on retreating to a wood, is generously permitted to depart by Alpin, whom Indulph discovers to be his nephew, the son of Malcolm I. preserved in his infancy from the murderers of his father; and on his marriage with Culena, the king's daughter, Duffus, by the accidental death of his uncle, succeeds to the throne. It is obvious that Swein is converted into Swaran in Fingal; with this difference only in the plot, that the scene of invasion is transferred from Scotland to Ireland, and the time from the third to the tenth century."

"That the Highlander is inferior to Fingal, affords no presumption whatsoever that the latter is authentic. The author was then twenty-one; his native language was Earse; his taste was not yet formed; he had not attended Dr. Blair's lectures, nor acquired the graces of style, or a sufficient command of the English language. But the poem discovers much of the same imagery and incidents with Fingal: green meteors, clouds, and mountains; maids in armour, ghosts, and storms. The same ambitious phraseology, straining after the sublime, which is so apt to degenerate into bombast in Ossian, becomes quite ludicrous in the Highlander, from the untutored taste of the author. Such expressions as these, which repeatedly recur: "He fixed his vain eyes on the ground: "fierce Denmark belches numbers on our land: the gleaming journey of the sword;

"talks on its way: steel speaks on steel, and "cuts its brazen journey through the aim, "across the silver errors of the Fav: groom, "speak on the pinions of the southern gale: "the kindling virgin flames along the tale: "and send the palace flaming to the skies:" how ridiculous soever, are derived from the same source with Ossian's style; a close imitation of Gray's alliteration, and of Mason's bombast. But the following passages, to be recognized as Ossian's, require only to be translated into heroic prose:

"Norwegian firs, oft brought them o'er the waves

"For Albion's crown; but Albion gave them graves."

"Tell Swaran, tell that heart of pride, "Cuthullin never yields. I give him the dark "rolling sea. I give his people graves in "Erin." Ossian, i. 250.

"Thus on a night when rattling tempests war,

"Thro' broken clouds, appears a blazing star;

"Now veils its head; now rushes on the sight,

"And shoots a livid horror thro' the night.

"The winds come down on the woods; "the torrents rush from the rocks; rain gathers round the head of Cronla; the red "stars tremble between the flying clouds" Ossian, i. 255.

"Athwart the gloom the streaming meteor sails,—

"Kindles a livid circle as it flies."

"The clouds divided fly over the sky, and "shew the burning stars. The meteor,— "token of death, flies sparkling through the "gloom: it rests on the hill." Id. 184, edit. 1773.

"The Scots, a stream, would sweep the Danes away;

"The Danes, a rock, repel the Scots' array."

"The ranks of Sweno stand in firm array,

"As hoary rocks repel the raging sea."

"As roll a thousand waves to a rock, so "Swaran's host came on. As meets a rock, "a thousand waves, so Erin met Swaran "of Spears."—"Frothal came forth with the "stream of his people; but they met a rock. "Fingal stood unmoved; broken they rolled "back from his side." Id. 65, 235.

"On either side they stretched the manly line,

"With darting gleam the steel-clad ridges shine:

"On either side the gloomy lines incede;

"Foot rose with foot, and head advanced with head.—

"Thus, when two winds descend upon the main,

"To fight their battles on the wat'ry plain;

"In two black lines the equal waters crowd;

"On either side the white-top'd ridges nod;

“ At length they break, and raise a babbling sound,

“ While echo rumbles from the rocks around.”

“ Behold the battle of the chiefs ! It is the storm of the ocean when *two spirits* meet far distant, and contend for the rolling of the waves. The hunter hears the noise from his hill ; he sees the high billows advancing to Arden’s shore.” Ossian, i. 302.
“ The kings were like *two spirits* of heaven, standing each on his gloomy cloud ; when they pour abroad the winds, and lift the roaring seas. The blue bubbling of waves is before them, marked with the paths of whales.” ii. 63. “ As meet two troubled seas, with the rolling of all their waves, when they feel the wings of contending winds, on the rock-sided frith of Lamon ; along the echoing hills is the dim course of ghosts ; from the blast fall the torn groves on the deep, amidst the foamy path of whales. So mixed the hosts.” Id. 167.

No doubt can remain, after reading this disquisition, that the poems of Ossian are,

in the main, inventions of Macpherson ; but it seems that certain rimed poems, perhaps of the fourteenth century, such as Ossian’s religious dispute with St. Patrick, Fingal’s battle with Magnus, the death of Oscar, and others, were plundered by Macpherson of a few celebrated passages, which had the effect of betraying the hearer into an opinion, that he recollected the poem then presented to him for the first time. This accounts for all the testimony to their authenticity, which has occasionally been obtained. A great service is rendered to history by this detection, as some injudicious antiquaries have built on the evidence of Ossian’s poems.

These volumes are an honour and an ornament to British literature ; a something of diffuseness and protraction may be forgiven, for information so complete, and instruction so sound.

ART. VI. *Notes relative to the late Transactions in the Mahratta Empire. Fort William, December 15, 1803. With an Appendix of official Documents ; and also six Engravings, illustrative of the several Battles, from Drawings taken on the Spot.* 4to. pp. 290.

THE Mahratta empire was founded, about the middle of the seventeenth century, by Sevajee, the lineal descendant of a bastard son of Rana Bhæm, one of the rajahs of Chittore, who are of the most ancient princes of Hindostan. Sevajee’s father had been minister to the king of Beejapoor, against whom Sevajee revolted, with success : he acquired an independent sovereignty stretching along the coast, nearly from Surat to Goa.

Probably Aurungzebe secretly* assisted the revolt of Sevajee ; for he was engaged in war with the king of Beejapoor at the time : but finding the usurper, who had great talents, as ungovernable as the king, he caused the son and successor of Sevajee to be murdered, and promoted his grandson to the crown, under the control of a peishwah.

By degrees the authority of the peishwah almost disappeared, the state crumbled into independent chieftaincies, and an incoherent feudal aristocracy domineered locally : it continued, however, nominally to acknowledge the rajah of Sattarah, as peishwah ; whose arrangements with foreign powers were presumed to be binding throughout the Mahratta state. The rajah of Berar, also a descendant of Sevajee, claimed

an hereditary right to the office of peishwah, and was partially acknowledged in that capacity, but not by the British government.

At the conclusion of the war, in 1792, the peishwah was a party to the treaty of peace at Seringapatam, and obtained a considerable accession of territory to his hereditary dominions.

During the period which elapsed between the peace of Seringapatam and the arrival of lord Wellesley in May, 1798, a Mahratta chief, Dowlut Rao Scindia, acquired great ascendancy in his country, at the expence of the peishwah’s authority.

Dowlut Rao Scindia holds the appointment of deputy to the yaquel ul mutuluk, which is an office, similar to that of viceroy, under the great mogul. In the name of this deposed, blinded unfortunate emperor, Shah Aulum, Scindia raised troops, and formed connections with the French ; and began to hope for the European assistance, requisite to make head against the British power.

His attachment to the French was inherited from his uncle, Madajee Scindia. About the year 1784, a Frenchman, named De Boigne, who had been ad-

* See Historical Fragments of the Mogul Empire, p. 127-133

mitted into the company's military service at Madras, gave up his commission, announced an intention of proceeding to Russia, by the way of Iraan and the Caspian shore; and obtained from Mr. Hastings, who was then at Lucknow, not merely permission to pass the company's frontier, but letters to facilitate his journey.

De Boigne crossed the Jumna at the critical period when Madajee Scindia was struggling to obtain the person of the mogul, and the consequent claims over the empire of Hindostan. De Boigne, naturally an adventurer, made an offer of his military service, which Scindia eagerly accepted: nor could he have found a more useful coadjutor. The native troops were subjugated to discipline: Frenchmen were collected, and employed as officers; and it was principally by the aid of De Boigne that Scindia subdued the Seiks, chastised the Rajpoot princes, and maintained possession of the imperial city of Delhi, of the essential fortress of Agra, and of the sacred person of the emperor.

Among the French officers collected by De Boigne, his sagacity distinguished early the young Du Perron, a relation, as is supposed, of the celebrated orientalist, Anquetil. To him was intrusted early the command of six battalions: by his assistance and activity De Boigne contrived to erect a foundery, to cast cannon, and to create an artillery.

To defray the expence of these undertakings, Scindia assigned a vast territory to De Boigne, as jaidad, or military governor, and granted him a considerable jaghire, or personal estate. Thus De Boigne became possessed of a rank and influence among the inhabitants, approaching to sovereignty, in its character, splendor, and efficacy. The death of his patron, Madajee Scindia, in 1793, gave independence to the power of De Boigne; he was equally necessary to the successor, Dowlut Rao Scindia, and not equally obliged to him; and there is reason to suspect that De Boigne, although he called himself, with oriental courtliness, the servant of Dowlut Rao, and the slave of the blind emperor, Shah Aulam, the representative of the house of Timur, was forming projects of personal aggrandizement, which comprehended an ascent to the throne of Aurungzebe.

On a sudden, this ambitious adventurer complained that his constitution

failed him; and, in 1796, he set out for Europe, leaving Perron the depository of his power, and the hostage for his return. Probably he wished to negotiate with the government of France, for the requisite aid and co-operation: he allied himself in that country with a noble and honourable family; but, finding the convulsed state of Paris unfavourable to assistance, and unsafe for opulence, he came to reside in Great Britain.

After the accession of Bonaparte, Mr. De Boigne was invited again to Paris, and consulted about the affairs of India. The French army of Hindostan, though well-disciplined and armed, laboured under the disadvantage, that there was no sufficient number of Frenchmen to complete the necessary establishment of subaltern officers. Perron had endeavoured to supply their place by Swiss, Germans, and Portuguese, who were to be displaced, as soon as proper substitutes could be procured from the mother-country.

The resumption of the unproductive settlement of Pondicherry, which, by the ill-weighted treaty of Amiens, was to revert to the French, gave to Bonaparte the right of sending to India a formidable body of chosen men, under pretext of colonial defence. The number of troops destined for this embarkation was 1400; of whom 200 were young men of respectable connections, who had received a thoroughly military education. A numerous and expensive *etat major* was attached to the expedition, which Linois transported to Hindostan, merely, it was said, to cultivate the arts of peace, to botanize in the ditches of Pondicherry, or scrape the saltpetre from its ruins.

These 200 young men, who went out as private soldiers, were provided with the equipment of officers; and were intended, it is presumed, to migrate singly, or in very small parties, to the Mahrattas, where Perron was expecting them, and had prepared advantageous situations.

The vigilance of the governor-general of India, well aware of the consequences of furnishing French officers to the Mahrattas, drew a tether round the French territory; and these young adventurers found, on landing, that their peregrinations were not suffered to exceed the contracted limits of their own territory. They loudly complained they were *en cage*; and so they were, as far as regarded admission into the interior of India.

Not only these 200 officers were destined for the service of Perron's army, in alliance with the Mahrattas, but the greatest part of the private men also were to be employed as sergeants, bombardiers, and gunners. The artillery, which the British had already found to be far advanced, was to have derived an entire finish from adapted artists and engineers.

The annual revenues of the countries subject to monsieur Perron, derived partly from territorial possessions, partly from forms of taxation, are stated to have amounted to 1,700,000*l.* sterling: they were levied in a district, extending toward the left bank of the Indus, through the Punjaub, and comprehending Agra, Delhi, and a large portion of the doab of the Jumna and Ganges, on the north-western frontier of our Hindostan.

"The existence of Monsieur Perron's power was not, however, the cause of the present war in India; although, in the event of a continuance of the war with France, it might have proved highly dangerous to the British interests, and must have occasioned discussions with Scindia. The causes of the war with Scindia were confined to the military movements, and to the hostile language and conduct of that chief and of his allies. The destruction of Monsieur Perron's force necessarily became a primary object of the war, commenced on distinct grounds of complaint against Scindia.

"The forces assembled in different quarters of India, for the purpose of carrying into effect the governor-general's comprehensive plan of operations against the confederate Mahratta chieftains, amounted to about 54,918 men, exclusive of pioneers, gun-lascars, and persons attached to the store and ordnance departments.

"The army under the personal command of general Lake consisted of three regiments of European, and five regiments of native, cavalry, about two hundred European artillery, one regiment of Europeans, and eleven battalions of native infantry, amounting altogether to about 10,500 men. The disposition of this force, towards the commencement of the month of August, 1803, is exhibited in the order of battle which is annexed. It is necessary however to observe, that of this force, his majesty's eighth regiment of dragoons, the sixth regiment of native cavalry, and the second brigade of native infantry, had not yet joined the army. The second brigade, and sixth regiment of native cavalry, were at Anopsheer; and the eighth regiment

of dragoons had only, at this period, received its horses from the Nawsab Vizier, and was not yet prepared to move from Cawnpore.

"In addition to this force, about 3500 men were assembled near Allahabad, for the purpose of invading the province of Bundelcund; and about 2000 men were collected at Mirzapoor, to cover the province and city of Benares, as well as to guard the passes in that quarter. Measures* were also adopted for the defence of the whole line of the frontier, from Mirzapoor to Midnapoor.

"The troops under the immediate command of major-general Wellesley, in the Deccan, amounted to 16,823 men; exclusive of which, a force was left at Poonah, consisting of a detachment of his majesty's 84th regiment, and 1095 sepoy, which were deemed fully sufficient, in conjunction with such troops as the peishwah himself had at Poonah, to afford complete protection to his highness, and to repel any attack which might be made upon that city. The force assembled for the invasion of the province of Cuttack amounted to 5216 men."

Of this army the operations are here detailed in an historical military official documented manner; but with less lucid order and distinctness of design than the narrative of sir Robert Wilson has displayed. It will be read, however, with entire reliance and with patriotic satisfaction. The turning point, or catastrophe of the war, may be placed at the storming of the fortress of Allyghur; we transcribe the impressive relation:

"Under these circumstances, the commander in chief, by the direct order of the governor-general above stated, on the 29th of August, 1803, moved into the Mahratta territories, with the intention of attacking monsieur Perron's force, which had been assembled at a short distance from the fortress of Ally-Ghur. The army reached this point about seven o'clock in the morning of the 29th. The enemy immediately struck their tents, and the whole of their cavalry drew up on the plain close to the fort of Ally-Ghur. Monsieur Perron's position was strong and favourable for repelling the attack of the British army. His front was completely covered by an extensive swamp, which in some parts is not fordable; the right flank was protected by the fort of Ally-Ghur; and his left derived considerable strength from the nature of the ground on that side, and from the position of some villages which were occupied by parties of his troops. Monsieur Perron's force was estimated to amount to about

* It has appeared unnecessary to state in this place the detail of these measures, as it would be difficult to exhibit, in a short compass, the number and disposition of the troops employed on this service. It will be sufficient to observe, that every arrangement was adopted, which could insure the complete attainment of the important objects proposed to be derived from a comprehensive and efficient system of defence.

fifteen thousand horse, of which from four to five thousand were regular cavalry.

"The commander in chief having determined to turn the left flank of monsieur Perron's force, the British cavalry were formed into two lines, and advanced to the attack, supported by the infantry in three and four lines, according as the confined nature of the ground would permit. During the advance of the cavalry, the enemy kept up a smart fire of matchlocks from a village which the cavalry had to pass; and a large column of the enemy's cavalry, headed by a regular corps of horse, approached sufficiently near to enable the British cavalry to fire a few rounds from their galloper guns, which succeeded in forcing the enemy to retire. The excellent front displayed by the British cavalry, and the regular and determined advance of the whole army, so completely overawed monsieur Perron and his troops, that they retired as fast as the British troops advanced, and finally quitted the field without venturing to risk an engagement.

"Several attempts were made to charge the enemy's cavalry, but the rapidity of their retreat prevented the possibility of effecting this desirable object. The commander in chief was with the British cavalry the whole day, and charged in person at the head of the 27th dragoons.

"Although the early retreat of monsieur Perron's force prevented the commander in chief from bringing him to a general engagement, the operations of the 29th of August were attended with beneficial consequences, in establishing the superiority of our arms over the power of the enemy: monsieur Perron's reputation received a powerful shock from the events of that day; and the defection of several of his confederates demonstrated at once their doubts of his power, and their conviction of our superiority. After the action the commander in chief took possession of the town of Coel, and the army encamped to the northward of it, between the town and the fort of Ally-Ghur.

"This fort is of singular strength: it has a broad and deep ditch with a fine glacis, and the country for a mile round is levelled, and completely exposed in every point to the fire of the fort. There is only one entrance, which is very intricate, and over a narrow causeway, under which the enemy had commenced a mine, but had omitted to construct a drawbridge; and thus our troops were enabled to pass the ditch on the causeway, and immediately to assail the body of the place.

"As soon as the army had taken up its ground near Coel, general Lake summoned monsieur Pedron, the commander of Ally-Ghur, to surrender the fort; but after several unsuccessful efforts to save the effusion of blood, and to persuade the garrison to evacuate the place, general Lake found himself compelled to adopt more decisive measures, and determined to attempt to carry the fort

by assault, rather than by the slower operations of a regular siege.

"In conformity to this resolution, the fort was stormed on the morning of the 4th of September. The honourable lieutenant-colonel Monson commanded the storming party, consisting of a detachment of artillery with two twelve-pounders, four companies of his majesty's 70th regiment, the first battalion 4th regiment native infantry, four companies of the second battalion 17th regiment, reinforced afterwards by the second battalion 4th regiment native infantry.

"Lieutenant-colonel Monson conducted the attack with the utmost degree of gallantry, judgment, skill, and fortitude. The troops moved down to within six hundred yards of the sortie of the fort about three o'clock A.M. There was only one passage across the ditch into the fort, and this road was followed by lieutenant-colonel Monson.

"After waiting until the hour fixed for the assault (half past four o'clock), the storming party moved on (under cover of a heavy fire from the British batteries erected for that purpose), and arrived within one hundred yards of the fort before they were perceived: as soon, however, as col. Monson saw that he was discovered, he endeavoured, by pushing on with the two flank companies of the 76th to enter the fort along with the guard stationed outside of the gates, behind a strong breastwork which covered the entrance. The colonel succeeded in passing the breastwork, but he found the first gate shut. Two ladders were immediately applied, on which major Macleod, of the 76th regiment, with two grenadiers, attempted to mount; but they were forced to desist by a most formidable row of pikemen, who menaced every assailant with certain destruction. A twelve-pounder was then brought up; but some time elapsed before it could be placed opposite the gate, which was situated in an inconvenient direction near the flank of a bastion. Four or five rounds were fired before any effect was produced on the gate; and during this interval, which lasted about twenty minutes, the storming party was exposed to a most severe and raking fire of grape and wall pieces, and matchlocks. Our principal loss was sustained at this place. Colonel Monson was wounded here by a pike, discharged, it is thought, from a gun: at this spot were also killed the four grenadier officers and the adjutant of the 70th regiment, with lieutenant Turton, of the 4th regiment of native infantry.

"As soon as the first gate was blown open, the troops advanced in a circular direction (round a strong bastion of masonry, along a narrow road, and through two gateways, which were easily forced) to a fourth gateway leading to the body of the place; during which time they were much annoyed by a heavy cross fire in every direction. It was a work of great difficulty before the

twelve-pounder could be brought up, and when it arrived, the gate was too strongly fastened to be forced. Major Macleod, however, pushed through the wicket and entered the fort; after which very little opposition ensued, and the fort was completely carried. The general defence of this fort was very vigorous, and lasted for one hour; and our loss was extremely severe. The French commandant, M. Pedron, was taken prisoner. As soon as the British troops had entered the body of the place, the garrison endeavoured to escape in every direction: many jumped into the ditch, others were drowned. About two thousand were killed; some surrendered, and were permitted to quit the fort by the commander in chief, who was close to the fort observing the result of his bold and well-planned attack.

"A large quantity of stores and ordnance was found in the fort, with some tumbrils of money, which the storming party divided on the spot.

"The fall of the fort of Ally-Ghur was attended with the acquisition of most of the military stores belonging to the French party. This was the place of residence of monsieur Perron, and it was the great dépôt of his military stores.

"The necessary arrangements for the security of the fort of Ally-Ghur, and for the march of the army having been completed on the 7th of September, the commander in chief moved on that day towards Delhi: A battalion of sepoys was left in Ally-Ghur, and a drawbridge applied to the gateway: the place may now be considered as impregnable to any native power.

"On the 7th of September the commander in chief received a letter, under date the 5th of September, from monsieur Perron, informing the commander in chief that he had resigned the service of Dowlut Rao Scindiah, and requesting permission to pass with his family, property, and the officers of his suite, to Lucknow, through the territory of the honourable company, and of the Nawaub Vizier. Monsieur Perron also applied to the commander in chief for a sufficient escort, to be composed either of British troops, or his own body guard. General Lake immediately complied with monsieur Perron's request, and permitted monsieur Perron to proceed through the British territory attended by a British officer, who had been appointed to meet monsieur Perron on the frontier, and

to conduct him to Lucknow. General Lake also permitted monsieur Perron to be escorted by his own body guard, and provided for the reception of monsieur Perron in the company's territories, and those of the Nawaub Vizier with every mark of respect and honour."

The subsequent battle of Delhi was a contest with native generals, and terminated in the usual assertion of European superiority. General Lake had a horse killed under him, and displayed his habitual gallantry and resources. The unfortunate emperor Shah Aulum sent to general Lake immediately after the action, to express his anxious desire to place his person and authority under the protection of the victorious arms of the British government. And thus every object of the war was completely attained: the native news-writers celebrated, with oriental warmth of colouring, the emancipation of their ancient emperor from the long controul of a French faction; they described him as recovering his sight from excess of joy; and as conferring on general Lake, with unsolicited eagerness, the titles "sword of the state," "hero of the land," "lord of the age," and "victor in war."

The appendix contains various treaties and other public papers, referred to in the narrative. It is decorated with engraved plans of the principal engagements. A document, which was to have been numbered B, is apparently suppressed; perhaps because it contained particulars of Mr. De Boigne, which we have endeavoured to learn and to supply from less responsible sources of intelligence.

The cosmopolite will partake the satisfaction of the country in this extension of British influence over the east; an influence which dispenses the benefits of increased security, of wiser legislation, of comprehensive tolerance, of extended traffic, of arts more useful, of opulence more diffusive, of exemplary civilization, and of printed instruction.

ART. VII. *Brief Remarks on the Mahratta War, and on the Rise and Progress of the French Establishment in Hindostan, under Generals De Boigne and Perron.* 8vo. pp. 33.

THIS is a shorter, but a less instructive and less interesting account of the Mahratta war, than that contained in lord Wellesley's notes: whence a neat epitome, cheaply accessible, would yet

be welcome to a numerous class of readers.

What most peculiarizes this publication is the following attempt at a logical justification of hostilities; the policy,

prudence, and good conduct of which have not been brought into question.

"After all that has been said and rumoured respecting the justice and the policy of the Mahratta war, the question may be resolved into four short and simple propositions.

"First. Had not the peishwa, who is an acknowledged sovereign prince, a right to enter into an alliance with a foreign state, provided the terms of such alliance did not trench upon the privileges, territories, and estates, of any of the feudal chieftains of the Mahratta empire?

"Secondly. Had not the British government a right to enter into an alliance with the peishwa, provided such treaty did not invade the lawful interests, or the possessions of other states, or of the feudal chieftains of the Mahratta empire?

"Thirdly. Had the confederated chieftains, Scindia and the rajah of Berar, a right to make war on the British government, because their meditated schemes of treasonable aggression against their lawful sovereign were counteracted, and likely to be frustrated, by the treaty in question?

"Fourthly and lastly. Would it not have been incumbent on the governor-general,

even had the confederated chieftains acted otherwise than they did, and not sought the quarrel, to have insisted on Sindia's dismissing the French officers, and disbanding the French army? or at least to have coerced and modified it in such a manner, as to prevent its becoming an instrument of our destruction in the hands of France?

"To these propositions it is easy to reply; and in common justice the only answer that can be given is obvious. But, laying aside the relative rights of the peishwa and feudal chieftains; the latter question is of such magnitude, as to render it the imperious duty of the governor-general to protect the empire committed to his charge; and by all justifiable means in his power to establish British influence paramount to that of France throughout the Mahratta empire."

A French poet observes:—

"Les usurpateurs des provinces
En deviennent les justes princes,
"En donnant de plus justes loix."

Happy the nation, whose conquests, although accompanied with this excuse, require not this apology!

ART. VIII. *Sir JOHN FROISSART'S Chronicles of England, France, and the adjoining Countries, from the latter Part of the Reign of Edward II. to the Coronation of Henry IV.; newly translated from the best French Editions; with Variations and Additions from many celebrated Manuscripts.* By THOMAS JONES. Vol. I. 4to. pp. 835.

GOOD authors and bad authors differ from each other precisely as good and bad men do; the bad think only of the present, whereas the good place their hope in a hereafter. The fame which a living writer acquires is not worthy to be called fame; it is most frequently the early and deceitful sunshine of an April morning, soon to be overclouded. If the most successful adventurer for literary honours would coolly analyse the applauses which he obtains, and investigate the different motives to which they may be traced, he would receive a useful though humiliating lesson. Perhaps his works derive an interest from his personal circumstances, which will necessarily die with him. A friendly reviewer may have promulgated his praises in the plural tone of authoritative criticism, or the *talking critics* find it convenient to be upon good terms with him, because his table is well-served, and his guests well chosen. Perhaps he has been extolled by the laudable pride of his townfolk; the nationality of his countrymen is interested in exaggerating his merits, or his fellow sectarians force him into notice. He may have blown

the trumpet of liberty and made himself conspicuous by standing alone; or played first fiddle in the chorus of loyalty, have ridiculed those whom the public thought ridiculous, and calumniated those who were already the objects of popular hatred. He has hit the temper of the times, and fancies his little bark sails rapidly, when she has only been going with the stream.

"Haud longum takes ideo lætantur, et ipsi
Sæpe suis superant monumentis, illaudati-
que

Extremum ante diem sætus flevit caduceos;
Viventesque suæ viderunt funera famæ."

VIDA.

These things will pass away, and if his reputation be founded upon these only, or such as these, it will soon be like the beauty of the last generation, or the popularity of a dead monarch, when the current money is stamped with his successor's head, and God save the king hath been transmitted, with the other heir-looms of the crown; the dust will lie light upon his volumes; and if no provident collector should secure them with Russia leather, or in the cedar book-case, the worms will make

them of some use in the system of nature.

As the public voice is more frequently erroneous in its praise than in its censure, so its favourable sentences are the soonest reversed. The multitude indeed receive their literary opinions as they do the articles of their faith; they believe in Shakespeare and Milton as in the Athanasian creed, and ages pass away before they can be reconciled to what they have once anathematized. Mandevil is still with them, as the pious punster called him, a man-devil, while the hard-hearted system of Adam Smith continues to be the political bible of England. Time is even slower than the court of Chancery in his decisions, but his decisions are certain, and the writers who deserve it are sure of their millennium at last, a resurrection of their own, in which the unworthy shall have no participation.

This is not one of those sermons which will suit any text, though such sermons, Heaven knows, might well be excused in reviewers, who have in general such miserable texts to preach upon. The present case is in point. We are beginning to do justice to the historians of old. Herodotus, who has been depreciated for a thousand years, has been in our days restored to his due rank; Machiavelli is no longer execrated as the enemy to virtue and freedom; we read the conquest of Mexico in the True History of Bernal Diaz, and the wars of the Black Prince in the Chronicles of Froissart.

Lady Wortley, who is entitled to a statue in St. Paul's, as the most delightful letter-writer of any age or country, as well as the benefactress of Europe,—she calls history the stupidest of all romances; and considering history as it has latterly been written, she does not greatly undervalue it. In the alembic of a modern history-maker, every thing that enlivens and distinguishes is evaporated, and a mere *caput mortuum* of results is left. Instead of the manners of men, the metaphysical narrator chuses to display their motives, as if he had been father confessor, as well as of the privy council, to the kings of old; instead of making the characters speak for themselves, he must sum them up in a string of fine sentences to show how neatly he can point an antithesis, or round a period. A boy will go to sleep over Hume, but give him Hollingshead instead, and he feels as when he comes from Mrs. Salmon's waxen figures into

the motion and life of Fleet-street. In the Chronicles we deal with living men; they move before us as in the drama, in their characteristic dresses, and the scene of action and the bustle of action are represented with all their circumstances. Modern history reduces all to the substratum of essential facts, regardless of the accidents which give the varieties of colour and beauty. Their narratives are in comparison what a gazette is to the drama, a plan to a picture, a skeleton to flesh and blood. This system has proceeded partly from want of feeling and imagination, still more from a want of honest industry. Henry indeed has done his duty in collecting materials, but he has only collected them for some better architect to build with. His work can no more be called a history, than a plate of plumbs, and another of suet, and a third of flour, with a little water in one cup, and a little brandy in another, should be called a plum-pudding. Mrs. Glass's directions to mix the ingredients well, are as applicable to the one case as to the other.

Froissart has at present a higher reputation than any chronicler, though he is less intrinsically interesting than Joinville, did we not take a livelier interest in his subject. Mr. Ellis and Mr. Walter Scott have quoted him so well, that even the unlearned, and those who read merely for amusement, will rejoice that Mr. Johnes has thus made Froissart accessible to general readers. Indeed the taste for books of chivalry has long been perceptibly reviving. After slumbering so many ages upon the shelf, they have come to life again, like the snails of the virtuoso in warm water. Sentimental lady letter-writers are likely to give place to wandering damsels, and the gentle knights errant have found their way into the circulating library, to the great danger of the love-sick lords and gentlemen, who have so long maintained quiet possession there. It is the peculiar good fortune of Froissart that his heroes are as perfect knights as Amadis or Sir Tristram, while their actions are the most splendid that occur in the histories of France and England.

Mr. Johnes has bestowed much labour upon this work in correcting the names of persons and places, where it was possible. He has collated the printed copies with several manuscripts, and added to them some chapters which now first appear. From these we shall take our specimen

of the work. It is too interesting and too curious to make any apology for its length necessary; a full account by a contemporary, and such a contemporary as Froissart, of one of our first great naval victories, in which Edward the third and Edward the Black Prince were personally engaged, and this first published 450 years after the event, is so curious in itself, and so stimulating to an Englishman's feelings, that we may say with Thomas Fuller, "all *compendium* would be *dispendium* thereof."

"About this period there was much ill will between the king of England and the Spaniards, on account of some infractions and pillages committed at sea by the latter. It happened at this season, that the Spaniards who had been in Flanders with their merchandize, were informed they would not be able to return home, without meeting the English fleet. The Spaniards did not pay much attention to this intelligence: however, after they had disposed of their goods, they amply provided their ships from Sluys with arms and artillery, and all such archers, crossbow-men, and soldiers, as were willing to receive pay.

"The king of England hated these Spaniards greatly, and said publicly—'We have for a long time spared these people; for which they have done us much harm; without mending their conduct: on the contrary, they grow more arrogant; for which reason, they must be chastised as they re-pass our coasts.' His lords readily assented to this proposal, and were eager to engage the Spaniards. The king, therefore, issued a special summons to all gentlemen, who at that time might be in England, and left London.

"He went to the coast of Sussex, between Southampton and Dover, which lies opposite to Ponthieu and Dieppe, and kept his court in a monastery, whither the queen also came. At this time and place, that gallant knight, lord Robert de Namur, who was lately returned from beyond sea, joined the king: he came just in time to be one of his armament; and the king was exceedingly pleased at his arrival. On finding that he was not too late to meet the Spaniards on their return, the king, with his nobles and knights, embarked on board his fleet; and he never was attended by so numerous a company in any of his former expeditions at sea.

"This same year the king created his cousin, Henry earl of Derby, duke of Lancaster, and the baron of Stafford, an earl, who were now both with him. The prince of Wales and John earl of Richmond were likewise on board the fleet: the last was too young to bear arms, but he had him on board, because much he loved him. There were also in this fleet the earls of Arundel, Northampton, Hereford, Suffolk, and Warwick, the lord Reginald Copham, sir Walter Manny, sir

Thomas Holland, sir Lewis Beauchamp, sir James Audley, sir Bartholomew Burghersh, the lords Percy, Mowbray, Neville, Roos, de D'Isfort, de Gastrole, de Berder, and many others. There were four hundred knights; nor was he ever attended by a larger company of great lords. The king kept the sea with his vessels ready prepared for action, and to wait for the enemy, who was not long before he appeared. He kept cruising for three days between Dover and Calais.

"When the Spaniards had completed their cargoes, and laden their vessels with linen cloths, and whatever they imagined would be profitable in their own country, they embarked on board their fleet at Sluys. They knew they should meet the English, but were indifferent about it; for they had marvellously provided themselves with all sorts of warlike ammunition; such as bolts for cross-bows, cannons, and bars of forged iron to throw on the enemy, in hopes, with the assistance of great stones, to sink him.

"When they weighed anchor, the wind was favourable for them: there were forty large vessels of such a size, and so beautiful, it was a fine sight to see them under sail. Near the top of their masts were small castles, full of flints and stones, and a soldier to guard them; and there also was the flag-staff, from whence fluttered their streamers in the wind, that it was pleasant to look at them. If the English had a great desire to meet them, it seemed as if the Spaniards were still more eager for it, as will hereafter appear. The Spaniards were full 10,000 men, including all sorts of soldiers they had enlisted when in Flanders: this made them feel sufficient courage not to fear the combat with the king of England, and whatever force he might have at sea.

"Intending to engage the English fleet, they advanced with a favourable wind until they came opposite to Calais. The king of England being at sea, had very distinctly explained to all his knights the order of battle he would have them follow: he had appointed the lord Robert de Namur to the command of a ship called *La Saille de Roi*, on board of which was all his household. The king posted himself in the fore-part of his own ship: he was dressed in a black velvet jacket, and wore on his head a small hat of beaver, which became him much. He was that day, as I was told by those who were present, as joyous as ever he was in his life, and ordered his minstrels to play before him a German dance, which sir John Chandos had lately introduced. For his amusement, he made the same knight sing with his minstrels, which delighted him greatly. From time to time he looked up to the castle on his mast, where he had placed a watch to inform him when the Spaniards were in sight. Whilst the king was thus amusing himself with his knights, who were happy in seeing him so gay, the watch, who had observed a fleet, cried out, 'Ho, I spy a ship, and it appears to me to be a Spaniard.' The minstrels were

silenced, and he was asked if there were more than one: soon after he replied, 'Yes; I see two, three, four, and so many that, God help me, I cannot count them.' The king and his knights then knew they must be the Spaniards. The trumpets were ordered to sound, and the ships to form a line of battle for the combat; as they were aware that since the enemy came in such force, it could not be avoided. It was, however, rather late, about the hour of vespers. The king ordered wine to be brought, which he and his knights drank; when each fixed their helmets on their heads. The Spaniards now drew near: they might easily have refused the battle, if they had chosen it, for they were well freighted, in large ships, and had the wind in their favour. They could have avoided speaking with the English, if they had willed, but their pride and presumption made them act otherwise. They disdained to sail by, but bore instantly down on them, and commenced the battle.

"When the king of England saw from his ship their order of battle, he ordered the person who managed his vessel, saying, 'Lay me alongside the Spaniard, who is bearing down on us; for I will have a tilt with him. The master dared not disobey the king's order, but laid his ship ready for the Spaniard, who was coming full sail. The king's ship was large and stiff; otherwise she would have been sunk, for that of the enemy was a great one, and the shock of their meeting was more like the crash of a torrent or tempest: the rebound caused the castle in the king's ship to encounter that of the Spaniard; so that the mast was broken, and all in the castle fell with it into the sea, where they were drowned. The English vessel, however, suffered, and let in water, which the knights cleared, and stopped the leak, without telling the king any thing of the matter. Upon examining the vessel he had engaged lying before him, he said, 'Grapple my ship with that, for I will have possession of her.' His knights replied, 'Let her go her way: you shall have better than her.' That vessel sailed on, and another large ship bore down, and grappled with chains and hooks to that of the king. The fight now began in earnest, and the archers and cross-bows on each side to shoot and defend themselves.

"The battle was not in one place, but in ten or twelve at a time. Whenever either party found themselves equal to the enemy, or superior, they instantly grappled, when the grand deeds of arms were performed. The English had not any advantage; and the Spanish ships were much larger and higher than their opponents, which gave them a great superiority in shooting and casting stones and iron bars on board their enemy, which annoyed them exceedingly. The knights on board the king's ship were in danger of sinking, for the leak still admitted water: this made them more eager to conquer the vessel they were grappled to: many gallant deeds were done; and at last they gained

the ship, and flung all they found in it overboard, having quitted their own ship. They continued the combat against the Spaniards, who fought valiantly, and whose cross-bowmen shot such bolts of iron as greatly distressed the English.

"This sea-fight, between the English and Spaniards, was well and hardly fought: but, as night was coming on, the English exerted themselves to do well their duty, and discomfit their enemies. The Spaniards, who are used to the sea, and were in large ships, acquitted themselves to the utmost of their power. The young prince of Wales and his division were engaged apart: his ship was grappled by a great Spaniard, when he and his knights suffered much; for she had so many holes, the water came in very abundantly, so that they could not by any means stop the leaks, which gave the crew fears of her sinking; they therefore did all they could to conquer the enemy's ship, but in vain; for she was very large, and excellently well defended.

"During this danger of the prince, the duke of Lancaster came near, and, as he approached, saw he had the worst of the engagement, and that his crew had too much on their hands, for they were baling out water; he therefore fell on the other side of the Spanish vessel, with which he grappled, shouting, 'Derby, to the rescue!' The engagement was now very warm, but did not last long, for the ship was taken, and all the crew thrown overboard, not one being saved. The prince with his men instantly embarked on board the Spaniard; and scarcely had they done so, when his own vessel sunk, which convinced them of the imminent danger they had been in.

"The engagement was in other parts well contested by the English knights, who exerted themselves, and need there was of it, for they found those who feared them not. Late in the evening, the *Salle du Roi*, commanded by lord Robert de Namur, was grappled by a large Spaniard, and the fight was very severe. The Spaniards were determined to gain this ship; and, the more effectually to succeed in carrying her off, they set all their sails, took advantage of the wind, and, in spite of what lord Robert and his crew could do, towed her out of the battle; for the Spaniard was of a more considerable size than lord Robert's ship, and therefore the more easily conquered. As they were thus towed, they passed near the king's ship, to whom they cried out, 'Rescue the *Salle du Roi*,' but were not heard; for it was dark; and, if they were heard, they were not rescued. The Spaniards would have carried away with ease this prize, if it had not been for a gallant act of one Hasequin, a servant to the lord Robert, who, with his drawn sword on his wrist, leaped on board the enemy, ran to the mast, and cut the large cable which held the mainsail, by which it became unmanageable; and, with great agility, he cut other four principal ropes, so that

the sails fell on the deck, and the course of the ship was stopped. Lord Robert, seeing this, advanced with his men, and, boarding the Spaniard sword in hand, attacked the crew so vigorously, all were slain or thrown overboard, and the vessel won.

"I cannot speak of every particular circumstance of this engagement. It lasted a considerable time; and the Spaniards gave the king of England and his fleet enough to do. However at last victory declared for the English: the Spaniards lost fourteen ships; the others saved themselves by flight.

"When it was completely over, and the king saw he had none to fight with, he ordered his trumpets to sound a retreat, and made for England. They anchored at Rye and Winchelsea a little after night-fall, when the king, the prince of Wales, the duke of Lancaster, the earl of Richmond, and other barons, disembarked, took horses in the town, and rode to the mansion where the queen was, scarcely two English leagues distant. The queen was mightily rejoiced on seeing her lord and her children: she had suffered that day great affliction from her doubts of success; for they had seen from the hills of the coast the whole of the battle, as the weather was fine and clear, and had told the queen, who was very anxious to learn the number of the enemy, that the Spaniards had forty large ships: she was therefore much comforted by their safe return.

"The king, with those knights who had attended him, passed the night in revelry with the ladies, conversing of arms and amours. On the morrow, the greater part of the barons, who had been in this engagement, came to him: he greatly thanked them all for the services they had done him, before he dismissed them; when they took their leaves, and returned every man to his home."

Cannon are mentioned in this action, as being used by the Spaniards; another proof, if farther proof were needed, that the use of gunpowder came into Europe by way of Spain: this is the first mention of its use at sea. They must have been small pieces; for king Joam II. of Portugal, who reigned from 1481 to 1495, was the first person who sent great guns to sea.

In his translation, Mr. Johnes has faithfully followed his motto—

"Whoso shall tell a tale after a man,
He mooste reherse, as neighe as ever he can,
Everich word, if it be in his charge,
All speke he never so rudely and so large;
Or elles he mooste tellen his tale untrewre,
Or feinen thinges, or finden wordes newe."

He is not however so full of the language of chivalry, as might have been expected from his love of this delightful author. The word gentlemen, which

he uses for sirs or gentle sirs, gives an unpleasant modernism, wherever it is introduced, and "dear gentleman," resembles the language of Richardson, instead of that of sir Philip Sidney. *Beaux pres* is rendered handsome meadow, and *beau frere* amiable brother, and *s'assit*, placing himself on his sitting. It would on the whole have been better if Mr. Johnes had re-published lord Berners's translation, correcting the proper names, inserting the additional chapters, and bestowing the same pains of annotation as at present. The orthography might have been modernised, without injuring or affecting the language; and unlearned readers, when it had ceased to appear obsolete, would not have found it difficult. But we do not wonder that the pleasure of dwelling on such an author should have induced Mr. Johnes to translate the whole himself. He has set the gentlemen of England a noble example.

We have to regret that the work could not have been made accessible to common purchasers. Four such volumes will fall little short of lord Berners's very rare version in price, and will considerably exceed the ordinary French edition. It may not be amiss to inform those readers who wish for a book out of their reach, that the most interesting parts of Froissart are to be found in the History of Edward III. by old Joshua Barnes, to whom we are more obliged for this work than for all his other *Bap-
1110101 1110101*, as he called them. A history of this illustrious king, which should be at once full and philosophical, is greatly to be desired. What a race were the Plantagenets! No other single family ever produced such a succession of extraordinary men: Henry II. the greatest and ablest prince of his time; Richard Lion-heart, with whose name the nurses to this very day frighten the young Turk at the breast; Edward, who conquered Wales, and had well nigh conquered Scotland; Edward III. the most illustrious of the kings of Europe, to whose court combatants came, even from Armenia, to decide their quarrel; Edward of Cressy and of Poitiers; and Henry of Agincourt; and last of all Richard III. the last of that illustrious race, whom Horace Walpole and Malcolm Laing have fairly and fully exculpated from all the crimes laid to his charge by a successful enemy, who was as little wicked as he was deformed; who no

more murdered his nephew, than he frightened his mudwife, who was neither murderer, nor usurper, nor tyrant, but

lawful king of England, the worthy representative of the Plantagenets, the worthy favourite of the people.

ART. IX. *The History of Canada, from its first Discovery, comprehending an Account of the original Establishment of the Colony of Louisiana.* By GEORGE HERIOT, Esq. 8vo. pp. 600.

THE age of European dominion in America is passing away. The Spanish and Portuguese colonies will follow the example of the United States, and detach themselves from the mother countries, whose protection is no longer necessary, but who would fain continue to exact the obedience which they cannot enforce. This is the established order of things. The growing oyster falls from the back of its parent as soon as it has acquired strength for a separate vitality; the young lion, who can prowl for himself, is expelled from his native den. It is absurd to suppose that the bee-swarm should collect honey for the original hive when they want it for themselves.

Canada, the fragment which we have contrived to save from the wreck of our great American empire; Canada appears respectable in a map of the British territories to those who can forget the past; and it is indeed conspicuous for its lakes, and its number of square miles. But to us this land of ice, and beavers, and rattlesnakes, excites but little national interest; it was neither discovered nor colonized by Englishmen, and the greater part of its inhabitants continue to speak French, and to worship the Virgin Mary. With the thirteen provinces we did, indeed, connect a proud and patriotic feeling. The old worthies, who took refuge there from what Milton calls the inquisitorial and tyrannical duncery of their church and state oppressors, deserve little less honour than their brethren who remained and asserted their rights with the edge of the sword. But more delightful were the recollections associated with Pennsylvania; there, indeed, the purest and the true doctrines had been most happily put in practice, the great founder had established his community upon the principles of peace and good will towards men, and God has blessed his labours. These were the trophies of our country; the monuments of English wisdom, and English virtue, and these now, like the captured standards of a routed army, bear record to our shame. When a spendthrift heir has set the woods which his forefathers planted, upon the hazard,

and the chance of the die hath fallen against him, who does not regret to see the old oaks, in which nature had carried on her functions for so many centuries, and which would for many a generation longer have continued to flourish in their beauty; who does not regret to see them cut down by the folly of their worthless lord, the country stripped of its best ornament, and the old mansion laid open to the storms, from which they had been its shield and defence? Let it not be supposed that we lament the independence of America. Sooner or later America must have been independent; but the disunion might have taken place like the separation between father and child, when the son is sent into the world with his fair portion, and his father's blessing, to become the father of a family himself.

We lament an unnatural war, provoked unjustly, foolishly carried on, and disgracefully terminated.

Canada, this single remnant of the robe which is left to Rehoboam, affords no very material advantage at present; and offers for the future no very encouraging hopes. Its history we should call altogether uninteresting, did we not call to mind the glorious death of Wolfe. Skirmishes with the savages, savage conspiracies and murders, forts erected and abandoned, governors thwarted in their wise measures by intrigues at the court at home, or undoing in their folly what the wisdom of their predecessors had done; such are the events, too unconnected with the general system of politics, and too insignificant in themselves to attract much attention beyond their own theatre. Not that we would be understood to depreciate the object of Mr. Heriot's labours, or to despise what is chiefly of local value. On the contrary, we are pleased when a county, a town, or even a village finds its historian. Every man is the better for the knowledge of what has happened in his own district, the daily circumstances of life all lead to cut us off from all that has been, and all that will be, and to insulate the feelings of our whole being in this little transitory *now*; these local histories tend

to break the spell of the present, by awakening in us something of the same melancholy which we feel when we think upon our forefathers. This good effect is produced by works of mere topography, the meanest departure of literature; and this is no trifling good. The present volume, while it possesses this utility, is one of a higher character. Civilization has now struck root in Canada; colonists are no longer in danger from any neglect of the mother country, or from any treachery of their savage neighbours. Nor can it now be destroyed by the accidents of war; though the province should change masters it will still remain a civilized and a growing state.

It would be a minute and tedious task to attempt an analysis of a history made up of trifling events, without any one splendid action. The only circumstance which arrests attention, and impresses the mind, is the following account of an earthquake in 1663.

"On the 5th of February, about half an hour past four in the evening, a great noise was heard, nearly at the same time, throughout the whole extent of Canada. That noise seems to have been the effect of a sudden vibration of the air, agitated in all directions. It appeared as if the houses were on fire, and the inhabitants, in order to avoid its effects, immediately ran out of doors. But their astonishment was increased when they saw the buildings shaken with the greatest violence, and the roofs disposed to fall, sometimes on one side, sometimes on the other. The doors opened of themselves, and shut again with a great crash. All the bells were sounding, although no person touched them. The pallisades of the fences seemed to bound out of their places; the walls were rent; the planks of the floor separated, and again sprung together. The dogs answered these previous tokens of a general disorder of nature, by lamentable howlings. The other animals sent forth the most terrific groans and cries, and, by a natural instinct, extended their legs to prevent them from falling. The surface of the earth was moved like an agitated sea. The trees were thrown against each other, and many, torn up by the roots, were tossed to a considerable distance.

"Sounds of every description were then heard; at one time like the fury of a sea which had overflowed its barriers; at another like a multitude of carriages rolling over a pavement, and again like mountains of rock or marble opening their bowels, and breaking into pieces with a tremendous roar. Thick clouds of dust, which at the same time arose, were taken for smoke, and for the symptoms of an universal conflagration.

"The consternation became so general, that not only men, but the animals, appeared

as if struck with thunder; they ran in every quarter without a knowledge of their course, and wherever they went they encountered the danger they wished to avoid. The cries of children, the lamentations of women, the alternate successions of fire and darkness in the atmosphere, all combined to aggravate the evils of a dire calamity which subverts every thing by the execrating tortures of the imagination, distressed and confounded, and losing in the contemplation of this general confusion the means of self-preservation.

"The ice which covered the St. Lawrence, and the other rivers, broke into pieces which crashed against each other; large bodies of ice were thrown up into the air, and from the place they had quitted a quantity of sand, and slime, and water spouted up. The sources of several springs and little rivers became dry; the waters of others were impregnated with sulphur. At sometimes the waters appeared red, at others of a yellowish cast; those of the St. Lawrence became white from Quebec to Tadoussac, a space of thirty leagues; the quantity of matter necessary to impregnate so vast a body of water must have been prodigious. In the mean time the atmosphere continued to exhibit the most awful phenomena; an incessant rushing noise was heard, and the fires assumed every species of form. The most plaintive voices augmented the general terror and alarm. Porpoises and sea-cows were heard howling in the water at Three Rivers, where none of these fishes had ever before been found; and the noise which they sent forth resembled not that of any known animal.

"Over the whole extent of three hundred leagues from east to west, and one hundred and fifty from south to north, the earth, the rivers, and the coasts of the ocean experienced for a considerable time, although at intervals, the most dreadful agitation.

"The first shock continued without intermission for half an hour: about eight o'clock in the evening there came a second, no less violent than the first, and in the space of half an hour were two others. During the night were reckoned thirty shocks."

There occurs a fine specimen of savage oratory in the speech of a Tsonnonthouan deputy to the French governor.

"La Grangula, the Tsonnonthouan deputy, who during the foregoing speech seemed to fix his eyes on the end of his pipe, arose, and after making five or six turns within the circle composed of Frenchmen and savages, he resumed his situation, and standing erect, and regarding the general with a fixed and stern look, replied in the following terms:

"Ononchio, I honour thee. All the warriors who accompany me likewise honour thee. Thy interpreter hath finished thy discourse, I am about to speak in reply. My voice hastens to thy ears, listen then with attention to my words.

"Thou must, on leaving Quebec, have imagined, Ononchio, that the intense heat of

the sun had consumed the forests, which render our country inaccessible to the French; or that the lake had so overflowed its boundaries, that finding our villages in the midst of the waters, it were impossible for us to quit them. Yes, Ononthio, thou must have believed either of those improbabilities; and curiosity to see so large a tract of country burnt up, or inundated, must have induced thee to travel thus far. Thou art now undeceived, since I and my warriors come hither to assure thee, that the five nations have not yet perished. I thank thee, in their name, for having brought back into their lands the calumet of peace, which thy predecessors received from their hands. I at the same time congratulate thee for having buried under ground the murderous hatchet,* which has so often been stained with the blood of thy countrymen. Attend, Ononthio; my eyes are open, and the sun which gives me light discloses to my view a great captain, at the head of a troop of warriors, who speaks like one in a dream. He says, he has approached this lake for the purpose of smoking in the great calumet with the Onontagués, but La Grangula sees on the contrary, that it was for the purpose of destroying them, if so many of thy people had not been enfeebled by disease.

"I see that Ononthio dreams amid a camp of invalids, whose lives the Great Spirit hath saved, and restrained them by infirmity, from prosecuting their design. Our women would have taken the war clubs, our children and old men would have carried the bow and arrow to thy camp, had not our warriors interposed to disarm them, on the arrival of Akouessau thy messenger at our village.

"We have pillaged, Ononthio, only those Frenchmen who carried fusils, powder, and ball to the Illinois and the Oumamis, our enemies, because these arms might have been fatal to us. In this we have acted like the Jesuit missionaries, who break all the casks of spirits which are brought to our villages, apprehensive lest drunken Indians might knock them on the head.

"Our warriors have not beaver furs to pay for all the arms they have seized, and our poor old men are not afraid of war."

It is asserted of the tribes of the Mississippi, as of the New Hollanders, that their languages have no affinity to each other, although no great distance intervene between them. If the fact be accurately stated, it throws some light upon the history of language, but we doubt the competence of the authority. Dialects may differ so widely as easily to be mistaken for different languages by one who is not deeply versed in either. The Welsh and Irish, for instance, bear little resemblance to the eye, and Dutch or English, or English and German, might

well be supposed to have no affinity to each other, by a Turk or Chinese, who should know as much of them as our traders or missionaries of these barbarous tongues.

Mr. Heriot says in his preface, that the manners and customs of various nations on the continent of America, will perhaps compose the subject of a future disquisition. Such an account should properly have preceded the present volume, which should also have contained a succinct description of the country. These preliminaries are necessary to the history of a country so little resembling our own; they give the reader a clearer comprehension of the event, and impress them more deeply in his recollection.

The episodical part of this history is rather more interesting than the main subject. The *Sieur de la Salé*, who first explored the Mississippi, and first attempted to form an establishment in Louisiana, was a man of rare talents, and of that adventurous spirit, which might have produced splendid achievements had he been born a century earlier, when suitable associates might have been found. But the age of enterprize was over. His measures were thwarted by a rascally sea officer, from motives of personal hatred, who encouraged his people to desert, and deprived him of his cannon and ammunition; and he was at length assassinated by three of his own people. This part is also enlivened by an account of the Natchez, the most remarkable of the American tribes; a people who seem to have attained the middle stage between the barbarism of the Virginian and Canadian savages, and the refined systems of Mexico and Peru. The union of priestcraft and despotism which prevailed among them is exceedingly curious. Their chief called himself brother of the sun, who was their supreme god; Sun, therefore, was his title; his dwelling place was built upon the plan of the temple of which he was the master; and every morning he used to honour with his presence the rising of his elder brother. The prince of the Assassins does not seem to have possessed a more absolute authority over the minds and bodies of his people than this American tyrant.

"One of the principal articles of their religion, particularly for the attendants of the grand chief, was to honour his obsequies by dying with him, that they might serve him

* To raise the hatchet, is to proclaim war; to bury it, is to enter on terms of peace.

in the next world. They blindly submitted with cheerfulness to this law, in the vain persuasion, that in the company of their chief they should enjoy the greatest happiness.

"To convey an idea of this sanguinary ceremony, it must be announced, that so soon as a presumptive heir to the grand chief was born; every family where there was an infant at the breast gave him the homage of that child. Out of these children, a certain number was chosen destined to the service of the young prince, and when they became of a competent age, an employment was given them conformable to their capacities: some spent their lives in the chase or in fishing, or for the service of his table; others were occupied in agriculture; others only as followers or attendants:—when he died, all these servants sacrificed themselves with joy to follow their dear master. They on this occasion assumed their finest dress, and went together to the ground opposite the temple, where all the people of the village also assembled. After having danced and sung for a considerable time, they passed around their necks a cord with a running knot, and soon after the ministers destined for this kind of execution came to strangle them, recommending to them to rejoin their master, and to resume in the other world employments yet more honourable than those they exercised in the present.

"The principal domestics of the grand chief having been strangled in this manner, their bones were stripped, and left to dry for two months in a kind of tomb; after which they were taken out to be shut up in baskets, and placed in the temple beside those of their master. The other servants who had been strangled were carried home by their relations, and interred with their arms and cloaths.

"The same ceremony was likewise observed on the death of the brothers and sisters of the grand chief. Women were always strangled to follow them, provided they had not a child at the breast. There were, however, instances of their delivering their children to nurses, or of putting them to death themselves, that they might not forego the

privilege of being sacrificed, according to the usual ceremonies ordained by the law.

"The government was hereditary; but the sons of the reigning chief did not succeed their father; the sons of his sister, the first princess of the blood, were his declared successors. This policy was founded on the knowledge which they had of the libertinism of their wives. They were not certain, said they, that the children of their wives were of the blood royal; whereas the sons of the sister of the grand chief were at least so by the side of their mother.

"The princesses of the blood never espoused men of an obscure family; they had only one husband, but they were at liberty to repudiate him whenever they pleased, and to make choice of another among those of the nation, provided there was no alliance between them. If the husband was guilty of infidelity, the princess immediately caused him to be put to death: she was not subject to the same law, for she could enjoy as many lovers as she pleased, without the husband being suffered to complain. He conducted himself in the presence of his wife with the greatest respect; he did not eat with her; he saluted her with howling, as was practised by her domestics. The only satisfaction he enjoyed was that of being exempt from labour, and of having authority over those who served the princess."

Formerly this was a powerful nation; they had sixty villages and eight hundred sons, all acknowledging obedience to the chief sun. In 1730, they were reduced to six villages and eleven sons. Of their present state no intimation is given.

This volume brings down the history to the year 1731. The subsequent one will have to record events of more interest and more importance, and perhaps Mr. Heriot, from his residence in the country, may have opportunities of acquiring original information concerning such as have taken place within the memory of man.

ART. X. *A compendious View of Universal History, from the Year 1753, to the Treaty of Amiens, in 1802, by CHARLES MAYO, LL. B.* 4to. 4 vols.

THE Universal History, a work so honourable to the literary industry of the last generation of our authors, terminates with the eighteenth century; but prolongs the chronicle of Great Britain to 1753. A continuation was hardly to have been expected from a single hand; yet it will not therefore be unwelcome. Still, a division of labour, if less favourable to the display of toil, might have been more conducive to comprehensive information; and the various points of view of distinct writers would have given

to each series of annals a more appropriate illumination, and a more substantive peculiarity.

Europe would be well partitioned, if its political coincided with its literary geography; if the boundaries of empire were co-extensive with those of languages; if nationality were founded on dialect, and commensurate with reciprocal intelligibility.

The English speech exactly overspreads the British isles. The French tongue scarcely extends to the Rhine, barely

passes the Alps, and is neatly limited by the Pyrenees. The tribes included respectively within these confines imbibe, from the same writers, common prejudices and inclinations; they are fitted, therefore, to coalesce under the same laws and institutions, to be swayed by the same orators and animated by a sympathetic patriotism.

The Spanish and Portuguese are both mere dialects of the Romanesque, or modernized Latinity. Were these two nations consolidated, all distinction of speech would speedily disappear, and each would receive the words both of the higher and lower Tagus; if the Muses have hitherto preferred to hisp the dialect prevailing at its mouth, Mercury, the god of prose, has preferred that of its source. These countries would derive from union some increase of strength, and some additional chance for independence.

Italy, in like manner, suffers from subdivision. Had the kings of Sardinia, or of Naples, fortunately been a race of intelligent and ambitious princes, and gradually extended their encroachments, successively from the Alps to Ætna, or from Ætna to the Alps; reducing the sovereign of the holy city to the mere patriarch or archbishop of the Italian church, and reviving the metropolitan rank of Rome as a seat of extensive political sovereignty; how much more secure against the invasive ambition of France would every portion of that fine territory have become. The Venus and the Apollo, not chained to the iron chariot of Mars, would still have remained in the Elysium of the arts. The partition not the effeminacy of Italy has rendered her incapable of self-defence.

In Germany the language of its authors overspreads almost the whole tract of country included between the Donau, (Danube) the Weischel, (Vistula) and the Rhine. The court of Prussia forms the natural center of attraction for every thing German. It is ambitious, but in detail; and circumvents parishes, while it should absorb provinces. It has invaded the liberty of Dantzic, threatened the liberty of Nuremberg, and covets the possession of Hamburg; but it awaits, with timid precaution, the opportunities it should make. The imperial cities begin to feel that a precarious autonomy is well sacrificed to a strong protection; they wish for a domestic conqueror. So do the counties and duke-

doms and electorates. The offer of constitutional liberty would be necessary to make sweeping annexations without resistance. But a wise sovereign would perceive that the condition of France is operating as a warning to the people, and that neither the royal authority, nor the individual bestower of freedom, would, as in the case of Louis XVI. be now the victim of concession.

Vienna is a frontier, not the center of language; the place where German ends, not the metropolis whence it circulates. For the Austrian emperors the Hungarian, which is a Slavonic dialect, is the natural idiom. In Carinthia, Stiria, Moravia and Bohemia the popular jargon is also a form of the Slavonian. Were these princes disposed to transplant their metropolis from Vienna to Buda or Belgrade, progressively descending the Danube, and annexing its whole course to their fertile empire (and it is in this direction that their future aggrandizement is chiefly practicable) they would every where find the language of Hungary to be the most pervasive medium of intercourse among their subjects. Their connexion with the constitution of Germany has been voluntarily renounced; it remains for them to apostatize from its language.

Norway and Sweden are well adapted for one master and one tongue: the Scandinavian peninsula can ill sustain a struggle with the possible ambition of Russia, unless indissolubly knit under one constitution, free enough to secure the most stubborn zealotry of patriotism.

To this eventual distribution of European territory, the progress of literature must continually be bending the will of the people. In proportion, therefore, to the rapidity with which intellect learns to command force, it will be sooner or later realized. History would do well to groupe its phenomena accordingly; and to treat under one subdivision of those tribes, whose confluence is to give a common channel to their annals.

Our author makes too many sections of narrative. His Holland is still independent. His Poland has a substantive existence. His Geneva is not involved in the politics of France. His Portugal is a gadding vine, not bound about the Spanish poplar. In Italy alone he imbraids the threads of distinct histories. His world has in all eighteen segments; Great Britain, Holland, France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, Geneva, Germany, Prussia

sia, Denmark, Sweden, Russia, Poland, Turkey, Persia, East Indies, China, and West Indies. Poor Africa seems blot-
ted from his map of the earth.

Of each of these eighteen districts one year's history is given in a separate chapter. The relater breaks off by the almanack, in the midst of a siege, or of an adjourned debate. The districts follow in the same order the second year, and the third, and so forth; thus we have to quit, as in Ariosto, one set of combatants, by the time they grow interesting, for another. The first volume extends from 1758 to 1769; the second, from 1770 to 1785; the third, from 1786 to 1795; and the fourth, from 1797 to 1802. In proportion to the contiguity of events has been the dilatation of the narrative. Tables of reference are appended, whence the reader can learn at what page any given series of incident is continued: he may, read, therefore, year by year, as the work is printed, or nation by nation, as the interests both of the sympathy and of the memory require. In a new edition we should far prefer a topical to a chronological arrangement.

These objections, however, relate only to the form of the work, and are of little importance. With its matter and execution the reader is much more concerned. The British history, as may be expected, is narrated with more detail and completeness. The French history is also given copiously. The other European powers, especially those of Germany, are but negligently celebrated. The author is apparently untravelled in continental literature, and omits to quote many of the most obvious and popular sources of intelligence, if they do not happen to have found an English translator, or to have been printed and published in London. Yet the use made of the scanty materials within his reach is meritorious; the clearness of his diction, the lucid order of his narrative, and the cautious cast of his reflections will find approval.

On the British annals of Mr. Mayo it is needless to comment. So many histories of our own times have lately appeared, that one is fatigued with reminiscence, and begins to sleep over them, as in a mail-coach, where the road is familiar and trite. For domestic use more detail would be desired than could here be admitted; but the chronicle is well enough adapted for a foreign version, as the diplomatic, rather than the interior poli-

tics of the country, arrest attention on the continent. The author, if not a discriminative, is not a severe critic; he is habitually satisfied with the conduct of administration; he excuses even, we had almost said, he approves, the intolerance of government towards the Catholics of Ireland; but something may be forgiven to professional prejudice.

In narrating the French revolution, many of the suppressions are unwise. Those proceedings of the constituting assembly are skipped, as incendiary, which had for their object to facilitate conquest by fraternization; such as the various declarations of the rights of men and citizens, and societies; which promise the political equality of religious sects, a community of civil rights, representative constitutions of government, elective magistracies, the abolition of taxes on food, of commercial restrictions and monopolies, and such other advantages, pretended or real. Laws were enacted and laws repealed, in consonance with these declarations; the bait took; France owed the extension of her territory to the voluntary allegiance of the hopeful converts to her opinions. She has now broken the condition on her part. By the elevation of Bonaparte, all these benefits are formally withdrawn. The right of insurrection, or rather of separation, revives on her own principles. It is expedient, therefore, for the enemies of French aggrandizement, now to republish, in all their strength, these broken promises to remind the people of its social contract; and to offer, in their turn, to protect the independence of those frontier provinces which may be disposed to coalesce with Switzerland and Holland in republican independency. The revolution principles of the French are precisely the best adapted; first, to break up the petty principalities of Germany, which, if suffered to remain in their present state, will be devoured one by one by France; and then to recombine the people in one vast national body, able to set bounds to the oriental extension of France. The crimes committed during the French revolution prove nothing against or for its principles; they shew in what degree the French are a barbarous or a civilized people; in what degree they are bold, or humane; ignorant and fanatical; or informed and patient. The massacre of saint Bartholomew does not invalidate the probability of the Catholic religion. It has only appeared

that the French are nearly in the same stage of improvement as the Irish ; because civil discord and anarchy assume, in these communities, a like atrocious form ; it is not not known, from French experience, whether the realization of the principal laws projected by the constituting assembly would or would not answer to human society. But this is known from French experience, that the principles of the constituting assembly are well adapted to dissolve the cohesion of extant societies, to crumble fragments of nations into the dust and powder of individuality, and to facilitate their reunion in new and vaster masses. Had the French revolution succeeded, its principles, which are contagious, might have become dangerous and incendiary ; now, that it has failed, they are accompanied with that wholesome dread, which renders them a safe prescription in the hands of able political physicians ; they will not be swallowed any more as wine for a debauch, but as a tonic medicine for a decline. The limbs of the aged parent have been cast into the magic kettle of the sorceress ; we have reviled the impious butchery ; but he is come out in his pristine shape, with renewed youth and increased vigor.

The interests of Great Britain, as the enemy of French aggrandizement, and the interests of all those continental states, which are too small and weak to defend, while subdivided, their own independence, obviously require the republication of revolutionary doctrines. Another principle facilitates their resumption. Prudent men forbear competitions in which they cannot excel. But the French liberty-mongers have made such wretched havoc, that the career is open to fresh competitors, with every prospect of superior glory and success. The foil is provided ; but the jewel liberty is still to set. The British constitution remains the pride and the envy of Europe. The next generation of revolutionists will study in our literature the difficult art of government : to our philosophers, to our statesmen, they will turn with docile attention ; our language and our reputation will be scattered by their inquiries, and established by their deeds. O ! that the next Gustavus Adolphus destined to rescue Germany once more from the threatened intrusion of popery and despotism, and to combine her northern provinces in new freedom and lasting union, and self-sufficient strength, were to originate

in a British army ; and through those provinces, which, by shaking off the Spanish yoke, first realized the rights of conscience and the liberty of the press, were to carry successfully the still purer present of representative government to all the vassals of feudal privilege. Shall our commerce be assessed on the Texel, the patrimony of our kings be pillaged on the Weser, our resident be arrested on the Elbe, and we devise no means for their protection ? The means consist in the disinterested practice of virtue and philanthropy ; in employing our treasures, our forces and our wisdom to bestow on these provinces the union they want, the independence they deserve, and the freedom they covet. But those politicasters who to Spain are not just, will to Germany not be generous : they cannot believe in the prudence of acting right and doing good ; they dare not aspire to the gratitude of nations ; they hold him the dupe and not the triumpher who is useful only to others.

In all the sections of Mr. Mayo's main narration, one misses that philosophic spirit which contemplates every event with a view to its influence on human kind, which aggrandizes incident in proportion to its bearing on society at large, and estimates action by its probable utility to the whole. Civil and literary occurrences, the inventions of industry, the discoveries of science, the monuments of art, the exertions of intellect, happen unrecorded ; or are shortly noticed, as subordinate objects, in supplemental fragments. The area is too much cleared of necessary food and splendid luxuries, of its book-stalls and print-shops, of buyers and sellers, of merchants and travellers, of well-drest loungers and peripatetic philosophers ; in their place are exhibited the formalities of military parade, the evolutions of the armed, the loud noise of their flashy weapons, the howl of pain, and the bleeding carcases of slaughtered rioters. It cannot be expedient for society, that historians should always be detaining our attention on that section of the human race, which passes its time in playing at soldiers. Notoriety and celebrity come at last to be mistaken for reputation and glory ; and men believe themselves admissible into the elysium, and not the tartarus, of fame, who are only known to the world by their injuries. Of all the benefactors to their species, the efforts should be brought

out with predilection. It may be contended this is the province of those who write histories of inventions, of science, of literature, of architecture, or the arts; but there are also peculiar historians of military affairs, whose province it is to treat of the exploits of armies and navies, with a view to the improvement of the art of war; those who undertake general history are not to usurp more on the province of the latter than of the former class of special historians. Yet they habitually do; and with mischievous result: *hinc ille clades*. Men are slain, because historians convoke around the arena of warfare the greatest crowd of spectators. Are those the only games of glory, in which boys and barbarians are most fitted to excel? We are for inverting the plan of Mr. Mayo, for composing the history of human culture and social improvement, and for throwing by, into supplementary chapters, the scuffles and skirmishes of troops and ships. The useful appendix of miscellanies much atones here for the omission of such topics in the text. The interruptions of the progress of a community in amelioration should not, however, be treated by the historiographer as interfering with his end and purpose.

To apply a detailed criticism to all the parts of this complex composition, would overstep the bounds of our convenience, and employ more time than would be welcome to the reader. We will notice therefore only a few defects in the account of Poland. Our author's relation of the revolution there (vol. iii. p. 243) is couched in these words:

"When the diet had framed that system of government which was the result of their labours for the national good, a system which every disinterested person must acknowledge to be marked with judgment and patriotism, the leading members of it, actuated by the confidence which the justness of their cause and the greatness of their object gave them, assembled in the royal chamber, on the third day of May, and solemnly engaged, in the presence of their sovereign, never to separate till the intended revolution should be accomplished.

"His majesty then opened the assembly of the diet; and, as a preparation to their deliberations and an incentive to perseverance, be apprised them of the machinations against their welfare, carrying on among those powers who had before violently despoiled them of their provinces, and of their intention to oppose the constitution which awaited their approbation, and on which they built their

hopes of prosperity. Some debates ensued; in which the representatives of the provinces of Vollhinia and Podolia declared against the new system. After long discussion, when it appeared that there was a majority of ten to one in favour of the plan submitted to the diet, the king called the bishop of Cracow, and took the oath at his hands. A great majority of the assembly followed his example. They then repaired to the cathedral, and there again solemnly engaged, before God and their country, to maintain a constitution which, combining liberty with subordination, and subjecting equally citizens of all ranks to the law, secured to all of them the means of happiness, and gave them the true enjoyment of their rights. After that, the *te deum* was sung, and the new constitution was announced to the people by the discharge of 200 pieces of artillery. A small number of deputies protested against these proceedings. But this did not prevent the ratification of them two days after.

"The most important articles of this constitution were these. That the Roman catholic faith shall be the dominant national religion; but that persons of all other religions shall have the freedom, liberty, and the protection of government. The nobles were secured in the pre-eminence and prerogatives granted to their order by Casimir the First. The royal free towns within the dominions of the republic were declared to be a part of the present constitution, and were secured in their immunities. A particular regard was paid by this constitution to the rights and privileges of peasants and husbandmen, for the encouragement of population and the advancement of agricultural improvements. All power was declared to be derived from the will of the people; whereof the legislative branch was declared to be vested in the states; the executive in the king and the council of inspection; the judicial in jurisdictions existing, or to be established. The diet, or legislative power, was to be divided into two houses; viz. the house of nuncios, or deputies, and the house of senators, where the king is to preside, consisting of bishops, palatines, castellans, and ministers. All bills were to be decided first in the house of deputies. The ordinary diets were to be elected every two years: and an extraordinary constitutional diet was to be held, for the purpose of revision, once in twenty-five years. The crown was declared to be hereditary; and the right of succession to be in Frederic Augustus, elector of Saxony, and his male descendants. The king was to have the command of the national forces, but not the power of declaring war. He was to have the nomination of bishops, senators, ministers, as members of the executive power, and was also to patentee officers in the army. The council of inspection were made responsible for their conduct with their persons and fortunes. By this excellent constitution, appointments in the army, the law, the church

and the civil government would have been attainable to the nation at large; and all men of merit would have been eligible to them."

In the first place the diet did not frame the constitution in question. It was contrived by certain leaders in concert with the king, and presented ready cut and dry to the diet on the celebrated sitting on the 3d of May 1791. Prince Czetwertinski complained in his place, that these sheets of paper called a constitution, which the diet was invited to decree instantly, then met his eye for the first time; it abolished, he observed, elective monarchy, to bestow unlimited power on future hereditary kings. "To me," he added, "it appears the grave of freedom, I will not dip a spade in it: may God annihilate me and my three children, if any personal interest motives my declaration against this act; but I call on the assembled nation to bear witness that I deplore it, that I oppose it, that I enter against it my protest." Prince Sapieha also complained of the headlong inconsiderate manner in which this fundamental change was brought forwards. He wished for unanimity, not for that unanimity which the shouts and cries of a surrounding populace were demanding with threats; but for the unanimity which might result from patient discussion and reciprocal concession. Without unanimity there was little chance of preserving the integrity of the country: he would support, he said, whatever was decreed, but he thought it his duty to move a second reading. The minority was not counted: the new constitution passed by acclamation: the senators marched in procession without further deliberation to the cathedral, and there swore, after the king's example, to this royal edict. When it came to Sapieha's turn to swear, he declared aloud that the constitution was a paper wholly new to him, that he approved the election of the elector of Saxony as the intended king of Poland, that he disapproved the introduction of hereditary monarchy; but that he feared division more than error: as the one was a danger of to-day, and the other would be corrigible to-morrow. He then swore.

And what is the substance of this constitution so bepraised by Mr. Mayo? The first * article declares that the Roman catholic religion shall conti-

nue the domineering one; and that conversion to any other faith shall be subject to the punishments enacted against apostasy.

It expressly withholds therefore the political equality of religious sects: although a principal cause of the Polish divisions had been the habitual oppression of the unitarian dissidents.

The second article declares that the noble order shall retain all its privileges, precedence in private life and preference for civil office: but it withdraws the distinction between the equestrian and patrician order. It exempts noble property from taxation, abolishing the crown-regalia and other forms of levy hitherto usual.

The third article recognizes certain royal boroughs as parts of the constitution.

The fourth article confirms the vassalage of the peasantry; but it abolishes a right of resumption formerly exercised by the heir, to the prejudice of those who had purchased their emancipation of his predecessor.

It expressly withholds therefore the community of civil rights. The nobility obtained *liberty* to go untaxed, and *equality* of rank; but neither liberty nor equality were conferred in any sense on the people. The fifth and sixth articles vest the legislative power in a diet of two bodies; the executive power in the king and council (*Stras*, watch, is their Polish designation); and the judicial power in the extant magistracy. The lower house, or house of deputies, is first to discuss and vote on all public measures. The upper house, or house of senators, is to consist of the bishops, the waywodes, the castellans, and the ministers, provided by the king, who has the casting vote. The suffrage conferred on the ten ministers nominated by the crown was a constitutional innovation, and sufficed with the ecclesiastical and civil patronage to center upon the crown an habitual, irresistible majority in the upper house. To this upper house was given a right of sending back to the commons for rediscussion any unwelcome law; and of quashing that law entirely, if still disapproved, when proposed to them a second time. So that the representative body was in fact now first rendered impotent. The lower house was

to be renewed biennially, and the *liberum veto* abolished. Thus the commons lost even their own negative against the senate.

The seventh article makes the crown hereditary in a new dynasty, the electoral family of Saxony. Heirs male were to succeed in their own right: in defect of heirs male the husband of the daughter: but the consent of the Polish diet to her marriage was rendered necessary. Frederic Augustus of Saxony had only an unmarried daughter; so that the elective character of the crown, although inveighed against in words, was in fact preserved.

And shall the perfidy of history hold up such changes as meritorious, where nothing was done to remedy one acknowledged grievance, where new grievances were created, and a house of commons reduced to the insignificance of Parisian tribunes, and the nobility bribed with privileges to extend the royal influence? Indeed it was not worth the while of the citizens of Poland to attempt the defence of their country against partition, for so paltry a sheet of gallic verbiage from the royal secretary.

The magic words liberty and equality were however in the deed: the newspapers, filled with French discussions, had associated ideas of donative with the expressions, and this aristocratic parody of the Parisian revolution, passed, with the inattentive and ignorant, for an analogous change. The new constitution of Poland was probably encouraged by the nobles of the Prussian party with the expectation of getting the house of Brandenburg nominated as the new hereditary dynasty: this would have founded a dormant claim to more of Poland than the partition of Poland was to bestow, and might at a remote futurity be of value. The new constitution of Poland was probably encouraged by the king with the intention of marrying the heiress of Frederic Augustus. Hope of resistance by force for any length of time could hardly be entertained; but there was a hope that the united efforts of France and England would be used to qualify the partition; and to leave a corner of Poland independent, lest one more fugitive king should have to pass his carnivals at Venice. The lover too relied on the recollections of Catharine to allow him a marriage portion worthy of Saxony: but the massacre of the Russians in

Warsaw, with the connivance of the noble revolutionists, could never be pardoned by the patriotism of the empress.

The demagogic words and public swearings of the king and the nobility were accompanied with little or no practical effort to preserve the independence of the country, otherwise than by negotiation and territorial sacrifice. According to * Sirisa, who, though partial to the partitioners, is a thoroughly informed historian, the perpetual fermentation of the public mind, and the discontent of a large portion of the inhabitants first broke loose on the 3d of February 1794 at the assembly of deputies, who disbanded suddenly a large portion of the army. One brigade of fourteen hundred men at Pultusk opposed the reduction in arms: they refused to enlist in the Prussian or Russian corps, and demanded a continuance of pay and of subsistence. Madalinski, the brigadier of the national cavalry, followed this example; he collected his eighteen hundred men in the neighbourhood of Warsaw, strengthened them to 3000, and administered to them the oath of liberty and independence, or death. He then attacked a Russian regiment, made himself master of a chest of thirty thousand roubles, entered Southern Prussia, and levied contributions on the salt works, and thus founded a revolution-treasury of sixty thousand ducats. He now withdrew toward Cracow, and met Kosciusko, whom other fragments of the disbanded army had been induced to join. Kosciusko had less simplicity of object than Madalinski: he derived authority from the king and his constitution-mongers, and he drilled the soldiers to swear to the constitution. Madalinski's views might have called out leaders adequate to the difficulty; Kosciusko secured the ascendancy of a party of heartless courtiers.

The people daily doubted more and more the value of his success: they took but a declining interest in his cause; and supported his final defeat with much of the firmness of indifference.

The number of Kosciusko's adherents was estimated in Cracow at seven thousand men, beside whom he had concealed friends and adherents throughout the republic and in the retained army. He took all the military chests under his controul, ordered the plate of the churches to be delivered up, and con-

stituted a revolutionary tribunal of fourteen persons, who opened their career with the execution of the castellan Rymiszewski. He published a proclamation ordering every fifth chimney in the cities to furnish a conscript. The Russian general Igielstrom, in order to counteract these proceedings, ordered many of his troops from Warsaw, where he retained a garrison only of six thousand men. This gave great encouragement to the revolutionists. In the night of the 16th of April an uproar began in the metropolis. The people collected in the market-place. The alarm bells were rung: the drums beaten. "Down with the Russians" became the popular watchword. The king pointed out to general Igielstrom the expediency of a retreat, and the fittest road, but he made an attempt to fortify himself in the arsenal, which had already been broken open by the people, and was supplying them with weapons. The union of the people and of the Polish troops supplied a mass of thirty thousand furious individuals, who began a massacre of the Russians, analogous to the Sicilian vespers. General Igielstrom persevered in defensive hostility for thirty-six hours, during which an irregular slaughter of the Russians was continually going on: he withdrew on the 18th of April with twelve hundred men, and general Nowicki with two thousand: more than two thousand Russians had been slain: among the prisoners were three generals and 122 wounded men.

Secure of the metropolis, Kosciusko began an extensive plan of operations: he provided for the siege of Cracow, he organised at Wilna and at Grodno attacks on the Russian garrisons, and his military or revolutionary tribunal executed on the 9th of May at Warsaw a bishop, two generals and a marshal.

The interference of Prussia, and the approach of Suwarrow soon narrowed the circle of his influence and his hopes. On the 10th of October was fought, with admirable bravery on both sides, the decisive battle, in which Kosciusko was repeatedly wounded, and at length struck down by a sabre, exclaiming *finis Poloniae*. The words were but too prophetic. The courage rather than the humanity of his proceedings; the principles which animated his adherents, rather than the specific objects of their leaders; give a sacredness to his cause. He was the

chieftain of men who chose to live free or die.

To the teachers of opinions it may be a mortifying reflection, but it is surely a true one, that moral principles, and speculative notions, act but little on the practical warrior. To the sudden disbanding of the Polish army, arising from the financial penury of the state, was due the creation of this army of independence. The revolutionary principles were as well a pretext, as a cause of combination. Much of this spirited resistance to the partitioning powers resolves itself into Cæsar's declaration: "With these soldiers we shall get money: and with that money, more soldiers."

A narration of the attack on Copenhagen, which has eventually been so injurious to British popularity in the north of Europe, will give a sufficient idea of our author's ever gentle tone of criticism.

"The court of London well knew that, should an ambassador be sent, unattended by an armed force, the confederate powers must eventually be gratified. Therefore, at the same time that Mr. Vansittart was dispatched with a flag of truce to join Mr. Drummond, the British minister at Copenhagen, in negotiations with the Danish court and its allies, admiral Hyde Parker, with vice-admiral Nelson and rear-admiral Graves, were sent with a fleet of eighteen sail of the line, four frigates, and thirty gun-boats, to enforce them.

"The Danish navy, at this time, consisted of twenty-three ships of the line, the Swedish of eighteen, and the Russian of forty-seven; and the forts of Helsingburg and Cronenburg, which guard the Sound, were well garrisoned, and batteries had been erected in every point where the guns could reach the English ships.—Such was the naval force with which Great Britain had to contend in the Baltic, when Mr. Vansittart, on the twentieth of March, arrived at Elsinour, and presented the *ultimatum* of his court to the Danish government, requiring, "that Denmark should secede from the northern alliance; that a free passage should be granted to the English fleet through the Sound; and that the Danish ships should no longer sail with convoy." These requisitions not being complied with, the British ministers took their departure from Copenhagen.

"The English admiral arriving in the Sound, seven days after the plenipotentiary, demanded of the governor of Cronenburg the determination of the Danish court respecting the matter in dispute; and whether he had orders to fire on the English fleet.—The governor's answer implied, that he was unacquainted with political transactions; but

that he was not at liberty to suffer a fleet, whose destination was not known, to approach the fort which he commanded. After dispatching a second letter, importing, that he considered the governor's answer as a declaration of war, the English admiral entered the Sound; and, being fired on by the governor, he returned his salute by a slight bombardment. Then, passing on, he came to anchor near Hven island, between the Sound and Copenhagen.*

"On reconnoitring the enemy's force, it was seen that nearly the whole of the Danish navy was assembled at Copenhagen; that the men of war lying in the harbour and road were flanked by the batteries on the two Crown islands at its entrance, the largest of which mounted above fifty pieces of artillery; by the artillery of the fortress of Fredericksstadt, which, with the guns of four men of war, moored at the harbour's mouth, guarded the entrance of it; together with eleven floating batteries, carrying heavy artillery. Moreover, the city was defended by a garrison of 10,000 men.

"To attack a fortress thus prepared for defence, was an act of the most daring boldness: the influence which success would have on the issue of the enterprise, alone could justify it. But it was such in which Nelson loved to display his valour, when his country's service demanded it. Being gratified with the honour of conducting the attack, he advanced, with twelve sail of the line, and a number of small vessels, to Drago Point, where he was to make his final disposition; whilst the remainder of the fleet were to co-operate, by bombarding the batteries at the entrance of the harbour.

"The awful moment of preparation being passed, Nelson came to the attack†, captain Murray, in the *Edgar*, leading the van. A furious battle ensued, in the course of which the English admiral and his brave crews exhibited prodigies of valour. The Danes, on the other hand, shewed themselves worthy rivals, as well as antagonists, of the British seamen; and the prince of Denmark animated his forces to exertion, by the composure and spirit which he displayed in this hour of danger. When the battle had raged with prodigious slaughter above four hours, and seventeen Danish ships of the line were taken, sunk, or burned, their batteries were almost silenced, and the city was, apparently, in the hands of the British admiral. This was one of the favourable moments which displayed the character of Nelson in the most advantageous light: it evinced that, with the most undaunted courage, he possessed that discretion and presence of mind, which distinguished the accomplished commander from the knight errant. He reflected that three of his ships, the *Bellona*, the *Russel*, and the *Agamemnon*, were aground; that his other ships were in a very shattered con-

dition; and that the city was defended by a strong garrison. He therefore availed himself of the dismay impressed on his enemy by the havoc made among them, instantly to address a letter to the prince royal, before he should be apprised of the state of the British ships, "representing the expediency of his allowing a flag of truce to pass; and that, if this were refused, he should be under the necessity of destroying the floating batteries, which were now in his power, with the brave men who defended them."

"This letter, addressed "To the brothers of Englishmen—the Danes," had the desired effect. Nelson going on shore, in consequence of the honour shewn it, was greeted with hearty acclamations by the people, and was received with the utmost courtesy and respect by the prince.

"An armistice was then agreed to, that the prince and admiral might settle the terms of peace.—Some difficulties obstructed the adjustment, originating, it was supposed, in the demand, that Denmark should abandon the alliance of Russia. The negotiation was still on foot, when intelligence arrived of an event, which made a sudden and total change in the state of things in the north, and had a material influence on the councils of all the powers of Europe—that was the death of the emperor Paul, who was found dead in his bed on the twenty-second of March.

"His son, and successor, the emperor Alexander, who was free from the passions which had actuated his father, perceived the folly of that system of policy into which he had been hurried, when he had blindly suffered himself to become the dupe of France. Immediately declaring for that system of foreign policy which the empress Catherine had adopted in her latter years, he cancelled all his father's hostile acts towards Great Britain, and dispatched a minister to the court of London, to testify his friendship for his Britannic majesty. Both parties being disposed to amity, a convention was soon concluded,‡ by which, in order to prevent disputes in future, the right of search of merchant ships going under convoy was limited to the sole cases, in which the belligerent power may experience a real prejudice by the abuse of the neutral flag. It was also agreed, that the treaty of commerce, as settled in 1797, should be renewed; and that such arrangements should be made, respecting various matters between the two countries, as may answer their good understanding.

"Agreeably with an article in this convention, the kings of Sweden and Denmark were invited to become parties in it. The exploit of the British arms in the Baltic being rendered more effectual, by the reduction of the Danish and Swedish islands in the West Indies, these powers could have little

inclinations to continue a war which had commenced so inauspiciously; and especially as the negotiations with them were forwarded, by the presence of an English fleet of twenty-five sail of the line in the Baltic. The Danish government acceded to the convention in the month of October; and, in return for the prince of Denmark's liberal behaviour on this occasion, all expenses attending the embargo laid on the Danish ships were voluntarily born by the English government.—The Danish troops, at the same time, evacuating Hamburg, the navigation of the Elbe was restored: moreover, his Prussian majesty gave assurances that, after certain arrangements should be made for the quiet of Germany, his troops should be drawn from Bremen and Hanover.

“The king of Sweden acted with less spirit and ingenuousness on this occasion than the Danish prince. Contrary winds were pleaded as the reason why his fleet, then at Carlscroon, did not support his ally in the late engagement. The fact, however, was, that they did not join the Danes; and that these bore the brunt of a battle, in which almost their whole navy was sacrificed: and the Swedish monarch, although he had acted thus coldly in the war, discovered a disinclination to amity with Great Britain, by deferring his accession to the convention of Petersburg, till the thirtieth of March in the ensuing year, after the treaty was concluded between his Britannic majesty and the French government.”

To endeavour at preventing the repetition of such Quixotic displays of destroying power, ought surely to be held a moral obligation: there is no more mortal enemy to vice than censure.—What would not power dare, if blame did not resist?

The appendix gives a statistical view of the countries mentioned in the work, and a genealogical abstract of the reigning dynasties. The following is part of the account of Germany:

“The following particulars relative to the constitution and government of the German empire, may be deemed a proper introduction to its history:

“The German empire, says Zimmerman, may be considered as a combination of more than 300 sovereignties, independent of each other, but composing one *political* body, under an elective head, called the emperor of Germany, or Roman emperor. Eight princes of the empire, called electors, have the right of electing the emperor. By a fundamental law, called the *golden bull*, the number of electors was limited to seven. Since that, two new electors have been added; one of which became extinct by the death of the elector of Bavaria, in 1777. The ecclesiastical electors are, the archbishops of Mentz, Treves, and

Cologne: the temporal electors are, the electoral king of Bohemia, the elector of Bavaria and the Palatinate, the elector of Saxony, the elector of Brandenburg, and the elector of Brunswick Lunenburg, or Hanover.

“The chief prerogatives of the emperor, in his character as lord paramount of the Roman empire, of whom the princes are supposed to hold their domains in fee, are the power of assembling the diet, in which he presides, either in person, or by his commissary, and of ratifying its resolutions. He is the supreme judge, in whose name justice is administered in the high courts of the empire: he can, however, exempt the subordinate states from the jurisdiction of these tribunals, by granting them the privilege *de non appellando*. He is the fountain of honour: but the Germans have been justly tenacious of the rights which relate to property, and their most material interests. The emperor cannot levy taxes, nor make war; nor alter any law of the empire, without the consent of the diet, which may be considered as the supreme power of the empire.

“The ordinary revenues of the emperor, as such, are trifling;—not exceeding 20,000 florins. But, in time of war, or great emergencies, the diet grants him extraordinary aids, called *Roman months*, valued at 50,000 florins each.

“The diet is composed of the emperor, and the immediate states of the empire. This body exercises all the acts of sovereignty, as far as concern the interests of the whole confederate body; it levies taxes; it makes laws; it declares war, and makes peace; and concludes treaties, by which the whole empire is bound. The whole body is divided into three colleges, which deliberate separately, and decide by a majority of votes: viz. that of the electors; that of princes; and that of the imperial cities. Before any proposition can be passed into a law, it must have the approbation of the three colleges: it is then called a *resolution* of the empire. It must then be presented to the emperor for his confirmation; which, if attained, constitutes it an act or statute of the empire, and, with the previous sanctions, gives it the force of a law.

“There are two supreme courts of judicature, which have concurring jurisdictions in the Roman empire. 1. The *imperial chamber*, held at Wetslar, consisting of a judge and two presidents, nominated by the emperor, and twenty-seven assessors, or counsellors, nominated by the states. 2. The *aulic council*, depending entirely on the emperor, is established at Vienna, as his place of residence. It consists of a president and eighteen counsellors. “In all cases where the statute or fundamental laws of the empire are defective, these two courts adopt the regulations of the Roman law, which is in general introduced into the German courts of justice, except where it is limited or superseded by the particular statutes of each state. To both courts appeals may be

"made from the decisions of the courts of justice, or of the sovereigns of the German states. In criminal cases, in matters of religion, and in pecuniary lawsuits, in which the contested property does not exceed the sum of 400 rix-dollars, the decision of the territorial courts, or of the sovereign, is final. In these cases, however, the party who thinks himself aggrieved by a sentence, is allowed to submit the decision, given by the judges of his own country, to the examination of the juridical faculty of one or more impartial German universities, by which the decree may be confirmed or reversed. In the dominions of the electors, and other princes, who are exempted from appeals to the supreme courts of the empire, courts of appeal are established, in which the decrees of the courts of justice, especially in causes between the sovereign and the subject, may be revised, and, if exceptionable, may be set aside."

"The states of the empire, considered in their separate capacity, enjoy sovereign power in their respective dominions, limited only by the laws before-mentioned, and the jurisdiction of the imperial courts; from which, however, the chief among them are exempted. The constitution of different states is different. As to the exercise of power in them, the sovereigns are limited by the states of their respective dominions; who must give their consent to taxes and laws; and who may appeal to the high courts of the empire, in case of any difference between them and their sovereign. In extreme cases, the states of the principality or city may lay their complaints before the diet."

"SCIENCES AND LITERATURE.

"The Germans are endowed with talents, well adapted to the study of the sciences; and their attention to them has, in many instances, been eminently rewarded. In the age which succeeded the revival of learning in Europe, they were distinguished for their attainments in those abstract sciences, which were then so much cultivated, and in criticism and other branches of the belles lettres. If Italy has the merit of affording an asylum to the literati who were driven from Constantinople, on the conquest of the eastern empire by the Turks, Germany has that of producing the principal authors of the reformation, which opened the way to the dispersion of every kind of knowledge, by disengaging the minds of men from the trammels of superstition. In the seventeenth century, Leibnitz and Wolffius were the rivals of Locke, Newton, and Des Cartes; and, in the

present age, the Germans hold high rank of celebrity, as chemists and natural philosophers.

"LIBERAL ARTS.

"The Germans have attained a considerable degree of eminence in several of the fine arts likewise. Their painters, if we give them the honour of the Flemish school, are inferior to none but those of Italy. But music is the art in which they have most excelled in every age. If a genius for it does not so generally prevail here as in Italy, they have produced some composers, whose style is equally original, and equally sublime. Some of the earliest and finest compositions in psalmody are ascribed to Martin Luther; and Hasse, Handel, Graun, and the Bachs, will be admitted as worthy rivals of Corelli, Pergolesi, and the finest composers of the Italian school.

"They have not, in the judgment of many, succeeded so well in the sister art of poetry. In some of their most admired poems of the present day, there is much of wild imagination; but neither in these, nor in their dramatic productions, do the writers appear to have paid that attention to nature, which is the ground-work of excellence in every branch of the fine arts."

Here the list of electors does not correspond with the treaty of peace, to which the narrative extends. The notice of the literature is contemptuously omisive. In the branches of erudition, classical and theological, the German universities are ornamented by scholars of first rate eminence: it may be prudent, but it is not generous, for this country to decline a comparative enumeration. In epic and dramatic poetry, it would also be difficult to rival the living excellence of Germany.

This work contains information; but its parts are too much treated with a relation to our own affairs: it is rather the international history of Britain and the European powers, than a series of independent and complete annals of the world. What does not concern us, ought still to be the concern of the historian. The title is too pompous: it is not a universal history, but it is a book, convenient for reference, important for extent, interesting for its subject, courtly for estimate, and natural for style; and it aims rather at following, than at leading, the public opinion.

ART. XI. *The History of Athens.* By Sir WILLIAM YOUNG, Bart.. 8vo.

BETWEEN Athens and Rome, an instructive comparison has been drawn by Strabo, in his fifth book; in which he

celebrates the Greeks for their care of embellishment, and the Romans for their attention to utility. In Athens,

were admired the porticoes, the theatres, the public gardens; in Rome, the streets, the aqueducts, the sewers.

A no less interesting comparison of the manners of the people occurs in Lucian's *Nigrinus*. The Athenians despised luxury and magnificence; they valued leisure and intellect; they taught wealth and rank to envy philosophy and liberty. The Romans, on the contrary, valued men for their property; and property for the pompous gratifications it can purchase: he alone was thought to excel, whose palace, whose furniture, whose table, whose retinue, were so complete, as to render indifferent to his guests the personal, moral, or intellectual accomplishments of the master.

Considered in these points of view, Paris approaches nearer to Athens, and London to Rome; but with respect to their foreign policy, and external relations, the English more resemble the Athenians, and the French the Romans. Athens was a sea-port, which owed its wealth to commerce, and its influence to maritime ascendancy. Rome was an inland town, governed by landlords bred in the camp, and, in its policy, essentially military.

Montesquieu has commented the history of Rome in a manner, which has really impressed efficacious instruction on his countrymen. They have learned, in his book, to revert to the Roman system of warfare and negotiation; and are resuming the Roman ascendancy over the Mediterranean states of Europe, in consequence of attending to a philosopher.

Sir William Young aspires, no doubt, to comment Athenian history, as Montesquieu has done that of Rome; to extract the spirit of incident, and the moral of event, and distribute to the living world the lessons to be derived from its experience. There is, however, not that simplicity of march, and unity of character, in Athenian policy, which distinguished the Roman: the instruction to be collected from observing it, is less obvious, less precise, less applicable, less modernizable. Greek history is a study, rather adapted to form great individuals, by piquing their emulation, than great empires, by chalking out for statesmen hereditary plans of policy. Commentators of equal talents would not distil from Thucydides rules of statesmanship so valuable as from Livy. Macchiavelli is profounder than Aris-

totle, exactly because he had the additional instruction of the Roman annals.

Lord Bacon, after praising the study of history, observes that, next to this, the greatest helps for the furnishing of civil prudence, are the letters of able personages touching the affairs of state; for they are more natural than orations, and more advised than extemporary conference. Surely these treatises on the philosophy of history, such as Montesquieu attached to the Roman, and Mably to the French annals; such as Sir William Young has connected with the Athenian, and professor Millar with the British history, deserve a higher rank, as sources of instruction for the statesman, than the correspondence of Bacon, or Bolingbroke, shall we add, or of Cicero. The spectator of a play is a fitter critic, than the actor, who is always too much ingrossed by his own part, and his own scenes, and whose very green-room intelligence may serve to explain the success, but cannot affect the merit of the piece.

We feel therefore inclined to place among the most useful exertions of philosophy, these historical homilies, if they may so be called, on a given series of human incident. By collecting the more valuable remarks of the concerned, by supplying the inferences, which only an entire view of the eventual result could suggest, the wisdom of man is made to approach that of those immortal observers, whom poets personify as the genii of nations, whose intellect watches the experience of successive generations, and inspires a saving counsel in every great crisis of national affairs.

The account of the origin of that revolt of the Grecian cities against the Persian sovereign, so analogous to the rebellion of the North American provinces against the British king, will aptly display both the speculative and narrative character of Sir William Young's composition.

“Civil liberty consists in personal security, rights, station, and property; not to be affected but by the act of the individual who possesses them: or, on the other hand, without infringement of some political institution, tending to a dissolution of the state which ascertains and ensures them. When a form of government circumscribes the latitude of concession to its subjects of equal rights and participation, civil liberty is confined; when its policy and laws are inadequate to regular administration, civil liberty

is insecure. The pretensions of a just and wise legislation are, so to measure out its proportions of privilege and security, and so to temper public force with individual happiness and ease, as to leave as little controul for the free-spirited, and as little licentiousness for the man of a quiet and homely turn, to make the subject of anxiety, as are compatible with each other, and as absolute necessity requires.

"Men of improved genius and capacity will yet sometimes push their idea of polity to a refinement, calculated to disgust them with any institution they may be born subject to: and men too, in the extremities of an hot and active, or of a peaceable and domestic spirit, will find where-withal to colour their situation with discontent; and deprecate the coercion or freedom of a political constitution, respectively as they are suited to enterprise or quiet,—to the forum of Rome, or farm at Tibur.

"Abuses in the administration of a government at all times warrant appeal to the letter, and to the spirit of the institution; and a contempt so flagrant, as disregard of the very grounds of such appeal, may form an extreme case, wherein resistance may be allowed; for it then applies not to the authority, but to the usurpation. Special circumstances too may be imagined, in which changes and alterations in a system of government may be necessary, and the attempt to make such changes be warrantable;—but then the necessity must be very obvious; and the sense of that necessity be very general. Partial dissatisfaction with the laws and regular government which a man is born subject to, can never be admitted in excuse for plots to overthrow that government, with all the hazards and dangers to the community attending revolutions in their progress, and with all the uncertainties of benefit to be expected in the result.

"But happiness, it will be said, is the great end of all political ordonnance or arrangement; that states may not be of the best institution; or that even those of the best may have deviated from their first principle: and that it is equally hard for a polished and wise man to be aggrieved by the errors of a savage ancestor; or to stand with his head under a ruin, because in a better state it had been a comfortable habitation to his forefathers. This reasoning will have weight in every country which permits not a free egress from its dominion: where such emigration is restricted (I speak generally, and allowing for exceptions), the canon is unjust, and agrees not with the great axiom "*lex est summa ratio*," for reason favours the contentment and good of *each*, when it interferes not with that of *any*.

"That a body of men may leave their native country, and that by so doing they withdraw themselves from the parent state, its protection, and its powers, I think questions so inseparable, that, had not a contrary

mode of reasoning been much and often enforced, I should suppose the argument too obvious to render a detail necessary. Assuredly, those who depart on a conditional expedition, as they are benefited, so are they obligated by the conditions thereof. But the voluntary exile, who seeks refuge in the storms of the ocean, and trusts his body to foreign climes and exotic diet; who foregoes the delights of habit, and sweets of long connexion; who flies from so many attachments to so much danger; flies not from dislike to his paternal glebe, or habitual society. It is from want, or it is from distresses which affect the mind more than want; or it is from supposed or real grievance of subjection that he escapes; and if the imperious sway is to pursue him to his retreat, with all its distreins on property, and controul of person, the permission to quit the shore is at best trivial and insulting.

"The colony embarking for a region of fixed and regulated society, of course must acquiesce in the previous compact; but landing on a yet unappropriated spot, have surely as just a right to adopt the system of association, which their prejudices or wisdom may suggest.

"This was the reasoning of old, and was supported by the demeanour of the ancient republics towards the various settlements formed in distant parts, by their disgusted or necessitous citizens: for necessity, either from over-population, or from other casualties incident to society, might often, and perhaps most frequently did, occasion many to seek other fortunes, and another country. Yet was not the ancient connexion wholly lost sight of:—the sentiment of affinity, similarity of language, of religion, and, in great degree, of political institutions, must even in such case lead nations to an intercourse, to support which commerce and alliance step in as coadjutors; and in all times of exigency and danger affecting the mother country or colony, a reciprocative plea for support and assistance exists on stronger, or at least on better grounds than those of mere sovereignty and subjection, grounds framed and cemented by the united feelings and interests of mankind.

"It was from such sources, and from such sense of national attachment, that originated the Persian wars.

"It hath been observed in a former chapter, that Athens had early become so populous, as to require the departure of many supernumerary citizens for other countries. Ionia was a name common to Attica; the emigrants first seized and gave that appellation to the district of Aigaleia, where having long stood the brunt of war for a settlement, they were at length routed and driven back to their native country, by the Æolæ and Achæi. After some years they again went forth, and settled on the coasts of Caria and its vicinities, where they built twelve cities, and established as many independent

commonwealths. The early history of these republics is lost, possibly with the sixth book of Diodorus, or probably was not particularized by any author we now possess, as the first mention thereof by Herodotus cursorily touches on the conquest of them by Cræsus, and their being by him annexed to the kingdom of Lydia. With Lydia they fell into the hands of the Persian: still, however, they were remindful of their origin, and the commonwealths of their parent Greece, newly liberated from their several dynasties, which at a favourable crisis might give birth to a revolution in this quarter of the Persian empire.

"Miltiades of Athens, who had thence newly led a colony to the Chersonese, judged that crisis to be arrived. Darius, with all the chiefs and best youth of Asia, were employed in the conquest of Scythia. To facilitate the expedition, with great labour and art a bridge had been effected over the Danube, and thither the army was now directing its retreat from the snows and famine of the north. The pass was guarded but by a small detachment, and Miltiades proposed to the chiefs of the Greek settlements to master the guard, and then, breaking down the bridge, to leave Darius and his troops to perish in the colds and dearth of Scythia, and thus destroying at once the tyrant and the instruments of his tyranny, at leisure to form such political establishments as were consonant to their ideas of justice, or claims to liberty.

"The aristocracies and petty tyrants of each province felt their private interests clash with this hardy proposal. Histæus of Miletus particularly remarking to his fellow despots, 'that his and their authority existed but in subordination to the Persian, and that nullifying the lieutenancy of his power, they gave up their own;' the scheme of Miltiades met with general disapprobation, and perceiving himself to be no longer of service to his own, or any other colony, he returned to a private situation in his native Athens.

"He had, however, awakened the spirit of the Asiatic Greeks, and left them ready to revolt, whenever the opinion of their leading men should cede to the voice of the people: and soon they did cede, from factious and selfish passions, what they denied to more generous and public views; and when the happy opportunity was past, engaged in a contest, as dishonourable from motive, as ruinous in consequence.

"Aristagoras the Milesian, counteracted in his views to the conquest of Naxos, by Artabatus the Persian general, and thus urged by resentment to disaffection, was the prime instigator of the rebellion; in conjunction with his kinsman Histæus, he assisted each city in the expulsion of their Persian governors, and joining the cry of liberty and independency, sheltered his private enmity and weakness in the public cause of all the Grecian settlements on the coasts of Asia. Aristagoras, even with these adherents, not

feeling himself equal to a contest with the great king, applied to Greece for assistance, as from colonies to a mother country. He first applied to Sparta; but his declamation was ill suited to the iron assembly of Lacedæmon: an appeal to philanthropy, and the sentimental claims of distant affinity, a tale of distress, and the consciousness of a noble kindness, and disinterested protection, were topics better suited to an audience that respected the softer passions of humanity. To Athens he next applied, and there was received with all honour and hospitality; succour was unanimously voted, and quickly an armament of twenty sail was ready to join the confederate forces of Ionia: this exertion was the more glorious on the part of Athens, as she was at that very period in expectation of a powerful attack on her own people and country."

Here and throughout, the narrative is too brief for a work professedly historical. The chapter, which most peculiarizes this edition, is the fourth of the second book; where an account is given of the usurpation of the thirty tyrants of Athens, whose confiscations and proscriptions so nearly resemble those of the cordeliers in France, while headed by Danton, Marat, and Robespierre. The whole volume is full of interesting reflections: in the first book, especially the 7th, 8th, 13th, and 16th chapters; in the second book, the 1st, 4th, 5th, and 6th. There are paradoxical passages, such as the defence of ostracism, the observation that after oratory became the ruling influence at Athens, the Athenians effected nothing great, and some others: but in general the commentaries are satisfactory and convincing. They approach, in liberality of spirit, in manner and in value, to Bolingbroke's Remarks on the History of England, more nearly than to any foreign model. Minds of the highest class have a distinctness of idea, a sharpness of contour about their thoughts, which gives to their expression a concise and definite precision. Bolingbroke, great as he is, wanted this entire serenity of intellect; there is a misty vague vacillating indefinite edge to his propositions, as of one who fears to abide by what he says: his sentences are diffuse, splendid, and sonorous; but loose, random, and equivocal. In a less obvious degree, sir William Young tends perhaps to the same imperfection in writing, and multiplies the members of his periods, so as often to qualify and soften down the significance of his assertions. But his comprehensive ac-

quaintance with Greek literature, and his select attention to the modern philosophic politicians, must bestow confidence on his narration, and consequence on his commentary, and secure to the History of Athens a lasting place among the British classics. From this work the mere English reader will learn more of

Athens than from any other of home growth. The man of taste will gladly be led by it to revisit the most celebrated arena of literature and fine art; the friend of liberty and virtue will find in it his sympathies continued, and his habits corroborated.

ART. XII. *The History of the Honourable Artillery Company of the City of London, from its earliest Annals to the Peace of 1802.* By ANTHONY HIGHMORE, Solicitor; Member of the South-East Division of the Company. 8vo. pp. 600.

THIS is a very copious, and from the authorities referred to at the bottom of the pages, we doubt not a very accurate account of the rise, progress, constitution, and proceedings of a company which has the honour of enrolling the names of peers and princes among its members, and the far greater honour of having distinguished itself on all political occasions, for its zeal in defence of the constitution of this kingdom. The work is dedicated to his royal highness the prince of Wales, who is captain-

general of the company; and in an address to the president, vice-president, &c. Mr. Highmore expresses his obligations to them, for having entrusted to his inspection the original documents of the company. Sanctioned by such patronage, we presume the work is to be depended on for strict accuracy. It is not an object for the exercise of literary criticism: Mr. Highmore is well known and respected as the author of several loyal tracts.

ART. XIII. *The History of the Revolutions of Russia.* By HENRY CARD, of Pembroke College, Oxford. 2d edition. 8vo. pp. 700.

IN our second volume, at page 280, occurs an account of the first edition of this florid work, which now appears in a somewhat abridged or condensed form, and is dedicated to lord Henry Petty. We still lament the inattention to Schloetzer's labours. We still protest against the too flattering estimate of Peter the First.

Thomas, the French academician, left among his papers an epic poem, relating the travels of the czar Peter. In the canto which lands him in England, the genius of the island, in the form of Liberty, meets him on the shore, and thus compliments him.

"Monarque et tout-puissant tu hais la tyrannie.

Je vois le despotisme en tes heureuses mains,
Étonné de servir au bonheur des humains :
Soi-même se bornant par d'utiles entraves,
À la dignité d'homme appeller tes esclaves."

ART. XIV. *A Refutation of the Libel on the Memory of the late King of France, published by Helen Maria Williams.* By A. F. BERTRAND DE MOLEVILLE. Translated from the original Manuscript, by R. C. DALLAS, Esq. 8vo. pp. 102.

IN our first volume (page 300) we noticed Mr. Bertrand de Moleville's Annals of the French Revolution; and in our second volume (page 275) the

translation, by Miss Williams, of the Political and Confidential Correspondence of Louis XVI. As this correspondence affects the precision of some

in the *Annals*, M. de Moleville is too good to fit to attack Miss Williams' publication. There must have been some refinement, less real gallantry, at the old court of France, than in England, since a gentleman, like so exalted, is found capable of condescending to such scurrilous and peevish scolding at a woman, who has herself shewn no want of urbanity. He was probably galled by the narrative of *Méchée de la Touche*, and vents on poor Miss Williams his anger at the *Alliance of the Jacobins*.

Miss Williams undertakes to edit both the political and the confidential letters of Louis XVI: those which his secretary drew up by order in a lofty academic style; and those which occasionally, but rarely, the king wrote in his unofficial individual personal capacity. Of the latter, or confidential class, M. de Moleville allows seven to be genuine, viz. vol. I. p. 1, 22, 125, 127, 134; and vol. III. p. 82, 90. Of the former, or political class, he adduces reasons for believing seven to be forgeries: vol. I. p. 246; vol. II. p. 229, 241, 276, 316, 330,

and 337; and he speaks of the whole sixty-four as fabricated. We suppose, however, that by *fabricated* he only means *composed by a secretary*; for of the letter dated, in Miss Williams' collection, December 3, 1791, and corroborated by the testimony of the Baron de Breteuil, M. de Moleville disputes only the date, and thinks it was written in the year 1790.

We do not give much importance to the points at issue. Miss Williams charges Louis XVI. with insincerity. Who can suppose him a very cheerful actor in many of the scenes, which his ministers, at first, and his people, at last, required him to perform? The letters, if all were genuine, would prove no more than an internal reluctance to favour the progress of the revolution, and a disposition to become the instrument of a party able to reverse it. And surely if none of the letters be genuine, there is still ground sufficient for attributing to Louis XVI. both a wish and a negotiation, for availing himself of foreign assistance in coercing the factious among his subjects.

ART. XV. *Ancient and Modern Malta: containing a Description of the Ports and Cities of the Islands of Malta and Goza; together with the Monuments of Antiquity still remaining, the different Governments to which they have been subjected, their Trade and Finances. As also the History of the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, from their first Establishment in Malta, till the Beginning of the 19th Century. With a particular Account of the Events which preceded and attended its Capture by the French, and Conquest by the English.* By LOUIS DE BOISGELIN, *Knight of Malta.* 3 vols. 8vo. pp. 900.

THE work before us is divided into two parts; the first includes a geographical description of the island, together with a brief account of the different monuments of the arts still remaining in it; and of the government, administration, natural history, trade, and finances. The second contains the history of the knights of Malta, from the time of their departure from Rhodes to the beginning of the nineteenth century. This arrangement is bad: the government, administration, trade, and finances, ought to have been brought into the second part, being clearly connected with the history of the knights.

Malta, and the neighbouring island Goza, which always shared its fortunes, in its early history was the prey of various powers: Phœnicians, Greeks, Carthaginians, Romans, Vandals, Goths, Arabs, Normans, Germans, French, and Spaniards, were successively masters of this island, which to this day contains

some monuments of their respective sovereignty. The emperor Charles V. was aware of the importance of possessing these islands, and in order to secure them in perpetuity, and avoid the expence of maintaining the necessary garrison, he determined to place them in the hands of some power which would be interested in preserving them. He made choice of the order of St. John of Jerusalem, which, owing to the disgraceful and treacherous supineness of the princes of Christendom, had submitted to the arms of Solymán II. and been driven from Rhodes, after sustaining a siege so tremendous, that history in its long and bloody annals can furnish but few parallels. In the year 1530, the knights were established by Charles V. as perpetual sovereigns of the islands of Malta and Goza, and retained that sovereignty till their sudden and unlooked-for surrender of it to Bonaparte.

The soil of Malta is seldom more than

a foot above the surface of the rock; it is irrigated chiefly by the night dew; but the rock being porous retains the moisture. "The earth is always removed once in ten years, in order to clear the rock of a thick crust which forms, and prevents the moisture from sufficiently penetrating." The Maltese are a most industrious people; in the barren parts of the island they make a sort of artificial land.

"They begin by levelling the rock, which, however, they allow to incline a little, that all superabundant water may run off. They then heap together some stones, broken into small pieces of an irregular form, which they place about a foot high, and cover with a bed of the same stones nearly reduced to powder. On this, they first place a bed of earth, brought either from other parts of the island, or taken out of the cliffs of the rocks; then a bed of dung; and afterwards a second bed of earth: such, indeed, is the perseverance of the proprietors of this ground, that it becomes in time equally fertile with natural land."

The soil of Malta, however, (what little there is) is exceedingly prolific: M. Boisgelin asserts that the island of Sicily is by no means equally fertile: the cotton-tree is very assiduously and successfully cultivated; fruits of various sorts come to great perfection, melons, oranges, lemons, and particularly figs: the Maltese honey is far celebrated for its delicious flavour.

The climate is generally salubrious; the thermometer, nevertheless, takes a considerable range; Reaumur's, in the summer, is generally below 25 degrees, and scarcely ever above 28;* in the winter it is seldom lower than 8 degrees below Zero.† During the sirocco, iced beverages are largely used; snow, therefore, is considered at Malta as one of the first necessities of life. It is brought from Sicily, and administered to the sick; and whenever there is a scarcity, all that remains in the ice-house is entirely reserved for the use of the hospitals. Cold bathing is also successfully used as a preservative against the ill effects of the sirocco.

The principal trade of the island consists in cotton, which, both in a raw and manufactured state, is chiefly sent into Spain: the annual produce, upon an average of ten years, of cotton in Malta and Goza, exceeded 3,000,000

French livres, or 125,000l. sterling. The other articles of commerce are insignificant, fruits, preserves, seeds, &c. the Maltese stone is largely exported to Sicily and the Levant. The Maltese are obliged, on the other hand, to import corn, wood, wine, oil, brandy, &c.

The three islands, Malta, Goza, and Cumin, are composed of a calcareous rock, which suffers considerable corrosion when exposed to the air, and still more when exposed to the action of sea-water. Over the whole circumference, evident marks of corrosion appear.—After reading the following statement, one is almost surprised that the islands are in existence:

"The soft kind of stone in Malta and Goza is always more or less inclined to waste and dissolve when exposed to the air; it also undergoes a kind of saline efflorescence, which reduces it to powder, and this effect is hastened by different accidents, and particular situations. The stones exposed to the air towards the south, are much sooner dissolved than in any other aspect; but nothing wastes them in so short a time as the sea-water, one single drop of which suffices to rot them presently; and though only one stone should be touched, it frequently communicates itself to the next, and by this means speedily destroys, not only a whole rock, but a whole building, if a stone thus affected should happen to be employed in its construction. A sort of saline crust, composed of nitre, with alkali at bottom and sea-salt, is formed over the stone, part of which is no sooner crumbled to powder, than the crust drops off, and others continue forming, till the whole of the stone is entirely destroyed."

The island of Malta contains two principal cities; the *Old* or *Notable* City (Civita Vecchia), the capital of the island when the knights took possession of it, and still the seat of the bishopric; and *La Valetta*, which was built by that illustrious defender of his adopted country from whom it took its name.

We have no room to describe at large the edifices, fortifications, &c. of these cities, which indeed are already familiar to us, if repeated descriptions can render them so. The catacombs in the old city are, many of them, walled up, lest too curious travellers should lose themselves in their endless ramifications.

The general appearance of the new city is light and elegant; the pavement is new and good; each house has its pri-

* From about 88 to 95 of Fahrenheit.—Rev. † 14 of Fahrenheit.—Rev.

vate cistern; there are public conduits for the conveyance of fountain water,* and subterranean channels carry off all impurities. The church of St. John is a vast and magnificent building, enriched and ornamented by the rival vanity of succeeding grand masters; its pavement is composed of sepulchral stones of inlaid marble of different colours; some are encrusted with jasper, agate, and other precious stones. The paintings which adorn this church are chiefly by Matthias Preti; there is also a finished picture in the oratory by Michael Angelo. The ceremonies observed here were always performed with great pomp and decorum. The anniversary of the raising the siege of Malta, on the 8th of September, was a festival proudly celebrated with pre-eminent solemnity and splendour. The French plundered the treasury of this church of all its valuable antiquities and specimens of fine workmanship, and suffered nothing to remain which could be converted into ingots! The hotels, or *inns* of the different *languages*, are handsome edifices: the defence of a particular post was assigned to each language in case of attack. The palace of the grand master, situated in the principal square, is an immense mass of building, and the gallery contained a great number of pictures by the first masters. The castle St. Angelo, and fort St. Elmo, are of rival celebrity.

The island of Goza is separated from Malta by a channel about five miles broad. The grapes here are particularly fine, and corn and cotton are cultivated with great success. There are but few interesting objects in Goza; the ruins of the Giant's Tower are of high antiquity; from its rudeness and irregularity it was obviously not erected by the Greeks. Mr. Boisgelin is of opinion that it was constructed by the Phœnicians; this, however, appears to be a random conjecture. Goza is celebrated for an alabaster quarry, and for its *mushroom-rock*; in the year 1744 this rock was made inaccessible, and the grand masters had the sole privilege of gathering a fungus, which grows on it abundantly, and is

famed for its medicinal virtues, the *fungus melitensis* (cynomorium coccineum).

"The countenances of the Maltese announce an African origin. They are short, strong, plump, with curled hair, flat noses, turned-up lips, and the colour of their skin is the same as that of the inhabitants of the states of Barbary." They are very industrious, *faithful*, economical, courageous, and the best sailors in the Mediterranean. In the next sentence, however, our author says that "they have sometimes recalled the idea of the *Punica fides*!" They are also represented as mercenary, passionate, jealous, vindictive, and addicted to thieving.

"The Maltese habit (excepting that of the ecclesiastics, lawyers, and trades-people, who dress in the French style, and are few compared to the people at large), consists of a large cotton shirt, and a waistcoat likewise very large, with silver, and sometimes gold buttons; to these are added a *catan* and cloak, reaching rather below the small of the back; and a very long girdle twisted several times round the waist, in which they constantly carry a knife in a sheath: they also wear long and full trowsers, with a sort of shoe called *korch*; but they do not often make use of the latter, having almost always both legs and feet entirely naked. This *korch* is merely a leathern sole, with strings to fasten it round the leg. They never wear hats, but blue, red, white, or striped caps. People of easy fortune usually carry fans in their hands, and wear blue or green glass spectacles; for such is the excessive heat occasioned by the reverberation of the rays of the sun from the stones, and the white tufa, that, notwithstanding this precaution, there are many blind people: indeed, the greatest number have very weak eyes."†

The subjection of Malta to so many different nations will account for the polyglot tongue which is spoken there, and there only, for the language is confined to the island. It is a mixture of Greek and Arabic, with a dash of Phœnician. Those who unite the Maltese *patois* are obliged, from the want of a fixed alphabet, to use foreign characters, and of course every one spells as he pleases, endeavouring to express, as

* The principal fountain which supplies La Valetta, takes its rise in the southern part of the island, the aqueduct, from its commencement to the square before the grand-master's palace, is 7478 canes in length. A cane is 6 feet. It was built at a vast expence by the grand master Aloof de Vignacourt, and repaired by the grand master Rohan.

† Within a few pages afterwards it is remarked of the Maltese, that "they have a very long sight, and perceive falcons and others of the feathered race at a wonderful height in the air!"

nearly as possible, the exact pronunciation of the word he employs.

Malta produces a very insufficient quantity of corn for the subsistence of its inhabitants. The population of the island is nevertheless "augmented to a degree scarcely ever before known in history, which circumstance," says M. Boisgelin, who feels a deep interest in the honour of his order, "is a stronger proof of the goodness of the government, than any argument ever advanced to the contrary." If intensity of population proves the excellence of a government, that of Malta must have been by far the best in Europe, and the subjects of the emperor of China must indisputably be the happiest in the world!

"Where is the country, may I venture to ask, which can boast of such an increase, and such a continual state of prosperity? But the Maltese, who are naturally sober, require but little nourishment; besides, they were so perfectly contented with the mildness of a government which never taxed either the labour of their hands, or any other effort of industry, that they became too much attached to their country ever to leave it, well knowing that, in almost every other, both farmer and artificer were equally subject to burthensome taxes."

The riches and generosity of the order are a frequent topic of eulogy with the writer of this history. The island does not produce grain for more than one-third of its population: Sicily and other places supply the deficiency; large storehouses,* not only in Malta, but at Augusta, Palermo, Girgenti, and Marseilles, prevent a scarcity; and this factitious abundance is attributed to the wisdom, the humanity, and generosity of the order.

The moment the Maltese were acquainted with the preliminaries of peace between Great Britain and France, and found that their island was again to be delivered up to the order of St. John, an extraordinary congress was held at Malta and Goza, consisting of the chiefs of

battalions and representatives of each town or burg. A high-spirited and affecting representation and remonstrance was drawn up, and dispatched by the deputies below-mentioned† to lord Hobart, expressing the most rooted antipathy against the order, and the unanimous determination of the Maltese to perish rather than submit again to their odious authority.

Justice listens to both sides; and M. Boisgelin will excuse us, if in employing the language of the remonstrants we are obliged to transcribe some very harsh expressions. The opulence of the order was considerable, and their means of doing good or evil was of course commensurate. But how was this wealth acquired? Let the remonstrants speak: "As to the landed property which it has acquired in Malta, it is contrary to the stipulations, and has been obtained by an usurpation of the property of individuals; and a great part of the fortresses themselves, and the public edifices, were built by taxes imposed upon the Maltese. The university, the Monte di Pietà, and other institutions, belong solely to the Maltese, are the property of individuals, and never did belong to the order. Whatever pretensions the knights of the order of St. John might have to the island,‡ they have forfeited them by an act much more conclusive than that of conquest, by the most unworthy treason to their own body, violating the sacred laws of religion, honour, and the statutes of the order which they solemnly swore at the altar to maintain with the last drop of their blood: by this act, according to their own laws, they cease to be members of the order, are degraded with infamy, and the sound part of them, (if such there were amongst them,) were obligated to put them to death."

It was a favourite plan of the French government to create a Maltese language, and associate it with the order: the support which the success of this scheme would have given to their de-

* Grain was preserved in large pits hollowed in the rock, with beds of wood and straw placed at the bottom, on which it was spread; when these were entirely filled, they were enclosed by a large stone which was plastered over with puzzolana: the corn thus kept from the air might be preserved perfectly good a hundred years. One of these pits was discovered filled with corn, which had been forgotten for a great length of time, and the grain near the surface had alone suffered from the damp, the rest being in excellent preservation.

† The remonstrance is signed by the following names: Testaferrata, Abbe Riccaud, Abbe Malia, Castagna, Malia, Cachia. *Deputies of the towns, villages, &c. of Malta and Goza.*

‡ It was ceded to them by the emperor Charles V. in quality of fief, and as a deposit for arms, and the maintenance of troops, in order to make perpetual war against the infidels.

clining influence in the island, was too palpable to be mistaken. To have made the Maltese at once sovereigns and subjects would have been an obvious absurdity. A Maltese grand-master would probably have soon delivered his fellow-islanders from the yoke of the order. Although, therefore, the descendants of some noble Maltese families, who retired to Sicily when the knights took possession of their island, were afterwards allowed to become *knights of justice*; and although those Maltese who were possessed of noble fiefs in the island, with royal investiture, and who continued to reside in Malta, might also—but not without the approbation of the grand-master—become members of the order, by sending their wives to Sicily to lie in; these knights were nevertheless excluded from the possibility of being raised to the dignity of sovereign. Whatever may be said to the contrary, this pointed exclusion evinces a strong, although perhaps a salutary jealousy on the part of the order against the islanders.

To some important posts, however, such as the bishop's see, and the grand priory of the church of St. John, they were eligible.

M. Boisgelin, who feels a very honourable pride in vindicating the order of which he is a member from every charge of oppression and partiality, and in extolling its valour, its generosity, its humanity, and wisdom, assures us that it was always particularly attentive to the interests of the community at large: he assures us that great attention was also paid to private individuals, and every possible means employed to make their situation more comfortable. Some of the Maltese, "*who had been particularly serviceable to the order,*" and who merited the attachment of their fellow-citizens, were ennobled by the grand-master, and thus became capable of enjoying the same privileges as the most ancient noble families of the country.

We shall offer no remarks upon this statement: our readers will make their own on perusing the following passage extracted from the remonstrance of the deputies: "We conceive it totally superfluous," say they, "to enter into a detail of the indignities which the Maltese have received at the hands of the order of St. John; how they were held in base subjection, treated as beings of an inferior class, every noble excluded from all pretensions to honour and distinction, every

man of merit or talent deprived of every honourable situation; how our families were dishonoured or ruined, whenever the caprice of a knight fixed upon his victim. What those men were, and what must have been the situation of their government, may be conceived by this single fact—every one of them had betrayed his own order."

It certainly will not be said that the Maltese, or their deputies, are partizans of the French, when one strong ground of remonstrance against the reinstatement of the knights, was the probability, the assurance, that the island would, in consequence of such reinstatement, be ceded to the French. "Malta," say they, "again placed in the hands of the French, no power on earth will be able to expel them. There are no measures, however violent, that this artful nation, deterred by no principle of justice or humanity, will not take to obtain their object: such as driving the inhabitants out of their fortresses, disarming and putting to death all those whom they suppose enemies, and perhaps (*as they have already once proposed*) sending the whole population of Malta to France, or the coast of Barbary, and to re-people the island with French." This threat, with which the inhabitants were well acquainted, was one of the principal reasons that first induced them to take up arms; and many reasons have we for believing that it would have been carried into execution, if their affairs in Egypt had turned out prosperously."

The work which is now under our consideration was completed before the signing of the definitive treaty; the author appears to be as sound a knight, and as warmly zealous for the honour of his order, as any of its members. A principal part of his design is to prove that the celebrity which this institution obtained for piety and military exploits in times of old, is yet due to its character; and that it is entitled to resume a post, which for ages it had so honourably filled.

The knights of Malta were at first merely *hospitalers* of St. John, and as such were not subject to any particular rules; but becoming members of a religious order, they followed those of the Augustines; they afterwards became militants, conquered Rhodes, and, by grant of the emperor Charles V. obtained the sovereignty of Malta. The first of these characters the order nas

preserved unimpaired to modern times : the instant that intelligence arrived at Malta of the dreadful earthquake which shattered Sicily and Calabria, in the year 1783, the galleys of the knights were under sail to afford the wretched sufferers assistance. They had been already laid up for the season ; the news of the earthquake arrived between six and seven in the evening.

" During the whole of the night, both master and slave, officer and soldier, worked indiscriminately on board ; and the following day they were ready to set sail, provided with every thing that could possibly contribute to the relief of people in such disastrous circumstances. The most able surgeons belonging to the order embarked on board the galleys, taking with them twenty chests filled with medicines, two hundred beds, and a great number of tents. They arrived on the flat shores of Calabria at the close of day, and having cast anchor in an open bay, the general of the galleys dispatched a small boat to make enquiries into the state of affairs."

The galleys lay at anchor all night, at the imminent peril of being swallowed up by the raging billows.

" The morning at last appeared, and with it the most dreadful spectacle imagination can possibly pourtray. The heart-rending scene is still impress on my memory, and I feel myself totally unequal to describe the horrors it presented.

" The shore was lined by a great multitude of men, women, and children, half-naked, pale, and worn out with fatigue. In the midst of these miserable objects stood their reverend pastor, who appeared like a tender parent surrounded by his children : such indeed was the respect paid him by his flock, that, notwithstanding their distressed situation, they forebore pressing on the venerable man so dear to their hearts. The general of the galleys having acquainted him with the purpose of his visit, and the assistance he had to offer to the inhabitants of Reggio, this worthy prelate, though he was obliged to provide for the necessities of fifteen thousand persons (two hundred of whom were grievously wounded), was so well persuaded that charity should never be exclusive, that he himself made an exact division of the different articles between his own people and the inhabitants of Messina, forty thousand of whom he knew to be in the greatest distress. He moreover insisted on their being equal partakers of the benevolent assistance offered by the order, and accordingly took only fifty of the beds, four medicine chests, a few tents, and some rice. The knights, having placed these articles in the hands of the venerable prelate,

reembarked amidst the acclamations of the Calabrians, who offered up repeated prayers for their safe arrival at the place of their destination."

They now proceeded to Messina, and gave assistance to the Sicilians. " I will not," says M. Boisgelin, who was one among the number of knights whose humanity was so conspicuous on this occasion,

" I will not attempt to describe all the affecting scenes which presented themselves to the knights, who visited these dismal habitations. The surgeons were permitted to dress the wounds of some miserable beings, who were at a distance from the rest ; and the commandant could not prevent alms being privately bestowed on several of these unfortunate objects. My post on board the galleys frequently obliged me to accompany the surgeons, in order to inspect the application of different remedies, and the distribution of the necessaries sent for their relief. This gave me an opportunity of witnessing scenes which I scarcely dare present to the reader.

" Here lay extended a miserable mother, covered with wounds, the helpless remnant of her famished children vainly striving for sustenance from a breast which, dreadful to think of ! would yield none untinged with blood.

" There, the wretched father ; deprived of his children's aid, motionless from his wounds, in which the noxious vapours from the earth, on which he lay, had generated fungous substances, which no kind hand had been stretched forth to remove.

" Onward, the heart-breaking sight of children, half-buried in ruins, whom the imperious want of animal food had constrained to attack themselves, inflicting with their teeth wounds which threatened a more painful and more lingering death than that from which they had escaped.

" Those whose duty obliged them to visit the dwellings of the unfortunate inhabitants, were still more painfully affected by the profound silence which reigned throughout some, than the deep groans which issued from others, knowing the probability of its cause—that death had already precluded all human aid."

The order of St. John was also religious, because the members took the three vows of chastity, obedience, and poverty, which last consisted in possessing no property independent of the order at large, and on that account the pope was their superior. That the knights have long since forfeited their claim to the title of a religious order, on the score of cha-

tity,* obedience, and poverty, will hardly be disputed.

The order was military, being constantly armed, and always at war with the infidels: it was moreover the essence of the institution, to respect the christian flag, and to take no part, either directly or indirectly (except in case of attack), in the disputes between any christian powers.

This constant warfare against infidels was endeavoured to be explained away, during the grand-mastership of Vellena, 1722, who, in a negotiation with the Porte for a mutual release of slaves, addressed a letter to M. de Bonnac, the French ambassador at the Porte, in which he stated, that "the order was not instituted for the purpose of ranging the seas to make captives, but to cruise with its armaments to protect the navigation of christian vessels; and that it only attacks those who obstruct commerce, and who, wishing to make christian captives, deserve to be reduced to slavery themselves." Now whatever liberality the order might have imbibed during the last century, it does appear, that not only at its institution, but for ages after, it was at constant warfare with the infidels. When the hospitallers under Raymond Dupuis, the immediate successor of Gerard, solicited leave to become a military order, their petition being granted, the patriarch of Jerusalem armed them himself; and they took an oath before him, to defend the holy sepulchre to the last drop of their blood, and to combat the infidels wherever they should meet them. Every page of their history proves, that this part of their original oath the knights had never the slightest disposition to violate.

Since treaties of alliance between christian and infidel powers are now as common as between christian powers alone; and since the Barbary corsairs are less formidable and injurious to commerce than they were formerly, the order of Malta, notwithstanding its claim to the gratitude of European powers for a long, long series of past services, seems to have declined in importance and estimation.

Under the grand mastership of Ro-

han, indeed, the possessions belonging to the order of St. Anthony were added to those of Malta; several commanderies situated in Poland were restored; and a new language was installed, the Anglo-Bavarian; to which was afterwards united the grand-priory of Russia, created by the emperor Paul, who, enamoured of chivalrous exploits, and well aware of the commercial and political advantages which Russia would derive from the possession of Malta, assumed the title of protector of the order, and was invested, together with the whole imperial family, with the grand cross of Malta.

Nevertheless, the European powers were very indifferent as to the independence of the order.

That the legislative assembly of France should pass a decree, annulling the order of Malta, was not matter of surprise: it was the natural consequence of a previous law, that every Frenchman, who was a member of any order of knighthood which required proofs of nobility, should no longer be regarded as a French citizen. Nor can it be matter of surprise that, by the same decree (Sep. 19, 1792), all its property should be annexed to the demesnes of France. The original hospitallers, and the first knights, were Frenchmen; out of the eight languages France had three, besides commanderies situated in Alsace, Rousillon, and French Navarre, which were all dependencies of the two languages of Germany and Arragon. The confiscation of all this property was quite consonant with the prevailing atrocious system of revolutionary policy and morals. The enormous deficit which this plunder occasioned, ought to have excited the compassion, if it had not called forth the generosity, of other states; instead of which we find the order assessed to support the coalition against France. Thus between two armies, the knights of Malta bear the blows of both! The Spanish and Portuguese commanderies, which had never before paid any taxes to their respective governments, were now called upon for a tenth of their revenue; those in the kingdom of Naples and in Sicily were subjected to heavier ones; and the

* In the rebellion of the knights against the grand-master La Cassiene, it was a subject of complaint and irritation, that he had banished all *courtezans* from the suburbs and the city Valetta! The sixth article of the capitulation of Malta to Bonaparte (June 12, 1798) stipulated that "the knights shall not be deprived of their *private property*; either in Malta or Goza." So much for *obedience, chastity, and poverty*!

order was treated still worse in Piedmont, where part of the property of the knights of Malta was ordered to be sold.

The revenue of the order in the year 1788 amounted to 3,156,719 French livres, and the expenditure to 2,967,503, leaving a surplus of 189,216. To the confiscation of its property in France, yielding an annual revenue of 1,392,974 livres, and its taxation by different sovereigns in support of the war against France, must be added the enormous loss which the treasury sustained by the depreciation of paper money, when it became necessary to realize the revenues due from Spain and part of Italy. The left bank of the Rhine being ceded to the French by the treaty of Campo Formio, the order was deprived of all its property in these four new departments; and the different new republics, formed on every side, successively robbed it of what it possessed in Helvetia, and the Ligurian and Cisalpine republics. Malta, by these accumulated losses, was deprived of two thirds of its revenue. It was compelled to borrow to the amount of six millions of livres; and at last its credit was fallen so low that no one could be found to advance more. In the year 1796 the plate belonging to the men of war and to the galleys was melted down, and coined into money, as was also part of the grand master's, together with some of that employed for the use of the sick in the hospital. It was very evident, therefore, that this noble order, which for seven hundred years had been the terror of infidels and the bulwark of christendom, was no longer held in that estimation and respect by the European potentates, which the remembrance of its valorous achievements might have been expected to inspire. Russia, under Paul I. certainly manifested a desire to afford Malta relief: the order also expected the payment of about a hundred thousand crowns from Spain, which most unfortunately did not arrive till a few days after the French had landed in the island, and which, of course, became a prey to them.

Notwithstanding the low state of the finances, Malta, at the time the French fleet made its appearance, was perfectly able to have made a formidable resistance against any attempt at landing; and if a landing had been effected, a still more powerful defence of the city

Valetta. *Never to reckon the number of the enemy made a part of the oath of every knight, on his admission into the order; and to die at his post was a first principle of honour.* The bulwarks of the island were master-pieces of fortification, and if the knights and the Maltese had been as faithful to themselves and to each other as at the siege by Solymán, Bonaparte would have retired from this rock of resistance abashed, confounded, and defeated. The treacherous surrender of the island gives an ample verification to the statement of the Maltese deputies: "The defection," say they, "and treason of which the order was guilty, will form an epoch in the annals of the world as striking as that by which we are again thrown under its despotic dominion, after it had abandoned us to an army unfaithful to all its promises and engagements."—"No one is ignorant that the plan of the invasion of Malta was projected in Paris, and confided to the principal knights of the order, resident at Malta. *Letters in cyphers were incessantly passing and re-passing, without, however, alarming the suspicions of the deceased grand master de Rohan, or of the grand master Hompesch.*" On the evening of the 9th of June, 1798, the French landed their troops at Magdalen Creek, and on their approach *one single cannon shot* was fired from fort St. George! At day break their shallops were seen advancing towards seven different points, Goza, Cumino, La Malleha, Salmon, St. George, St. Julian, and La Trombrella, none of which made any resistance, except Goza, which was attacked by general Regnier, and defended by the commander de Megriny.

The inhabitants of the country now flocked towards La Valetta: M. Boisgelin says that every possible means was taken to add to their despair; that treason "was talked of;" that they were "taught to believe" they were abandoned to their fate, and "even to doubt the fidelity of the knights!" Astonishing—that after the island had been yielded up to a foreign power without any resistance, the fidelity of the knights should be called in question! But M. Boisgelin avowedly wrote these volumes with a view to defend the character of the order, and urge its re-establishment: he is a very valiant and true knight, for in defence of his order he seems perfectly ready to "die at his post." A dreadful scene of slaughter ensued: the Maltese

people fought with a two-edged sword ; they attacked the invaders with valour, and slew, without discrimination, the knights of the order, by whose treachery they had been suffered to effect a landing. That some among the Maltese were deluded by the promises universally lavished by the French, of liberty, equality, &c. cannot be doubted ; but by their subsequent conduct it is fully proved, that the bulk of the people were most determinedly hostile to the admission of the French, and that their detestation of the order was inexpressibly increased by a detection of its treachery on this occasion. When Bonaparte set sail, some of the knights actually enlisted under his banners !

It is unnecessary to give an account of the conduct of the French on their possession of Malta : it has been uniformly infamous and barbarous, wherever they have set foot. When Solymán was made acquainted with the excesses of which his janissaries had been guilty on the conquest of Rhodes, ashamed and irritated, he sent word to the aga, that unless they were instantly suppressed, his head should be the forfeit. The knights, though vanquished by an Ottoman force, were allowed to preserve, uninjured and entire, their arms and their escutcheons: the sultan paid a visit to the grand master, L'Isle Adam, exhorted him to support with fortitude his reverse of fortune, assured him that he might embark his effects at his own leisure, and that the term agreed on by the articles of capitulation should be very willingly prolonged, if it was deemed insufficient. On the entrance into Malta of that barbarian conqueror, Bonaparte, every thing in the public buildings, "which bore the stamp of nobility, or recalled to mind the celebrated exploits performed by illustrious chiefs, was broken and destroyed." The arms of the order, together with those of the principal chiefs, were effaced not only in the principal *inas*, but in the palace of the grand master, himself being present on the occasion ! The knights who were not in the French interest, were ordered to quit the island in three days, and a disgraceful salary was voted to Hompesch, as an equivalent for the property annexed to the grand mastership. The knights who were attached

to the French interest had but little reason to applaud the wisdom of their political speculation : exposed to the rage of the Maltese, and unprotected by their new friends, they were shut up in different fortresses, some fled, some absolutely perished from want, and all were despised and hated.

They who remained faithful to their duty, were scattered in different places ;* many retired to the dominions of the emperor of Russia, who took upon himself the title of grand master, and created a new Russian priory for the benefit of the nobles in his dominions, who followed the rites of the Greek church.

Notwithstanding the flight of Hompesch, and the knights who accompanied him, and notwithstanding the treachery of those apostate members of the order who remained behind, attached to the provisional government established in the island by the French, the brave inhabitants rose in arms against their invaders, who were shut up within the gates of Valetta, without daring to issue forth and face the terrible vengeance of the people. The blockade of Malta by the English lasted two years ; namely, from September 2, 1798, to September 4, 1800, when the city surrendered. The situation of the city was so deplorable from the alarming mortality among the troops and inhabitants, arising doubtless from the scarcity of provisions, that a surrender appeared absolutely certain. Yet such, says M. Boisgelin, was the skill and unexampled perseverance of the French, that it still held out another twelvemonth. In September 1799, a fowl, which before the blockade used to sell for 6d. sold for from 2l. 3s. to 2l. 10s. English ; a pigeon was worth 10s. ; a rabbit about the same ; a *rat* from 1s. to 1s. 6d. ; fresh pork sold for 7s. a pound, and cheese for the same. The flesh of mules and asses was in such request, that the people complained bitterly whenever they were deprived of it. The French, however, raised vegetables, bred poultry, rabbits, &c. ; and, under the vigilance and unceasing encouragement of their general Vaubois, contrived, as much as possible, to relieve their wants and support their spirits. The garrison was put upon half-pay in the month of August ; in the following December it was entirely stopped, as was

* Hompesch retired to Trieste, separated himself from the companions of his flight, and resigned the office of grand-master which he had so ingloriously filled.

their allowance of wine and brandy. To the honour of the French troops, for it is impossible to contemplate such conduct without admiration, not a murmur was heard, and during a whole twelve-month there were scarcely twenty deserters, and the greatest part of these were either volunteers or sailors! The situation of the inhabitants now became every day more and more disastrous; and such were the effects of poverty, disease, and frequent emigration, that of 40,000 souls in September 1798, there only remained 13,000 in 1799: these were reduced to 10,000 in the following October, and to 7,500 in March 1800. In the last period of the blockade provisions rose to an incredible price: a bottle of oil sold for a guinea, a pound of coffee for 2l. 8s. and a pound of sugar for a few shillings less; asses, mules, horses, dogs, and cats, were almost all consumed; and general Vaubois was at last compelled, by famine, to propose terms of capitulation. He received from the English such as were due to so persevering and courageous a resistance, and such at the same time as proved that Britons pay just homage to the bravery of an enemy. The native Maltese were the only party who had reason to complain of the capitulation, and still greater of the treaty of Amiens, which again consigned them to the order which had given such irrefragable proofs of cowardice and treachery.

It is the policy of M. Boisgelin to identify the interests of the Maltese with those of the order; or rather to represent the former as entirely dependent on the latter: the wise and paternal government of the knights is the subject of an eulogy which emblazons every page; and the misfortunes which the Maltese would experience from a sepa-

ration are foretold in most dolorous accents. If any confidence can be placed in the representations of the Maltese deputies, appointed, as has already been mentioned, by an extraordinary congress held at Malta and Goza, and consisting of the chiefs of battalions, and representatives of every town or burgh, it is very clear that their interests are not so closely connected as we are urged to believe. In the first of the volumes, which—perhaps we ought to apologize for saying—are yet before us, M. Boisgelin has presented a very long list of authors who have written on Malta, including those whom he has consulted in his history, and the appendix to the last volume contains a variety of state papers, referring to the affairs of the order. Throughout the whole work, however, not the slightest notice is taken of, or allusion made to, the remonstrance of the Maltese deputies. It is on this account that we have already quoted it so largely, and that we shall persist in opposing its statements to those in the too partial history which must be expected to come from the pen of a loyal knight. This work, it is true, was written before the definitive treaty was signed, but evidently not published till long after the conference of the deputies with lord Hobart. M. Boisgelin could not but have been acquainted with the particulars of that conference; if asked the reason, he may perhaps answer after the manner of Vertot, who, when some particulars were sent to him respecting the siege of Malta under La Valette, replied, “*my siege is finished*.”*

The remonstrance of the Maltese against that portion of the treaty of Amiens which consigned their island to the order, begins thus: “The Maltese were the first who took up arms against

* As our author has followed Vertot, or rather translated him, in the particulars of this celebrated siege; it was, of course, necessary to rescue his narrative from the charge of inaccuracy. The following note occurs upon the occasion.

“Though Vertot has been accused of inaccuracy in the particulars he has given of this siege, I have not scrupled to quote him in the principal events, since there is not one that I cannot strictly prove from the most authentic testimonies and writings of those days, and of which Vertot was perfectly well informed. His answer, therefore, to some representations made to him on the subject, that ‘his siege was finished,’ was not founded on a dislike to being furnished with any essential and new information he might receive relative to his work, but from the thorough persuasion that the facts he transmitted to posterity, being taken from the archives of the order, and from all the contemporary writers, were perfectly sufficient. Those who had applied to him on the occasion, as he had frequently experienced, had no other object in view but to request him to make mention of different knights, their relations, with whose genealogy they wished to acquaint him.

“The authors of *Des Lâches Littéraires de la France*, a work published by N. L. M. DESSAINTS, justify M. de Vertot in the fullest manner, and clear his memory from the smallest reproach.”

the French, and besieged them in Valletta; they were afterwards assisted by the Portuguese, the Neapolitans, and the English, who blocked up the great harbour and port of St. Paul, while the Maltese guarded every other avenue to the island" . . . "The Maltese were the principals in the war; during the blockade the Maltese lost 40,000 souls. The British army had not a single soldier killed. Reduced to the utmost extremity from a scarcity of provisions, the French garrison offered to capitulate, and to leave hostages for the vast sums that they had taken from the public treasury, from the university, from the Monté de Pietà, from the churches, and lastly from individuals, under the name of forced loans. The British general, as well as the Maltese, were acquainted with the situation of the French garrison: *they knew that in two days they must surrender at discretion*; and in the city there were actually found no more than a few salms of wheat, and no other provisions whatever. Notwithstanding this, general Pigot (without the knowledge or consent of the Maltese) granted the garrison a capitulation, by which the French were permitted to carry away all their effects. In consequence of which, before the gates were opened, the French again plundered the city of the few jewels and effects which still remained to the abandoned inhabitants, and carried them in triumph on board the vessels that were to convey to France the spoils of a victorious people. The British troops took possession of the place, and persuaded the Maltese to lay down their arms upon the glacis, before they entered the town. Confiding in the good faith of the British nation, the Maltese consigned the government of their country into the hands of the British generals, without suspicion, without stipulation, and faithfully obeyed them as ministers of the sovereign whom their hearts had elected. As to the manner in which they were treated, they wish to remain silent, as they are fully persuaded that it would be reprobated, with horror and regret, by the ministers of the king of Great Britain. The expences of the war by land, and the pay of the Maltese battalions, were defrayed by the Maltese; and, in order to enable them to do this, they mortgaged the lands of several villages. The Maltese, therefore, demand that this island may be restored to them; or that all the expences incurred by them for

their share of the war may be paid them, and they may be indemnified for the losses occasioned by the war, and for the plunder which the French were permitted to carry away."

The representation proceeds to contest the title of the knights to the possession of the island: it goes on thus, "Convinced of their own political weakness, and placing a full reliance in the sincerity of the British government, and in the faith of the British nation, the Maltese were more desirous of becoming subjects of the king of England, and of enjoying all the advantages of free subjects of a monarch, who is the father of all his people, than to assert and maintain their own independence; but never did they suspect, nor can they now for a moment believe, that, violating all the laws of justice, divine and human, they are to be forcibly delivered up by their auxiliary allies, as a conquered people, or as vile slaves sold for a political consideration to other masters, to masters, *whose tyranny, extortion, and sacrilege, have rendered them the execration of every virtuous mind, and to whom, whatever horrible calamity may ensue, the Maltese nation will never submit.*" The representation proceeds to assert, that if the island were again delivered up to the order, it would virtually be in the hands of the French, since there are not (even including those of the new Anglo-Bavarian language), more than a *thirtieth* part of the knights who are not at the blind disposal of France. Indignantly it is observed, "if the knights of the order, in possession of an independent sovereignty and revenue, enjoying every ease and pleasure that imagination can form, engaged in objects of luxury, caressed and revered as so many sovereigns; if in this condition the French could command them to quit their terrestrial paradise, to wander in the wide world, and could induce them to become partizans of their cause, what must not the power of the same French over them be, dependent, degraded, dishonoured, reduced to beggary, in whom is extinct every spark of honour, and who have been guilty of the blackest, the most horrible infidelity, apostacy towards their God, and violation of the sacramental ordinances?" . . . "With respect to the guarantee of this or that power, but too well is our island acquainted with the French and the order not to be convinced of the fallibility of such a proposition. The first war, whe-

ther of long or short duration, puts an end to it entirely. If ever a third power were to occupy some parts of the fortresses, the troops would be corrupted by French money and French principles; and immense are the sums that would be expended for that purpose. The military posts are dependent one upon the other. We are able to point out," say the representatives, "the utter impossibility of occupying a part, without the whole. We can clearly demonstrate how they can, and will, obtain their several ends. We can make it evident, that there is no security for the inhabitants, unless British troops are placed in possession of all the fortresses, and unless the administration of justice is placed in the hands of a British civil government."

We have surely brought forward evidence enough, and more than enough, to throw a suspicion at least on those parts of Mr. Boisgelin's work which enlarge on the moderation, humanity, justice, &c. of the civil government of the order of St. John, and which are calculated, as they are obviously intended, to excite pity for the fate of the knights, and induce a belief that their interest and that of the Maltese was one and the same; that the latter had every reason to be, and actually were, a very happy, contented, and unoppressed people, grateful for the peaceful protection of the order, and perfectly satisfied under their mild dominion! If the remonstrance of the Maltese deputies is not a forged document, or the querulous production of an ungrateful faction, neither of which has for a moment been suspected, then the fact seems to be diametrically opposite; and M. Boisgelin's history, if it contains what is true of the knights, does not contain all that is true concerning them.

As to the general execution of the

work, it may be called respectable, but not possessing any high degree of excellence: the author has taken pains in the collection of his materials; but his details, particularly in the first part, relating to the antiquity and topography of the island, are minute to an excess, and tiresome; inferences also are occasionally drawn from facts, which the facts do not justify.

The work, however, with all its faults, notwithstanding its confused arrangement, partiality, and *inclination to dullness*, is yet valuable, as containing a curious, but certainly by no means complete; body of information respecting the constitution of the order, from its original foundation to the present times: * the changes it has at different times undergone; its degree of dependance on the pope, and other christian powers; its ceremonies, solemnities, dignities, finances, &c. &c. &c. Not to have been inspired with enthusiasm in describing its valorous achievements against the infidel powers, particularly its defence of Malta against the rage of Solymán, would have argued a cold and unfeeling heart; but M. Boisgelin, as we have repeatedly said, is alive to every thing which concerns the honour of his order, and nothing which can do credit to their valour or humanity is passed over unheeded. We can assure our readers, however, that the pleasure to be derived from Vertot's delightful and elaborate history, will in no degree be diminished by a previous perusal of the present, which indeed is under very great obligations to that work.

A few engravings, rather for illustration than ornament, are scattered through the first volume, to which is prefixed a folding map of the islands of Malta, Goza, and Cumin, on a very large scale, and very neatly executed.

ART. XVI. *Epitome of the History of Malta and Goza.* By CHARLES WILKINSON. 12mo. pp. 210.

AFTER having devoted so many pages to M. Boisgelin's History of Malta, we should have contented ourselves with stating, in half a dozen words, that a considerable quantum of information was here compressed within a very small com-

pass, and that so far as it extended, that information was accurate, had we not stumbled upon a prevailing error respecting a part of the internal economy of the knights of the order.

"As the order was founded on the prin-

* In the second volume of the English folio edition of Vertot, is a translation of the Old and New Statutes of the order of St. John of Jerusalem, translated from the edition of Borgoforte, 1676. In M. Boisgelin's work a selection only is made from these statutes and ordinances.

ciples of chivalry, they have ever found it too inconsistent with those principles to abolish duelling; but had laid it under such restrictions, as greatly to lessen its danger, which were curious enough. The parties were obliged to decide their quarrels in one particular street; and if they presumed to fight any where else, they were liable to the rigour of the law. But, what was not less singular, but much more in their favour, they were obliged, under the most severe penalties, to put up their swords when ordered by a woman, a priest, or a knight. Under these limitations, in a great city, one would imagine it almost impossible that a duel could ever end in blood: however, this was not the case. A cross was painted opposite to the spot where a knight had been killed, in commemoration of his fall; of which there are several. In the year 1770, two knights had a dispute at a billiard table; one of them, after a great deal of abusive language, added a blow; but, to the astonishment of all Malta (in whose annals there is not a similar instance), after so great a provocation, he absolutely refused to fight his antagonist. The challenge was repeated, and he had time to reflect on the consequences; but still he refused to enter the lists. He was condemned to make the *amende honorable* in St. John's church for forty-five days successively; then to be confined in a dungeon, without light, for five years; after which, he was to remain a prisoner in the castle for life. The unfortunate young man who received the blow was likewise in disgrace, as he had not an opportunity of wiping it out in the blood of his adversary."

Where Mr. Wilkinson picked up the story of this craven knight, we know not; if he had looked into the statutes of the order, he would have paused before he gave it credit. By one of the statutes, title xviii, § 39. ch. it is enacted that "if any brother raises a tumult against another brother, or any body else, in the day, or in the night time, with any sort of arms whatever, in the convent, or in any other part of the island whatever, he shall be deprived of his habit." Again, § 42, "If any brother shall, in a dispute with another, give him ill language, he shall be put to the *quarantain*, though he may own he lied, and is sorry for it. If he give him the lie he shall lose two years of his standing. If he says scandalous things of him, he shall be punished at the discretion of the master and council, according to the quality of the person, and grossness of the scandal. Whoever shall strike a brother, with a cane or stick, give him a box, or any blow of the like nature, shall lose three years of his standing." Title xviii, § 42 ch.

The statutes against duelling are uncommonly severe; and, as the young

knights were of very spirited and impatient dispositions, the statutes against disturbances are numerous, and the penalties exceedingly heavy. The infliction of the *quarantain*, the punishment here imposed upon a knight who so far forgets the gentleman as to strike, or use ill language to a brother, was very humiliating. "He that is condemned to it," says the statute, "shall fast forty days together, and on Wednesdays and Fridays shall have nothing but bread and water; he shall eat upon the ground, and undergo the discipline in the following manner: he shall appear before the priest, without any clothes on, naked and barefoot; and whilst the priest is lashing him over the shoulders, with a rod, he shall say the psalm *Miserere mei Deus*, and repeat several prayers." Title xviii. § 55. ch.

Duelling was not sanctioned by the order; it was not "laid under restrictions," but absolutely prohibited under the very severest penalties. Nothing can be more decisive than the following statute: "As we are desirous to put a stop to the impiety of such, as without any regard to the welfare of their souls, fight duels, and expose their bodies to be killed, we enact, that if any brother shall give a challenge to another, by word or by writing, by a messenger, or in any other manner whatever, though the challenge be not accepted, he shall be deprived of the habit for ever, without hopes of pardon, besides the penalties decreed by the council of Trent, and the bull of Pope Gregory XIII. of blessed memory. If the person challenged accept it, though he should not appear on the spot, they shall both be deprived of the habit without hopes of pardon: if they come to the place appointed, though no blood be shed, they shall be delivered over to the secular arm. Whoever shall give occasion for a duel, shall advise, assist, or abet it, either in fact or right, or shall in any manner whatever persuade any body to offer a challenge, or shall serve for a second in a duel, or shall be persuaded to be by as a spectator, or shall post up the challenge, or cause it to be posted up in any place whatever, shall likewise be deprived of the habit." Title xviii. § 38. ch.

These extracts we have taken from the statutes which were confirmed by the general chapter in 1584.

Under the mastership of Anthony de Paul, another general chapter was held A. D. 1631, when the old statutes were

again revised; those being confirmed which were deemed essential, others added which appeared wanting, and others expunged which were no longer applicable. On this occasion the laws against duelling were revived. In order "to prevent the detestable practice of duelling," it was ordained, "that all brothers, whether novices or professed, that shall from henceforward fight out of the gates of the city of La Valetta, or upon the walls and bastions, shall be proceeded against as delinquents and guilty of duelling, so that upon the attorney-general's proving it, they shall be condemned according to the thirty-eighth chapter of this title which treats of duels." XVII. § 5 ch.*

One might infer, perhaps, from this ordinance, that the convent, having perceived the impossibility of preventing an occasional recourse to arms among these high-crested knights, had winked at an infraction of the old statute; provided the duel was not fought within the city; that afterwards, however, from the impropriety of punishing in one case and not in another, duelling, either upon the walls and bastions, or without the gates of the city, had again become so frequent as to require the prohibition of a general chapter. The general chapter,

therefore, without repealing the old statute, issues a new ordinance against duelling in those particular places where, in consequence of the former prohibition, they had been usually fought. The knights, whom no laws on this subject could restrain, now drew a different inference: they thought proper to infer, that the prohibition against fighting duels without the city, or upon the walls, was a tacit permission for them to decide their differences within the city.

M. Boisgelin, who has noticed this, says, that "many travellers have mentioned one particular street where affairs of this kind frequently took place, and have falsely asserted, that it was a privileged spot: the truth is, it was originally chosen on account of its situation, and since resorted to from the mere effect of habit. The crosses," continues he, "which are marked on the walls of the houses in this street, were made by the Maltese, who had an ancient custom of drawing them near the spot where they imagined any person had been killed; and they thought they were acting agreeably to God's will, to whom they prayed for the deceased, and made this mark as being particularly respected by all who bear the christian name." Boisgelin, vol. ii. p. 176.

ART. XVII. *Part the First of an Address to the Public, from the Society for the Suppression of Vice, instituted in London, in 1802, setting forth, with a List of its Members, the Utility and Necessity of such an Association, and its Claim to public Support.* 8vo. pp. 106.

THAT the members of this society, for the most part, intend well, cannot be doubted; but it may be questioned whether the means which they pursue are not more mischievous than useful.

Their manifesto is so curious a compound of credulity and folly, that we have little hesitation in ascribing it to Mr. John Bowles, whose name stands at the head of the committee list. No other person, since Mr. Wyndham has happily recovered his senses, sees treason walking by noon day, or is disturbed in his sleep by the jacobinical night-mair. Prefixed to this address is the king's proclamation for the encouragement of piety and virtue, and for preventing and punishing of vice, profaneness and immorality. It serves to give an appearance of authority to what follows; and it is, in fact, the text to a long sermon. We

are sorry to perceive, that no comment is made upon the consolatory part of the proclamation, wherein his majesty declares, "that for the encouragement of religion and morality, he will, upon all occasions, distinguish persons of piety and virtue by marks of his royal favour." We are still more concerned to observe, that, though the proclamation was issued in the year 1787, such is the lamentable deficiency of piety and virtue among us, no persons of the above description seem to have been forthcoming; and that though the society have brought to conviction six hundred and twenty-three persons for profanation of the sabbath day, without mentioning those whom they have prosecuted and not convicted, they have taken no steps for discovering any worthy objects of that royal favour so expressly promised in the proclamation, as an encouragement

* This is an inaccurate reference: it ought to have been title XVIII. The mistake probably arose from the omission in the new statute of title XVIII. ("of the Egard") in the old.

to goodness. To influence man by fear alone, is the calvinistic scheme of a calous heart. A society for the reward of virtue would be far more beneficial to the public than one for the suppression of vice. One honest labourer preserved in his old age from the poor house, and maintained in decent comfort, because he had laboured industriously, while his strength lasted, would operate as a more efficacious example than ten drunkards in the stocks. Charity is a cheap virtue; the expence of one prosecution would save twenty poor families for a twelvemonth from the sufferings and temptations of poverty.

The address begins with a melancholy representation of our national depravity.

"It is a truth too evident to be denied, not only that vice has of late advanced upon us with almost unexampled rapidity; but that it has assumed a more bold and daring appearance, stalking abroad in open day, both in defiance of shame, and of the correction of the laws. Not only have those habits of propriety, those customary regularities, that exterior and prescribed decency of conduct, "which deprive vice of its grossness," gradually declined, and almost wholly disappeared from among the lower orders; but a laxity of principle, a stupid indifference to virtue and religion, a morbid dissoluteness of morals, appear more or less to have pervaded all ranks of society. Our times have witnessed not only the most sanguinary revolution of states, but a most awful revolution of human sentiment. Those customs and opinions and feelings which age had rendered venerable, and prescription had sanctioned, the truth and excellence of which our ancestors had approved both by their precept and their example; those principles on which their conduct was grounded, and which they have transmitted to us, as an inestimable treasure, have been openly contradicted and insulted, and rejected as the bigotted notions of antiquity, or as the weak and drivelling errors of childhood. All claim to prescription has not only been boldly challenged, but positively denied: the allowed feelings of our nature have been outraged: religion, the connecting bond of society, has been exploded: and in-to so desperate a delusion has the pride of human ability hurried the fallible intellect of man, as to tempt him calmly to prefer ideal system to practical experience; to sacrifice all our certain enjoyments to the uncertainty of speculation; to offer up millions as victims of fallacious theory; and, to complete the measure of human insanity, even to prostrate revelation at the feet of reason. Through the mercy of God, the tempest has indeed passed over us; but though its fury have subsided, its wasting effects but too sensibly remain. The paroxysm of our disease has abated; but

we are left shattered and distracted. But too evident marks of moral infirmity appear among us. Those pernicious principles which were of late openly defended, have indeed, by the bitterest experience, proved themselves to be fallacious. That tree which was planted by infidelity, and nourished by licentiousness, has been found to promise but delusive blessings; blast and mildew have fallen from its leaves, and its fruit has been desolation and death. We should willingly indeed indulge the pleasing hope that it is almost eradicated from among us; that we have witnessed its baneful influence, and are convinced that death alone can be its produce. Yet, the most favourable view of our present condition must convince us, that even should the plant be destroyed, its poisonous effects have not altogether disappeared. Our soil is still tainted; society is still infected; religion is gradually waning into formality; a general negligence, not to say a disesteem, on this important subject, but too evidently prevail; undue freedom of thinking has produced an undue freedom of action; the prescribed barriers of exterior decency are surpassed; and by gradual encroachments, vice is daily making such inroads among us, that, unless it be timely opposed, it affords but too certain a presage that religious principle will be swept away; that general licentiousness will abound; that the "cramps and bearings" which hold society together, will yield to the common pressure; and that when "the measure of our iniquity" is completed, God will surely be avenged on such a nation as this."

For the assertions, that our soil is still tainted, society still infected, the author very properly quotes his authority.

"We have but too authentic information of this fatal truth. "For the authority of religion and government, the duty of allegiance, the regularity of subordination, and the respect due to superiors have been much weakened here—though the flame has been smothered before it could break out; and I am much mistaken, if you have not every one of you seen this in the inmost recess of each private parish."—Bishop of Oxford's charge, p. 7.—This is no common authority, it is spoken *ex cathedra*, by a bishop to his assembled clergy."

Truly, indeed, does the writer affirm, that he makes this serious imputation against the age and country in which he lives on no common authority. Have we now-a-days to learn what credit could be due to history if it were made up from episcopal declamation only? "Unless I am much mistaken," says the bishop. And what if he should be mistaken? It would not be the first time that the bishop of Oxford had been mistaken; for instance, he did not believe it necessary, when he was made a bishop, to wear a wig; and

he was mistaken in that. Liberty of hair-dressing could not be maintained, he found, without the appearance of schism; he therefore gave up his opinion, bowed his head to the razor, and waved his objections to the wig as well as to the mitre.

The orator of the society tells us that the times grow worse and worse, that decent manners, as well as good morals, have almost wholly disappeared. We look for proofs, and are told of the French revolution and the corresponding society. The seven trumpets in the revelation, according to him, will breathe nothing but sedition, and the seven vials contain nothing but volatile essence of jacobinism.

The more extravagant a fashion has been, the more ridiculous does the person appear who persists in wearing it, when all the rest of the world have left it off. An alarmist in England is as much out of fashion now, as a republican in France. Mr. Addington poured oil into the wounds of the nation, and the nation will not now be blistered by any state empiric who may want to open the old sores anew for the good of his trade. In the name of common sense, what have the petty crimes which these gentlemen have associated to punish, to do with infidelity and disaffection? Though this may probably be the individual weakness of the writer, the society have appropriated it by suffering him to vent his folly in their name.

"The outline of the objects the society propose to effect is very comprehensive: it is, in brief, first, their intention to apply themselves to principles, knowing that if the source be pure, the stream will be pure also. With this purpose, they begin by putting those laws in force, which provide, as far as they appear to be practicable, for the regular observance of the Lord's day. They are attempting to correct the general profanation of the sabbath, the scandalous irregularities and indecencies of which, at present committed, threaten to break down the distinction between that consecrated day, and the six of ordinary labour; and to obliterate all sense of religion, by depriving the sabbath of that discriminating character which marks it as a day devoted to God, and as particularly set apart for his worship. They will endeavour to prevent artificers from working at their ordinary callings; the carrying on of trades; the vending of their goods by shopkeepers; the open display of wares, but little differing, in appearance, from that of any ordinary day of sale; publicans from entertaining persons unlawfully, and other enormi-

ties, which make irreligion a habit, and destroy all respect for the Lord's day. At the same time they will temper their exertions with moderation, and be cautious in distinguishing between wilful and wanton violations of the sabbath, and acts of duty and necessity."

There can be no doubt that the sabbath is more decorously observed by the lower than by the higher class of society; but, be it known, these kestrels do not venture to fly at high game. It appears by their list of convictions, that two hundred and eighty-two publicans have been found guilty of suffering tippling during divine service, and three hundred and forty-one shopkeepers of pursuing their ordinary callings on the Lord's day. Shopkeepers, we may be assured, would never sacrifice their Sunday leisure if they could prudently or possibly enjoy it. They are the people of all others who most enjoy the Sunday, which is to them truly a day of rest; they see their friends without interruption, and, if the day be fair, get into the suburbs to catch a sight of a green hedge, and of the open sky, and freshen themselves for the confinement of the week to come. They have not, like publicans, a motive for supplying their customers on the seventh day, as the consumption of their articles would be precisely the same, whenever they were purchased. They would sell on the Saturday, if their customers would buy, and in fact their little shops are kept open on the Saturday night to a late hour, when no other but the pastry-cooks are lit up. But the poor woman who deals with them has spent the last day of the week in hard work; she has been cleaning her house, and getting the clean linen ready for her husband, and will fetch her ounce of tea the next morning, for Sunday is a leisure day, and she can then have time to settle her score for the week out of the week's wages. She does not do this from want of reverence for the seventh day, but because six are not enough for the work which she is obliged to perform in that station of life to which it has pleased God to call her. A member of the society received a memorable answer from a poor woman who was sitting with apples for sale in the street on a Sunday. He bade her go home, told her if ever she sold fruit again on the Sunday she should be prosecuted, and asked her if she did not find six days enough without breaking the sabbath. "No, sir," said

the woman, "the more is my misfortune; what I earn in six days will not support me. But if you will be so good as to let me go into your kitchen, and dine after your servants, I shall be very glad to take home my basket; for it is only to get bread to eat that I am sitting here in this bitter cold weather."

All the shop-keepers whom these gentlemen have prosecuted and fined are little dealers in the necessary articles of life; tea, sugar, butter, bread, bacon, &c. whose only customers are the poor, and who must sacrifice their own convenience to them. The higher tradesmen are under no such necessity, and they therefore are not found offending. What then is the effect of these prosecutions, but that of punishing poverty as a crime?

"The society beg leave to assure the public, that it shall be their constant endeavour to characterise their proceedings with caution, prudence, and moderation. They are by no means, undertaking that wild, extravagant, and impossible task, the total suppression of vice, or waging an idle war of extermination against it: desirable as the attainment of such an object may be, they are convinced, that it is not within the misconception of even the most inexperienced, to uphold the practicability of such a design for a moment; as it would be founded on unreasonable presumption, it must terminate in confusion. It is by no means their intention to enforce those provisions of the law, which from the evident change of manners, may be considered as obsolete; or to shock the feelings of modern life, by attempting to circumscribe those ordinary gratifications, which the enlarged freedom of the present times has sanctioned and prescribed. In some respects our manners regulate the laws; to the execution of them they certainly give a temper and complexion. Laws are the creatures of circumstance; they are enacted to meet particular evils, which, if suffered to increase, would endanger the security of the community: the evils which are prevalent in one age, may in another be discontinued; or the manners of society may have acquired such a degree of refinement, as to render the application of certain legal provisions unnecessary or impolitic.

"In such instances moderation and caution are necessary, to distinguish between those gross vices or unbecoming irregularities, which at all times threaten the well-being of society; and those acts which former times have considered as aberrations from rectitude, for the suppression of which they have provided legal correction, but which the refinement of modern life, admits as practicable and indifferent. Regard must be had to the complexion of the times, that delicacy be not violated by the attempted suppression of customs, which are considered as harmless, or allowed; and that refinement be not

deprived of any of those ordinary enjoyments, which from gradual and inveterate usage, have grown into such prescription and habit, that any attempt at correction might prove ineffectual or hazardous. Indecency at one period of civilization, is considered as decency at another: and, doubtless, if our ancestors could view the increasing luxury of modern times, they would condemn many of our allowed customs and habits as exorbitant and indecent, as they exceed that measure, which they prescribed as the boundary of their own conduct. To carry then the laws into indiscriminate effect, without regard to the different degrees of refinement, which obtained at different periods of society; to use the same means, to accomplish objects varying in magnitude and complexion, would be rash, hazardous, and impracticable. Such an attempt could but arise from ignorance and inexperience, and could promise no other termination than failure and mischief. It would be one of those designs, which, like all others, originating from hasty and immoderate zeal, would prove, that its abettors had warm hearts with weak heads, and would but degrade the cause it was intended to support."

There is in certain catholic countries a celebrated society for the suppression of infidelity and heresy, commonly known by the name of the inquisition. This institution formerly was not popular in England, because it offended some of our national prejudices; but in our own days one Mr. Hughes, a clergyman of the established church, has expressed his regret, in an anti-jacobin pamphlet, that this "awful tribunal" should of late have "relaxed its vigilance." Like the present society, it was instituted during "a most awful revolution of human sentiment, when those customs and opinions, and feelings, which age had rendered venerable, and prescription had sanctioned, had been openly contradicted and insulted, and rejected as the bigotted notions of antiquity, or as the weak and drivelling errors of childhood." Like the present society, "where the faintest ray disclosed the existence of the evil, it united all its efforts to trace it through all its tortuous windings, and fathom its most covert haunts;" and, like the present society, it "derived information from all quarters" and by any means. But in one very material point it differed from the present society, for it had no respect to persons, but extended its vigilance alike to high and low, rich and poor. It so happened that this catholic society never forbade hot meat on a Sunday, but if they had, they would have put out my lord's kitchen fire as well as the public oven. It so happened that they did

not meddle with public sports; or they would have prohibited cock-fighting and horse-racing as well as bull-baiting; and it also happened that they thought Sunday diversions were very allowable, or they would have shut up such places as Hyde-Park and Kensington Gardens, as well as the skittle grounds. Neither did they think music unlawful on the Sabbath day, or they would have silenced the young lady's piano forte as well as the hurdy gurdy in the streets. Nor did they interfere with gambling, or they would have put down the faro table in St. James's as well as the little-go at Islington; and would no more have suffered Sir John to play hazard, than his footman to try his luck at Burley's dip.

"We need not, however, go far to prove the superior efficacy of associated talents; instances the most fatally illustrative must be too fresh in our minds, too warm in our recollection. It will scarcely be denied that Infidelity, Blasphemy, Treason, and Licentiousness have been let loose among us upon design. The dissolution of moral order has been attempted upon system: those who were enemies of the throne and the altar, the abettors of mischief, have but too successfully availed themselves of these means of accomplishing their objects: it has surely appeared beyond all reasonable doubt, that associations have been formed for the most nefarious purposes, which have threatened the very existence of civil society. Who will disbelieve, after such accumulated evidence, that seditious corresponding societies, and others of a like desperate nature, have not shewn the too fatal efficiency of their institutions, from the spawn of scepticism and conspiracy, which has issued from them, and quickened into infidelity and treason? Such societies have been powerful to overthrow and to destroy, why are not others to be instituted, which are equally powerful to uphold and to save? These associations have been but too successful in weakening and overturning respect for the laws; why are not others to be instituted to assist and enforce them? Let us avail ourselves of the experience of an enemy, and counteract his efforts by using his own weapons against him; surely the same means which are thus perverted to destroy, may be effectually employed to preserve."

As it does not appear that the publicans who suffered tippling during divine service acted under orders from the Jacobin club; nor that the shopkeepers who have been convicted of pursuing their ordinary callings on the sabbath-day had any connection with the French Encyclopædists, or the illuminated in

Germany, it should seem that the great conspiracy against the crown and the christian religion and social order, has not been proved upon them. We must confess too that we can as little discover cooperative treason in the other offences which those gentlemen have associated to prosecute. If indeed they who sell by false weights and measures should be found using the French weights and measures, that would be a suspicious circumstance. Or if it could be proved that procurers and procuresses were employed by none but the members of opposition; if lotteries had been especially recommended by the economists; if disorderly houses were frequented by none but those who voted for sir Francis Burdett; if none but infidels and dissenters were guilty of profane swearing; if cruelty to animals had been recommended by Mr. Fox, instead of Mr. Canning, as necessary to keep up the national courage; and if libelling had been committed only by Benjamin Flower and Gilbert Wakefield, and the late excellent duke of Bedford had never been calumniated by that same wholesale dealer in calumny, who said that the goddess of Reason was exhibited at the Nottingham election:—then indeed we might believe that these gentlemen have volunteered purely to defend the throne and the altar, and that the throne and the altar stand in need of such defenders. But as roguery is not a new thing under the sun, it may be presumed that the ordinary peace-officers are as fully adequate to their duty now as they were in the days of our fathers.

But we shall find proofs of the conspiracy under the head of blasphemy and obscenity. Of blasphemy, indeed, nothing more than the name appears in large letters; but the society have detected a few vagrants in selling indecent prints and books at boarding schools. That these wretches have always frequented public schools is a fact of which we should have thought no person could be ignorant. Let the masters and ushers keep a sharper look out, and let all wise parents educate their daughters at home. But this is not all. It is affirmed that these itinerants take regular journeys, and are supplied with these wares by a considerable house, consisting of several partners. All this is very likely, but, says the orator, "it will appear, from the clearest evidences, that by means of the above powerful engine, a systematic design against the morals

of the rising generation has been pursued, destructive in its tendency, and unlimited in its extent," A plot! a plot! Through what channel has the blood of Titus Qates been transmitted to this worthy descendant, that the breed should have remained so pure and undegenerate? We have a great many villainous trades in England, all carried on upon the same systematic design as that of these infamous pandars, that is, the design of making money. Forgery is a regular trade, but they who are embarked in it have no scheme of ruining the bank of England. Coining is a regular trade, but the coiners do not venture their necks for the purpose of discrediting the national currency. Smuggling is a regular trade, but they who sell contraband goods, and they who buy them, do it for their own advantage, and not because they are engaged in a conspiracy to weaken government by cutting off the revenue.

When ——— was in the full odour of loyalty, several shelves in his shop were filled with copies of Faublas, and of the novels of Lacroix, and of the younger Crebillon. Go to my lady's dressing-room, and see what are the immoral books which will be found there. Yet Mr. ——— may certainly be acquitted of jacobinism. Perhaps also it is not yet forgotten who was the translator of the memoirs of the queen of Abo; for Beza is not the only brotheller who has become a persecutor and a saint.

May it not, however, be questioned, whether these associated gentlemen, in their love for morality, are not themselves corrupting the morals of the people? While they strive with Jewish zeal that no manner of work shall be done upon the sabbath day, they hire people to perform the worst of all work, the dirty work of eaves-dropping, and lurking in corners to collect matter for an information. It was proved upon one of their late trials, that their informer had been three months soliciting an itinerant printseller to procure him the obscene production, for the sale of which he was indicted; the judge and the jury alike felt the iniquity of such proceedings, and the prisoner was instantly acquitted. The society may well remember the trial to which we allude, for on that same day they brought another person to the bar for letting out his house for the purpose of "unlawful dancing," and it appeared that a Jewish family had taken it to keep the feast of pasover; which, though it would have been a rare discovery for the Spanish society

whereof we have spoken, served to nonsuit the plaintiffs.

This society will perhaps justify itself by the plea of necessity, which will justify any thing, the poisonings at Acre as well as the torture in Ireland. But there is an end of all morality, if the principle be once admitted, that evil may be done that good may follow.

To suppress vice and immorality is doubtless a desirable thing, but to attempt their suppression by encouraging a race of informers, is casting out devils by Beelzebub the prince of the devils. They who have once practised this knavish trade have no scruples left to prevent them from engaging in any other knavery when this fails them. But thus to prepare the way for future offences ill becomes that society, who have so earnestly proclaimed the axiomatic truth, which so many great medical professors have proclaimed before them—that prevention is better than cure.

We therefore object to the society, because the means which it employs are mischievous, and because all its efforts are directed against the poor, an impolitic and iniquitous distinction, which is calculated to make the poor believe that laws are made against them only, while the rich may sin with impunity. We object to it as needless, believing that the ordinary magistrates, who have already powers considerably exceeding what the common law of England would allow them, are fully adequate to their office, and that they require no volunteer beaules or thief-takers to assist them. There is yet another ground of objection. A design has been formed, or to use the fashionable language, a conspiracy, for converting the church of England into a methodistical establishment, and many of the truly respectable persons, whose names we recognize in the list of the society, are not aware how closely its objects are connected with that of the *confirming sectarians*, who have entered the church for the purpose of destroying it. The founders of this society, says their manifesto, have thought it prudent to confine their members to those who profess themselves to be of the church of England, as by law established. It must be remembered that the church of England is now divided into two parties, the old churchmen, and those who call themselves the evangelicals, with whom the united Calvinists and the ecclesiastical corresponding society cooperate, and by whom this hy-

poetical clause of exclusion has been devised. If this party should gain the ascendancy, and the most pestilent vermin always multiply the fastest, the penal laws which they have now printed in *terrorem*, will be put in practice with a vengeance. We have had once already here in England a taste of the reign of the saints, and it was not the least of its mischiefs, that it prepared us for the reign of the sinners which followed. Woe be to us if we live to see a parliament of Ebenezers, or an association of Ebenezers dictating the laws.

It might be very amusing, as well as instructive, to hear Mr. Godwin read his recantation in a white sheet; and Mr. Wilberforce in his tender mercy remit Mr. Fellowes the punishment due to his damnable heresies, on condition of his believing in unconditional grace! But dearly should we purchase these edifying spectacles at the expence of that freedom, civil and religious, which our fathers purchased with their blood, and transmitted to us as our dearest and noblest inheritance.

ART. XVIII. *Outline of rational Patriotism, and a Plea for Loyalty.* By J. F. HATFIELD. 8vo. pp. 87.

THIS pamphlet is so pious as to read more like a sermon than a political address. It contains some very doubtful modern assertions, as that the French infidels (p. 11.) annually raised and spent 900,000 sterling, in printing anti-christian books. It contains some very doubt-

ful antiquarian assertions, as that the English were a free and well-governed people (p. 45.) in the fourteenth century. There is a medley of topics every where, which is in bad taste; but the style is unaffected, and the strain of sentiment respectable.

ART. XIX. *Reflections on the Menaced Invasion, and the Means of protecting the Capital, &c.* By Colonel GEORGE HANGER. 8vo. pp. 207.

THIS declamatory but patriotic volume contains copious extracts from the military reflections published by colonel Hanger in 1795; some speculations concerning invasion; a letter to the earl of Harrington on the proposed fortification of London; a dissertation on volunteers; and the suggestion of an improvement in soldiers musquets. From the penultimate dissertation we shall borrow a few words, as having the most popular bearing and interest.

"I desire, gentlemen, that my meanings may not be misconstrued. I do not wish this country to pin its faith for its protection solely on the volunteers; I cannot, I trust, be thought guilty of such an absurdity; no, it is most distant from my thoughts; I am too well acquainted with the real power of a well-disciplined body of regulars, not to reverence and respect the science; yet by no means would I have the services of the volunteers undervalued; for I am confident, that, to their co-operation with the British army, the country will owe its safety in case of invasion. We are partly become an armed nation; but I am so thoroughly convinced that a nation, really armed, can never be conquered, though not one-tenth of them be regulars, that I am for extending the system of arming the nation to a much greater degree than it has yet been carried, to enable it to defend its dearest rights.

"A system of arming the mass of the people should extend, by many degrees, further

than it has at present; not that I am for indiscriminately putting arms into the hands of every one who applied for a firelock; for then we should see men drunk in the public streets, committing various armed outrages: but I wish to see the day that every man within twenty miles of the sea-coast, under 50 years of age, shall understand, in some degree, the use of arms, so as to act against the enemy as irregulars and good marksmen; and that in every village, there should be a *depot* of arms for them to fly to in case of invasion, to oppose the French. It being full as necessary, when arms are deposited in every village for the use of the countrymen, that they should be taught the use of them in some degree, I will state measures which, I am of opinion, should be adopted throughout the whole country contiguous to the sea. They should be taught solely and only the priming and loading motions; they should be formed into companies, under the command of intelligent persons, who are particularly well acquainted with the country; and when employed against the enemy, should never give them battle, but harass and distress the foe as much as lies in their power. In order to make them a destructive and dangerous body of irregulars, every Sunday, after divine service, (I trust the learned and pious prelates and pastors will not object to it) they should be instructed in firing at the target, until they become good marksmen.

"I am of opinion, that it would be by far more laudable to grant prizes to be shot for at the target, than to give gold-laces, lutes

to encourage men to break one another's heads. Give prizes to be shot for to encourage men in the defence of their country; make them of real utility in becoming skilful marksmen; let them learn how to draw blood from an enemy, who lands to rob, plunder, and desolate their country. This is a most useful and noble science; that of drawing blood from a neighbour's head is insignificant and useless. After they are taught to fire tolerably well at the target, prizes should be given often, particularly at Easter, Whitsuntide, and Christmas; let the greatest prize be a strong brown cloth light-troop jacket, with a badge in white metal on the right arm, descriptive of a target, with a bull's-eye in the middle. Let the inferior prizes be hats, waistcoats, shoes, stockings, shirts, silk neck handkerchiefs. A very trifling subscription in the neighbourhood would supply the above articles. Let every person of consequence in the country encourage the peasantry (instead of spending money in contending, one with the other, for the superiority of skittles, quoits, shuffle-board, bowls, nine-pins, and various other insignificant and useless games) to contend for the small wages they may chuse to pay with their neighbours by firing at the target, and discourage all other games for money or for liquor. This would create an emulation amongst the people, would tend to make them formidable against the enemy. Let men of wealth give hogsheads of ale, divided into smaller barrels, to be shot for by the peasantry in their district at Christmas, to take home to their families, to rejoice their hearts and gladden the countenance. Let white metal badges, the size of a crown piece, be given to the best shots, to be worn on the right arm, in miniature, exactly resembling a target, with a bull's eye in the center. This would create an emulation; any man would be proud of wearing such an honourable mark of his own dexterity. If this be done, you will have a formidable force of irregular marksmen all over England, within twenty miles of the

sea coast, all well acquainted with every defile, rivulet, swamp, and path over the enclosures, and through the woods. Then if fifty thousand devils were to land, and every one with a tail, cloven feet and claws, opposed by such an armed multitude, and the strong force in arms which we already have, they would soon wish themselves out of the country."

Much dissatisfaction is expressed by this author at the severe criticism of the volunteer corps, which has occasionally appeared in Cobbett's Register: he thinks it hostile to public spirit. No doubt it has contributed to numerous resignations; but it has called forth an attention to the regular forces, highly conducive to our security, and far more favourable to the preservation of that division of labour and separation of employments, which can alone secure the requisite skill in each distinct department of exertion. It is an insult to the navy to suppose our danger can require an universal armament on shore. If we become a military nation, we shall cease to be an industrious one: the arts of peace are, or ought to be, a more permanent interest than the arts of war. But we may have an army sufficient for our protection, and equal to our external undertakings, without becoming an armed people. Liberty is less in danger from a large standing army, than the dynasty in power: generals have often been usurpers; but usurpers have often been redressers of grievances. An order of nobility is the great protection against the usurpation of armies; because it is an authority perpetual, numerous, and indestructible. Representative bodies are too dissoluble and perishable to resist military tyranny.

ART. XX. *Thoughts on the National Defence.* 8vo. pp. 137.

THIS pamphlet, though not animating, is rational; and, if it does not display the good management of flattering the national prejudices, it displays the good sense of not partaking them. It disadvises, with convincing arguments from experience, those dodging continental invasions of the French coast, so common in all our wars, and so regularly fruitless and disgraceful.

"Examples of what has been, may be of use as to what may be; and a cursory review of some former enterprises of this kind, will not hold out much encouragement to us, to pursue that sort of offensive war.

"At L'Orient we got into the town, plundered a little, retired, and were glad to embark again as soon as we could.

"Against Rochfort we sent a very considerable land-force, our fleet took a battery on the side of Aix, that commanded the harbour, and we made dispositions to land; but, upon further consideration, gave up the enterprise, as too considerable for our means.

"Against St. Malo, we landed a large force in Concale Bay, marched to opposite the town, summoned it to surrender; but, having forgot to bring horses to get up our heavy artillery, we contented ourselves with burning some small mercantile vessels, and re-embarked.

"At Cherbourg, we so far succeeded as to get the possession of the town, abandoned for want of any troops to defend it; we brought off a few old brass guns that were found in it, and destroyed the sluices of a new basin that was making, (which a little labour and expence would soon repair), and re-embarked.

"On a second expedition against St. Malo, with a smaller force than that which had before got up to the walls of the town, we landed on the other side, having a river between us. This attempt was equally given up; but we very idly loitered on the coast, till we judged it prudent to reembark before an inferior force at St. Cas; and, in that disgraceful and ill-conducted operation, lost 700 men.

"At Belle Isle we succeeded better; and, after a regular siege of some length, and some loss, took the town of Palais, and kept possession of the island during that war; but never found it of any use to us.

"At Teneriffe we landed a very inadequate force, for its object, of marines and seamen, without having any land officers to conduct the operations on shore. We lost 700 men in attacking the town and batteries; and happy was it for the admiral, and every sea-officer of the fleet who had followed his example, in volunteering to go on shore to head the marines and seamen, that, by the generous consent of the Spanish commander, they were allowed, with the remainder of their men, to return to their ships.

"At Quiberon, the whole of the land operations were so ill conducted, and the plan was so ill laid, as only to draw in the poor people of La Vendée to more certain destruction, and to sacrifice the lives of many of the unfortunate emigrant officers who had retired to this country, and whom, against their opinions of success, we piqued to go, to be shot at in cold blood as rebels; which fate, all who were taken, suffered.

"At Ostend, not only our inadequate object of destroying the canal works near that place completely failed, but, after losing a great many men on their landing, our general, and a great part of his troops, were made prisoners.

"At the Helder, we indeed obtained the transfer of the Dutch fleet in the Texel, from the then government of Holland to the prince of Orange; but the combined forces of England and Russia, making together a considerable army, after having made good their landing, having advanced into the country, and had several actions with various success, were thought under a necessity to capitulate, for permission to reembark without molestation, and to purchase it, by agreeing that we should restore 8 or 10,000 French seamen we had made prisoners of war, without ransom, exchange, or payment for their maintenance.

"At Boulogne, after various unsuccessful attempts in the last war, on a small scale, to destroy their vessels at anchor before the place, we made a more serious attack on them in boats, in which the bravery of our officers and seamen only served to make our loss the more severe, and we completely failed in our attempt, as we have done since in our repeated endeavours to destroy the shipping at that port.

"At Ferrol, we put on shore a considerable land-force, without any material oppo-

sition; but, on a nearer view of the defences of the place, and consideration of the circumstances, our general thought the enterprise too hazardous for his force; or, perhaps, restrained by his private orders from running much risk with his army destined for other services, reembarked his troops without attempting any thing further.

"Off Cadiz we appeared with a large fleet and army, endeavouring to avail ourselves of the distresses that a most dreadful mortality, little short of the plague, was occasioning in the town, and summoned it to surrender; but, on refusal, we never attempted to land, and abandoned that project.

"Wherever the blame may lie, the frequent failure of these expeditions is not very inviting to renew that kind of offensive war, even when we may have the means."

The author then proceeds to advise a system purely defensive, and to recommend, as the most efficient form of defence, a vast increase of the militia.-- Whence arises the strange prejudice in favour of our militia? The whole militia system is the inversion of common sense. 1. The privates are chosen *by lot*; in consequence of which, a large proportion of persons, physically unfit for military difficulty, are always to be remarked in the ranks. If the men were selected *by age*, a militia might consist of the able-bodied; and, where residence is requisite, this is the wisest course: but to select *by recruiting* is always most expedient, because a given bounty goes furthest in the lean and lacking corners of the empire, and consequently attracts a larger proportion of those who are reared in privation and misery, and who are therefore most equal to the wear and tear of a campaign.

2. The men serve for *five years*, and are accepted repeatedly. Whatever body is principally relied on for domestic defence, ought to keep in view the training of as many individuals as possible to the use of arms. The term of service, therefore, should be short, and the rotation of men requisite: but we call out the same half-bred soldiers year after year, tolerate such vast intervals of duty as to preclude the acquisition of military excellence, and require such intervals of displacement and strange residence, as effectually to destroy the habits of domesticity and of industry: a mere militia-man is neither a citizen nor a soldier; he is usually unfitted to thrive, and not fitted to fight.

3. A qualification of *property* is requisite in the officers. In all ages it has been found, that the needy adventurer

makes the best soldier; that the spirit which spends off its last guinea, and trusts to courage and to fortune for the morrow, is connected with the spirit which is blind to the bayonet, deaf to the cannon, foremost in the breach, and first on the rampart.

4. The consequential office of lord-lieutenant extends over too large a district; the excessive size of our shires being the cause which renders it impossible to reconcile a life of industry with service in the militia. If the place of drill were within a Sunday walk, habits of domesticity might co-exist with a weekly parade.

5. Surgeons are disqualified from being captains: whereas a medical education is a most desirable accomplishment in a soldier, and ought rather to entitle a man to this rank. That individual knowledge of his company, which his professional attentions would secure, is an advantage to be coveted.

6. A religious qualification is required, not only of the privates, but of the serjeants and corporals: they are compelled to swear that they are protestants; thus excluding deists, catholics, and jews, from the first steps of military promotion and preferment. Christianity, as Macchiavelli long ago observed, is not the natural religion of a soldier: it exacts a purity and tenderness of conduct, impracticable among masses of men, and during the conflicts of warfare; yet, by this regulation, the other sects are the excluded.

7. Various persons are exempted being balloted for; which, as substitutes are allowed, is also a pecuniary privilege. And to whom is this pecuniary privilege granted?—To peers, to gentlemen serving in the army, to young men entered at college, to the clergy, to apprentices and articled clerks, to persons free of the watermen's company, and to all those whom the boards of ordnance or admiralty may choose to reckon as under their employment. Not one of these classes has any reasonable pretext for exemption. Of a well devised militia, adapted to protect property, and repel invasion, apprentices and articled clerks would form the great basis. Nor ought female housekeepers to escape paying for substitutes: with the progress of luxury marriages take place later, widowhood grows commoner, and the mass of dowager property becomes a very prominent form of liberal income. Quakers escape for ten pounds penalty, though substitutes often cost more. In short, to whatever part of the militia-system the stentation is turned, these flaws and blemishes abound. It interferes with recruiting for the army, without providing an analogous substitute force; it is costly, without being efficacious; and is as useless to our liberties as to our defence.

A courageous and well-reasoned discussion of the utility of the royal prerogative of making peace or war, occurs at the 128th page: it deserves permanent remembrance.

ART. XXI. *Honour or Infamy: a Letter to the Army, Navy, and People of England, on the dread Alternative, the eventful Choice, invade or be invaded.* By PUBLICOLA. 8vo. pp. 36.

THIS pamphlet recommends, in a turgid declamatory style, the invasion of France by British forces. Our armies are advised to renew the glorious exploits of Cressy, Poitiers, and Agincourt, of Blenheim, Minden, and Quebec. This is easily advised, but not easily effected: moral causes contribute much to the event of every attempt at conquest: un-

less a disposition exists among the people to tolerate the progress of an invading army,—no invading army can be long progressive. It is therefore essential to continental success, to look out for cosmopolitical grounds of warfare, for popular interests to abet and support. By an opposite conduct the antijacobins ruined their country and Europe.

ART. XXII. *Hints to the People of the United Kingdom in general, and of North Britain in particular, on the present important Crisis; and some interesting collateral Subjects.* By W. DICKSON, LL. D. 8vo. pp. 34.

THIS address was, no doubt, published at the time of the original arming of the volunteers. It is well adapted to satisfy the people with their military task. It details the practical bene-

fits of the British constitution with rational panegyric, and closes with animating declamation against the violence of invading foes. When these commonplaces shall require to be repeated to the

next generation, we counsel the declaimer to look back to the hints of Dr. Dickson.

It is satisfactory to observe the altered and liberal tone, which prevails in all the recent addresses to the volunteers; it seems to be felt, (to borrow the words of a speaker of the house of commons), that "compulsory obedience, advanced by the transcendent power of preroga-

tive, is too weak to support the right of government; it is the affections and estates of the people, tied with the threads of obedience by the rules of law, that fasten safety and prosperity to the crown. The experiment of older times makes it manifest to the world, that the honour and glory of this throne is to command the hearts of freemen."

ART. XXIII. *Patriotism, or the Love of our Country; an Essay, illustrated by Examples from ancient and modern History; dedicated to the Volunteers of the United Kingdom. By WILLIAM. FRIEND, Esq. 8vo. pp. 218.*

ALL animals are attached, in proportion to their vividness of memory, to the seats of their early pleasures. The familiar scenes become associated with the enjoyments which they sheltered or bestowed: and thus the love of home, and of neighbourhood, progressively originate.

A cat is as subject as a mountaineer to the home-sickness. To return among her former haunts, she will forsake an indulgent for a harsh protector. A disposition to defend her usual range of stroll against intruders, is very apparent in the cat: the dog is loyal, and fights for his master; but the cat is patriotic, and fights for her home. The art of thriving, and the knack of accommodation, have some concern with the locality of a cat's attachment; she requires much experience of the premises she inhabits, to know where and when to watch and climb and hide, so as to earn her board; to escape confinement, and to behave neatly: in short, she has many, both of the moral and physical associations which compose patriotism. In the cat, the domineering sense is the *sight*; its trains of idea being more distinct than those of the other senses, are more easily revived without confusion; and hence a good memory usually accompanies the prevalence of this sense.

Hartley observes, (proposition 44), that personal attachments, and social affections, are mostly founded on the sense of *taste*; that they derive ultimately from this source, and that it has been customary in all ages and nations, and is in a manner necessary that we should enjoy the pleasures of taste, in conjunction with our relatives, friends, and neighbours: we should else not acquire the appropriate affection. This observation is so true, that in all languages father signifies *feeder*; and the love of our

kindred is very nearly proportioned to the frequency and efficiency with which they partake and contribute to our pleasures of the table. Those persons are observed to be most affectionate, whose palate is the most sensitive and percipient. He, who wants an exertion of benevolence, does well to apply after dinner.

In the dog, the taste and smell are the domineering sense; for they are, in fact, but one sense, being both conversant with one and the same class of perceptions. He is accordingly full of affection, and clings or fawns about those, by whom, and with whom, he is fed. The ancient fidelity of vassals to their lords, has decayed with the ancient conviviality. The most approved method of attaching the multitude to a party leader, is to make or advertise dinners in his honour.

Nationality, as far as it exists in the rude uneducated human animal, is chiefly a compound of the patriotism of the cat, and of the loyalty, or rather friendliness, of the dog. There is a love of the land we live in, which seems proportionate to the impressive or indelible character of its scenery; and which is sensibly stronger in our highlanders, than in our farmers, as it is among the Swiss, than among the Hollanders. There is also a love of the people we belong to, which seems proportioned to the frequency of hospitality; that is, to the condensation of populousness, or nearly so, and is certainly stronger in townsmen than in rustics.

This nationality, or patriotism, which results from physical impressions, may be termed *instinctive*: it includes associations derived from other senses, than the sight and taste; but these associations prevail. It should seem therefore that those nations, and those classes of men, will be most addicted to patriotism,

where the strong impressions of life, and particularly those of spectacles and feasts, are made by objects pertaining to the community.

His civic passions usually rise highest, who never beheld an entertainment more splendid than that given in the Guild-hall by the mayor of his native town ; or, who pursued with admiring and dazzled eye the procession of the corporation to his cathedral, when the oath of allegiance was administered to the volunteers. To give such a feast, to be the representing character in such a procession, will be the secret stimulus of the industry of his life. But, let a man be acquainted in the houses of the great, let him have shared the festivities of metropolitan opulence, have beheld the military reviews of kings, or the peaceful processions of papal pageantry, and he will but feebly covet the distinctions of provincial consequence.

The Athenians were very patriotic. A stranger at Athens could not distinguish the house of Miltiades from that of any other citizen ; but he was led to admire the massy strength of the Acropolis, the far-seen marble portico of the temple of Theseus, the theatres consecrated to Bacchus, the processions in honour of Pallas, the portraits of the worthies in the Poikile, and the festivals of the Prytaneum. These objects were exhibited to travellers by the citizen, not with any secret envy of the possessor, but with the consciousness of joint property, and with the exulting pride of ownership.

The patriotism of Rome decayed under a system, which referred to individuals the structure of public monuments, the distribution of corn, the exhibition of games, the edification of palaces. It was Crassus, Scæurus, Pompey, Cæsar, Lucullus ; never the country.

The French people are more patriotic than those of any other modern community : the Parisians are more so than the provincials. They too, like the Athenians, render their public revenue subservient to the most conspicuous gratifications of the people. Almost every distinguished edifice at Paris belongs to the nation. The proprietors of fine palaces and parks are apt to be more attached to their spot than to their country ; hence that anxiety for equality, so common among the enthusiasts of patriotism. But the meanest Parisian would defend the sacred horse-chestnuts of his *Thuileries* against confederated Europe ; his

interest in the garden of public enjoyment rises beyond the proud possessor's narrow claim. In France, every thing magnificent seems the work of the country ; the concurring individuals are sunk into the shade, or appear but as insignificant and replaceable instruments.

In England, on the contrary, every thing seems the work of public-spirited individuals ; a beneficent law, a collection of art, a long canal, or a spacious dock. We hold up carefully to public gratitude the founders of our useful institutions and establishments. England, in consequence, generates more individual merit, but less patriotism. Our multitude is attached to patrons and leaders, and chieftains, and through them to the state.

Perhaps the *instinctive* patriotism of the vulgar is little worth cultivating. There is a higher source of nationality,—a *moral* patriotism, which results from intellectual sympathies and approbations, which arises from venerating the same heroes, poets, sages, worthies, which results from examining and approving the laws and institutions of the country, and which defends and preserves and betters them, for the sake of their utility. This moral patriotism is alone worthy the pursuit of a mature community. It has commonly been founded by sects of opinion. Protestants, or republicans, bring about, for sectarian or municipal purposes, an extensive and warm fellow-feeling among the multitude, and a habit of active voluntary co-operation. If such combinations are powerful and lasting, the state often finds an interest in the alliance, and accommodates its *effete* decaying institutions to the new and rising fanaticism. Should some of the popular objects, which most favoured the combination, be eventually lost sight of, as was the case during the late French revolution ; yet the temporary unanimity of zeal may create a brisk cohesion of the body politic, a tendency to accretion, a habit of consentaneous action, a zealous concurrence, and steady union of the public-spirited, which will invigorate the state for a whole generation. Could the statesman succeed in extirpating innovations, wherever they blossom, he ought rarely to choose such success ; he would, by propagating and sheltering the new transplantations, have given a vernal and juvenile luxuriance to the appearance of the whole surrounding growth.

Germany, divided into numerous and

distinct sovereignties, distracted by variety of laws, and mangled by a kind of civil discord between the Austrian and Prussian members of the family, has little moral patriotism. No country so equitable to foreign merit. Were its multitudinous parish-principalities, and its oppressive feudal distinctions, to be cast into the caldron of revolution, the united regenerated consolidated nation would soon find, in the heroes of its history and literature, in the ideas disseminated by its poets and its sages, and in the new elective assemblies of its represented intellect, common objects of enthusiastic sympathy, sources of a habit of undivided co-operation, which would gladly extend to contributions for the common illustration and embellishment, and to the care of the common defence against the encroaching foe, from beyond the Rhine. The cosmopolitical spirit of German literature would then be impaired; but it would become antigallican and patriotic.

To the inculcation of moral patriotism the work of Mr. Frend is adapted and consecrated. By collecting exemplary instances of patriotism; by eloquently disserting on duty to the country, and by interspersed philosophy and poetry; he has given words to feeling, and wings to zeal, which cannot fail to exalt and to perpetuate among us the glorious love of country. It was peculiarly desirable to revive in our literature a discussion of the claims of the *patris*, (the Germans say *father-land*; we have no native term for the idea); as the American war, and the late war with France, both involved cosmopolitical interests, which, to many persons, appeared to outweigh those of Great Britain, and thus to justify a principled enmity to the cause of the British empire. Such wars have a natural tendency to deaden patriotism.

Mr. Frend begins his instances of patriotism, somewhat prematurely, with Moses and Debora; they had talent, and employed it for public purposes; but they could have only nationality; for the Hebrews as yet had no country to be attached to. David was the founder of Jewish patriotism, by consolidating, under one church and king, tribes hitherto very independent; and by inspiring them with common feelings, and collective sympathies, through the medium of religious odes. The idolatry of Solomon shook to its base the incipient cohesion, and divided the people into eccle-

siastical factions, stronger than any national party. The Monotheists always leaned to the Persian, and the idolaters to the Egyptian, sovereign. Jeremiah decided the victory of monotheism, by allying his party with a foreign invader; but he facilitated, and immortalized, by his lamentations, a cruel overthrow of Jerusalem. Nehemiah is unaccountably passed over; his patriotic passions were peculiarly strong, since he forsook a place of influence and distinction at the court of Persia, to become the restorer, or second founder, of the dilapidated Jerusalem. Judas Maccabeus deserves all the praise which Mr. Frend bestows; he was not only a great general, but a great statesman. He endeavoured to found patriotism on its true basis, on representative government, by reviving that plan of delegation (1 Maccabees iii. 55.) which the wise Jethro recommended to Moses; he fought, and he harangued well, for the independence and for the liberty of his country. The whole Jewish history deserved a more attentive, a more sifting, commentary: it shews in strong colours the inexpediency of founding patriotism on religion. Religion, by its very nature, is, where it exists, the strongest of all human passions; its obligations are null, or paramount; it reigns a tyrant, if it reigns at all. Hence, whenever the interests of religion appear to come into collision with those of the country, an alarmed sect is sure to prefer the interests of its own system. The Monotheists of Jerusalem, the Moors of Spain, the Calvinists of France, the Catholics of Ireland, have all intrigued with foreign powers, when their friends had not the sway at home. Uniformity of religious opinion has never been obtained without expulsions and proscriptions; it has never been preserved without an inquisitorial controul of all the forms of public instruction. Nature forbids that folly and wisdom should think alike; or that ignorance and instruction should be equally diffused over a whole community. Where persecution denies to talent an arena at home, it can never acquire the skill requisite for the foreign competitions and conflicts of the country. To victorious intolerance has always succeeded national debility. Where there is lasting uniformity of opinion, the passions it inspires are feeble; where there is not, they are partial. The patriotism founded on established religion, must therefore be weak, or be

fractional. Clinging only to the patrons of its dogmatism, it is necessarily precarious as the conscience of a statesman; and in proportion to the crisis which calls it forth, it is sure of sectarian counter-action.

On the patriotism of the Greeks, Mr. Frend reasons and declaims, not with more information, but with less prejudice: his character of Demosthenes is full of eloquence.

"Demosthenes, a name equally sacred to the lovers of literature and the friends of liberty, detected the plans of the tyrant; pointed out to his countrymen the dangers with which they were threatened; called them off from their feasts and their sports, and their scenic amusements, and would have made them again the rallying point of Grecian freedom. He reminded them of the zeal with which they had once resisted the power of the Lacedemonians aiming at universal dominion, and that even at this moment they were considered by the tyrant as the only remaining bulwark of liberty. They were the descendants of those men who might have purchased the sovereignty of Greece by a mean compliance with the views of the Persian court, but chose to forsake their houses, and endure every hardship, rather than give up their own liberty, or oppress others by such dishonourable conditions.

"The actions of those ancestors, said the orator, have never been, nor can ever be, celebrated or described with suitable dignity. There was then a sentiment, against which the gold of Persia was of no avail, which preserved the liberty of Greece, and ensured victory by sea and land. But it is lost, every thing is corrupted, and the affairs of Greece are in the utmost confusion. What then was this sentiment? It was not far-fetched, not obscure, not refined. It consisted in a universal hatred and contempt of the man who could be bribed by those who were ambitious of power and endeavouring to enslave Greece. So base a wretch was punished with the utmost severity. But now all things are put to sale, as in a market; and, instead of exciting indignation against the receiver or the wretch who bribes, the circumstances are received with a laugh, and he is envied who has bartered his rights for the highest recompence.

"A very different race of men were your ancestors, who brought treasures into the state, not into their private coffers. Men, by whom Athens was raised to such a degree of splendour, that excelled every other city in the world, who felt it the highest glory to add to the ornament of the state, not to the decoration of their houses. These men had a soul for the public good; and, if they were not distinguished by their mansions or their garb, their integrity, their piety and their virtue procured for them the esteem and the admiration of their fellow-citizens. But

now a different system prevails; a place under government makes the poor man rich, the base man honourable; and he, who enriches himself by public plunder, erects a palace for himself, that surpasses in magnificence every temple and public building. The affairs of the public are thus daily growing worse, whilst the wealth of individuals is daily increasing. To what is this change to be attributed? The people once had influence; they were the sovereigns; and at their disposal were honours and rewards. Now, on the contrary, every thing is managed by a few, and honours are distributed by those alone, who take the lead in your affairs: and, what is the basest of all, they who should dispose of every thing, are happy to receive the most paltry pittance out of their own substance, from the very men who are thus engrossing to themselves the property of the public.

"The present state of affairs, he assured them, required very different conduct. They might see in the actions of the tyrant towards those whom he had subdued, what they were to expect, if they did not rouse themselves from their apathy and inactivity? Exiled from their native country, exposed in the markets for sale, smarting under the lash of the conqueror, they would deservedly be thought worthy of every injury and every disgrace they suffered. There was no alternative. Every man must now come forward: the rich man with his wealth, the poor man with his strength, the wise man with his counsel; every one according to his abilities and his talents was called upon to contribute to the public good. They, who preferred inglorious life to active exertions, might be assured, that they could not purchase their desired repose by apathy; every comfort of life, all their possessions, would flee with the loss of liberty; and the life, which they had not the courage to defend, would lie at the mercy of an inexorable conqueror: slavery or death was on the one hand; on the other, liberty and honour.

"And who is the mighty invader, who on the sudden has struck such a panic on all Greece? A Macedonian! a tyrant! a barbarian! who hates the city, and detests the freedom of its constitution; who is aiming at universal monarchy, and sees in Athens, the only obstacle in his way; and who is convinced, that he has gained nothing, whilst this state retains its liberty! The haughtiness of his character, and the good fortune, which is his perpetual boast, set him, in his own estimation, above the rest of mankind, who are all destined to crouch beneath his feet. Yet his grandeur arises more from the inactivity of his enemies than his own exertions. A faithless ally, hated more than he is feared, continually planning new usurpations, and with the utmost insolence of language dictating his orders to every one around him. With such a man there can be no peace, for nothing will satisfy him but

absolute and universal empire. The spirit of patriotism once lost is not easily revived. The people listened, and acknowledged the justice of the orator's rebukes. They applauded his speeches, and admire his sentiments. They are roused to a few exertions, but corruption had taken too fast a hold to be crushed by eloquence: the emotions of patriotism, excited by the spirit of the orator, subside on the touch of the gold, which the heads of Athens do not disdain to receive from the hand of a tyrant."

The description of the Roman youth, (p. 60-62,) in the early ages of the republic, whether or no it reposes on sufficient historical testimony, is finely expressed, and warmly coloured.

Among the modern instances of patriotism, the defence of Leyden is one of the most conspicuous for its magnanimity and its effects.

"Switzerland resisted the proud Austrian; Holland encountered with no less spirit and energy the armies of the haughty Spaniard; the Swiss rush down with irresistible force from their mountains on bands of knights cased in armour, and drive every thing before them; environed on all sides by the Spanish force, the inhabitants of Leyden display patience and fortitude; no less the object of our admiration. Douza, illustrious name, saw the circle of the enemy around him contracting itself every day; forts are erected, and no means of communication with the states are afforded, except by pigeons; no prospect appears of the admission of provisions or reinforcements. He calls together the people, expatiates on the cruelty of Spain, and the results to their dear country if this city should be taken. Unanimity prevails; they will defend the town to the utmost extremity; men, women, and children employ themselves, without ceasing, on the fortifications; an account of the provisions is taken, and plans of the utmost economy are arranged.

"The Spaniard is in his own mind sure of the prey. The provisions cannot last beyond a certain time; no succours can approach, nor can a sally be made with effect; distress comes on the Spaniard offers terms, and those very advantageous; soliciting them to reflect on the misery to which they will shortly be reduced, and that all their resistance must end in calamity to themselves, without any prospect of success. We have resolved, they reply, rather to die of hunger, or perish with our families in the flames of the city kindled by our own hands, than submit to the tyranny of Spain. Rather than yield to so perfidious an enemy, we would feed on our left arms, while we are using the right for our defence. But what avails the noblest resolution against the irresistible law of nature! Famine, and its concomitant, disease, stare them in the face; a tumultuous crowd assembles before the door of a

magistrate: either food or surrender, is the cry, excited by the agonies of distress. I have solemnly sworn, said Adrian, the brave magistrate, I have solemnly sworn, that I will never surrender myself, or my fellow-citizens, to the cruel and perfidious Spaniard; and I will sooner die than violate my oath. Food, if I had it, should be instantly yours; but I have none. If my death can be useful to you, take, tear me in pieces, and devour me; I shall die with satisfaction; if by that mean I can but for a moment relieve the people.

"In the mean time every effort had been tried to succour the besieged. Large supplies had been collected, but skill and courage were equally futile in the attempt to gain a passage to the city. The States General are reduced to despair; an expedient at last is suggested: the devastation of their own country is the only mean by which it can be preserved; and poverty or death is preferred by this patriotic assembly to subjection to the Spanish yoke. It is decreed, that the whole country shall be laid under water, that, if possible, their vessels may be floated to the walls of Leyden. Instantly the inhabitants fly to the task: no less industry is now shewn to open a way to the destructive waters than formerly to impede their course. The whole region between Rotterdam, Gouda, Delft, and Leyden, is in a few days overflowed. The Spaniards are in dismay; they are compelled to retire from the lower forts; but in a short time have the satisfaction to perceive that the waters did not rise to the desired height, and triumph in the impossibility of the town being benefitted by this last effort of despair.

"From the walls of the town the distant vessels laden with provisions are seen. The besieged view the efforts made for their deliverance, but nature is incapable of supporting them to the time, when the waters could waft them to their walls. For the seven last weeks they had been without bread; even the flesh of horses and dogs had failed, and there remained nothing but the skins of animals as their last sustenance. The wind had opposed the current of the waves, and as long as it lasted, no hopes of relief could be entertained. At the last moment it changes: the ocean pours itself into the rivers, and is discharged on the plains of Leyden, which become a spacious lake. The forts of the Spaniards are either overwhelmed or rendered incapable of resistance. The vessels float in triumphantly: some convey provisions to the distressed, others pour forth their warriors on the astonished enemy. The siege is raised; the famished inhabitants relieved. As soon as the calls of hunger had been satisfied, the inhabitants with their brave deliverers assemble in the churches, to offer up their unfeigned thanks to God for so signal a deliverance. Joy and sorrow alternately fill their bosoms: lamentations for their lost friends give way at last to the cheering reflection, that their country Google

The influence of the theatre on patriotism is touched in the xxvth chapter; but is insufficiently discussed. The theatre is a more powerful organ of public instruction with the young, the ardent, the libertine, and the courageous, (and on these the public defence chiefly reposes) than the church. It is a misfortune of this country, a danger both to the public taste and to the public spirit, that only two theatres are suffered in the metropolis. They are, consequently, so large, that half the audience can neither see nor hear; of course, those actors who recite, or rather chaunt, most audibly, and whose features caricature expression, and mimic the contortions of an ancient mask, are become the most gratifying. Pageantry and music, whose effect is felt at a distance, are preferred to good dialogue, which cannot be heard. We have operas for plays; and, like the Italians, who have also large theatres, begin to drink tea and receive visits in our boxes, because the sort of amusement offered is felt to be unworthy of the reason. Let the state, which granted, buy in these mischievous monopolies. In theatres reduced to natural dimensions, and distributed equitably over the surface of the metropolis, a chaster, purer taste in acting will revive. Dramas, which can be heard, will be appreciated by their merit as literary compositions. The patriotic strains of Rowe, often the model, and oftener the surpasser of Voltaire, will again resound to bosoms thrilling with sympathy. The zealous competition of managers will open to the dramatic artist numerous opportunities of experimental exhibition; and we too, shall produce our Schillers, our Goethes, and our Kotzebues. Patriotism, never warmer than amidst the plaudits of surrounding multitudes, will there dictate and recompense sentiments of the most exalted loyalty, will circulate them through the ardent frame of youth, and stamp them on the brittle memory of age.

At page 149, Mr. Frend very properly recommends to confine the privilege of entail to noble families; it being, where there is no peerage, more advantageous to the country that property should be dividable, transferrable, and expendable.

The concluding address to the volunteers is full of animation and brilliance, but is too long for our transcription. In the appendix are contained various

illustrative papers, of which the account of Xenophon is the most impressive. Various poetical quotations close the volume.

This book is good, but is susceptible of amendment. Some chapters, little connected with its purpose, might be abridged or omitted. Many historical anecdotes of extraordinary patriotism, which are wisely familiarized early among the well-educated, might be inserted with advantage; for example avails more than precept. With respect to the volunteers, we think their organization not good: they ought to be converted into a stationary militia, and to supersede entirely the county militias. A shire is too large a division for brigading together the resident men in arms; but a hundred or wapentake has, in old times, been found a more convenient size of district. It would be better, if in each hundred a distinct corps learned the use of arms; and if to these corps were confided the protection of those interests of order and of independence, to the preservation of which, the militia, under their ancient constitution, were wisely adapted. The statute, 26 Geo. III. by prolonging the service of militia-men, chosen by lot, to five years, effectually spoils the citizen without forming the soldier; and by rendering the militia moveable, it is become a separate division of labour, whereas it ought carefully to be rendered compatible with regular industry and stationary residence. The punishment of desertion from the militia is extravagantly cruel and severe. Perhaps by confining service in the volunteer corps to two years, abolishing the right of resignation, and compelling, under a fine, the enlistment, there might always be a trained band, and a band atraining, in every hundred, sufficiently numerous to defy any local effort at invasion. The officers should be elected at the end of the five years drill, and command for one year the new levies.

On this subject Mr. Frend inserts a long dissertation; he seems desirous of giving to our military exercises the competitive spirit of Olympic games. This would form a few marvellously excellent sharp-shooters and exercisers; but in an army every thing depends on contemptory exertion; the average degree of celerity is, therefore, to be preferred to the greatest. The Italians of Florence, Lucca, and Pisa, committed this very

error, and formed only fops and fencers : their trained bands, previously to a sham fight, would induce the mayor, or Gonfalonier, of their independent corporations, to issue a formal declaration of war. Lucca would defy Pisa, and win a deathless victory ; but the refined natures which attain pre-eminence in conflicts of skill have seldom the stubborn energy requisite in real warfare.

Whatever becomes of the military

speculations of men of pen, Mr. Frend has rendered an important service to his country by thus disposing the public mind to the public cause. *Non solus ille reipublica prodest, qui tuctur reos e: de pace belloque censet ; sed qui juventutem exhortatur, qui in tantâ bonorum præceptorum inopia, virtute instruit animos ; qui ad pecuniam, luxuriamque cursu ruentes, præcensat ac reprehendit ; is in privato publicum negotium agit.*

ART. XXIV. *The true Interest of the United Kingdom proved in two beneficial Plans of Finance, by JOSEPH COAD. 4to. pp. 16.*

THE first proposal of this headlong politician is to value the land according to its rent from five to forty shillings per acre, and impose at once a land-tax equal to such rent, of the average value of 20s. per acre. However wise the taxation of land may be, we imagine the sudden absorption of rents to be practically impossible : it would occasion immediate rebellion. In the course of one generation of proprietors, a fourth of the rent, perhaps, could, under a constitution of government not monopolized by landlords, be step by step obtained.

The second proposal is for a poll-tax (as the author strangely calls it)

varying according to the circumstances (the income?) of the persons imposed. He is for charging every individual, men, women, children, paupers, from twenty shillings to twenty pounds each, and expects so to raise thirty millions sterling annually.

All other taxes are to be withdrawn : the benefits of which measure are detailed with probability and glee. Rum (says our author, p. 13) may then be sold at two shillings per quart ; porter at three pence a pot, and good hyson at six shillings per pound. Our author makes his Odin's paradise dearer than need was.

ART. XXV. *Desultory Observations on the Property-Tax, addressed to the landed Interest of Great Britain, by a LANDHOLDER. 8vo. pp. 55.*

UNDER the British constitution the landed interest is a privileged class ; which is a natural consequence of the excessive representation that falls to its share ; the whole house of lords and nine-tenths of the house of commons having the great mass of their property vested in land.

Landlords have nowhere an interest habitually coincident with that of the country. Their property is agreeably affected by war and by famine, which increase the demand for produce and enhance its price. By the desolation of towns and the ruin of commerce, their relative importance is increased. Their property, easily ascertained and little exposed to depredation, requires less precision in the statutes, and less interior police, than the possessions of townsmen. Of foreign warfare or domestic anarchy they have therefore naturally less dread than citizens. Every government by the landed interest, from Poland to Jamaica, every country during its feudal

age, when the landed interest alone bore sway, has been remarkable for the unequal distribution of happiness ; the few were barons, and the many slaves ; all were barbarous, all ignorant.

In Great Britain, the influence of the metropolis, which is essentially commercial, counteracts that of the legislature, which is naturally territorial ; and hence the injurious consequences of the power of landlords have in our country been far less sensible than elsewhere. Yet we have lately seen, under the name of a corn bill, a heavy tax, perhaps of twenty millions sterling, levied on the people, no part of which is for the use of the state, but which is wholly to be divided between landlords, in the form of rent, and tenants, in the form of profit.

In the framing of the income-tax, or property-tax, a similar effort may be traced to exempt from their regular share of the burden the persons connected with the soil. Thus, in schedule B, the tenant's duty being assessed on his

R

rent, and his other sources of income consequently excused, the farmer pays nominally but three-fourths, and really not one half, of what a trader in the same rank of life is ordered to pay. Why this? Because every indulgence shewn to the farmer, will be repaid eventually to the landlord, in the form of rent.

A similar unjust indulgence is shown to the Scottish tenantry above the English; they being taxed at only sixpence in the pound: as if in a case of percentage the small value of Scottish lands did not itself occasion the corresponding deduction of tax. But the Scotch are determined still to be Scotch; instead of aspiring to the name of British.

This Scotch spirit, this provinciality of public zeal, pervades the pamphlet before us. It complains of the property-tax as an infringement of the treaty of union. Every effort should now be directed on both sides the Tweed, and on both sides the Irish channel, not to the vigilant guardianship of the *distinct* privileges, which the habits of the people rendered expedient at the time of the junction; but to the entire consolidation of all the three countries under uniform laws and equal taxes. In taxation, it is advantageous to the extremities of the empire to have their utmost share of the burden; circulation can no otherwise be propelled to the remotest shores and districts. The price of produce and of labour commonly rise where taxes rise, and thus pump back the extra payments; so that the new earnings are proportioned to the new expenditure. And it will also commonly be found that there is more enjoyment, a more various and profuse consumption of the articles of life, under heavy than under lenient taxation.

This writer complains that the property-tax includes landed property, and seems to think that the bill for permitting the redemption of the old quit-rents ought to have exempted proprietors for ever from taxation. This exemption from taxation has in all countries been the perpetual drift of the landed interest: under Bonaparte, the ancient privileges are again creeping in. One of the forms of allowing salary to the honoured classes of the French nation is to exempt the individual from his *contribution foncière*: the result will be to exempt his estate and his heirs. These vicious and unjust exemptions made their appearance in Great Britain about the time of the assessments, and extended

to members of the royal family and officers of the household. "Raise their salaries, but levy their taxes," ought to be towards its aristocracy, the maxim of every government, which values the reputation of strength or of justice.

This author speaks of the commercial interest, as if they were favoured by the property-tax, and recommends the *disclosure* of all incomes, as a mean of compelling merchants to pay. They are, on the contrary, taxed nearly double the land-owner: the industrious man is made to work for himself, and for the idle man besides.

The merchant first of all pays his five per cent. on his income, which is assessed by commercial commissioners; not on the fraudulent system, by which rent of land has been assessed, on old returns and unaltered rates; but by an average of the three last years, verified if necessary on oath, and commonly swelled by vanity, or want of credit, beyond fact, and sometimes beyond probability.

A merchant's income is usually proportioned to his returns, and may be estimated at about a tenth of his returns, in common lines of business. If therefore his returns are taxed one-half per cent. or 10s. in the hundred pounds, he will pay on his neat income five per cent. His returns are the sums annually received by his customers, and paid to his banker. His returns less his profits, are the amount of the sums issued from his banker to the different persons of whom he buys. If therefore on one side of the banker's account there were a stamp-duty of one-half per cent. or on each side of the banker's account a stamp-duty of one quarter per cent. the merchant would thereby pay, on his probable profits, five per cent. or one twentieth. Now, the stamp-duties on bills of exchange and promissory notes do already amount to this quarter per cent. on the receipts and payments: so that, in the form of stamps alone, the trading interest already pays its full share of the property-tax, and ought to have escaped any other assessment of its income. The merchant pays his income-tax twice over.

A curious flaw in the income-tax or property-tax is indicated by this author. No dwelling-house, to which land is not attached, is taxable.

"I beg leave, however, in the first place to mark what appears to me an egregious

blunder in this act, with regard to the proposed tax on dwelling-houses.

"Schedule A is certainly meant to impose the shilling duty or tax on the pound of rent upon every species of real estate within the kingdom, and although dwelling-houses are not particularly named, in the long and anxious enumeration of subjects to be so taxed by this schedule, still it shall be admitted for the present, that the words may seem broad enough to embrace and comprehend them under it.

"In like manner schedule B is meant and intended to impose an additional duty of ninepence or sixpence on the pound of rent, to be paid without relief by the occupiers of every subject, or real estate, specified in schedule A; and had matters stopt here, without any enumeration of particulars in schedule B, dwelling houses might have been taxed in this second duty, although not particularly named in schedule A, as falling under the spirit and meaning of its generic words; but schedule B begins with an enumeration proper and peculiar to itself, and in the first particular therein put down we find dwelling-houses, which, in my humble opinion, does somewhat more than seem to imply that dwelling-houses are not to be taxed under schedule A, and were on that account, *ex-proposito*, omitted, and left out of that schedule.

"This proposition is strongly corroborated by the following words of schedule B, "which duties shall be respectively charged in addition to the duties contained in schedule A, and shall be construed to extend to all the properties therein particularly charged." Certainly, dwelling-houses are not particularly charged in schedule A, and constructive taxation, like constructive treason, sounds harshly in a British ear. "*Quod voluit non fecit.*"

"The act must also be amended before the occupiers of dwelling-houses can be subjected to the duty of schedule B; for if I do not much misapprehend the meaning of the following exception in this schedule, it goes to protect and liberate every dwelling-house within the kingdom, from the ninepence or the sixpence duty; it "excepts dwelling-houses not occupied with a farm of lands, for the purpose of farming such lands, or with a farm of tythes or tithends for the purpose of farming the same." As the houses occupied by the tenantry of Great Britain are let, with hardly an exception, for a gross rent for the lands and the dwelling-houses and offices occupied by the farmer, and as that gross rent is taxed in the duty of this schedule, it follows as a matter of course, that not one dwelling-house within the kingdom can be subjected to this branch of the tax, until the word *not* shall be expunged out of the act. I see in an explanation of this act, circulated by authority, after I had wrote thus far, it is said, merely, in my humble opinion, to reconcile this blunder, that par-

liament never meant to subject dwelling-houses to the tax of schedule B, for what reason. I do not immediately perceive, as the proprietors of dwelling-houses are to be allowed two per cent. of the shilling tax for repairs, so they will pay only about three per cent. of tax; but holding that dwelling-houses are not to pay the tax of schedule B, there is this obvious absurdity in the business, that dwelling-houses are not enumerated or named in the schedule under which they are to be taxed, and the commissioners are left to imply and conjecture it from the words of that schedule, and we find dwelling-houses the first particular enumerated in the other schedule under which they are not to be taxed, although the first enacting words of this schedule does, in the most express and explicit words, impose this second tax upon dwelling-houses, and in the following line, merely by inserting the word *not*, the first clause of it is repealed. So much for the accuracy of the framers of this law."

Several forms of income eroded by the property-tax would, by a wise financier, have been passed over. Such is the income of annuitants. All life annuities convert capital into revenue, and thus diminish the future resources of the country. Whatever tends to lessen the income of an annuitant, resists his saving, or hoarding, or accumulation; and thus intercepts that partial atonement for the mischievous character of his revenue, which his frugality, economy, or prudence would sometimes make. The state therefore should consider such incomes as the resource of a necessity and penury, which it ought to pity and spare. Such again are the incomes of professional men. As capital may be represented by revenue; so revenue may be represented by capital. A perpetual annuity in the funds sells for above twenty years purchase. A life-annuity may be estimated, on the average, at ten years purchase. The earnings of a professional man may in like manner be estimated at ten years purchase. Whatever erodes them diminishes their capital value, and lessens the chance for their ever assuming the form of capital. The motive to engage in professions, which are the repositories of all the forms of public instruction and of intellectual excellence, is diminished by such taxes; and the accumulation of successful professionals is intercepted by them. We recommend therefore a total omission of life-long and professional incomes, in every income-tax: this would bring us to a repeal of the present bill, and to a substitution (1) of a rent-tax, (2) of a

tax on the funds, (8) and of stamp duties. This arrangement would affect all the other sources of income here attacked by the state, except those arising from bonds and mortgages. These ought surely not to be taxed without a previous repeal of the laws limiting the interest of money. Why may the lender not proportion his claim of interest to the demand of the money-market? By com-

PELLING the registration of all bonds, mortgages, or notes of hand, which bear a higher interest than three per cent. (the bankers must be allowed to assess this interest without the formality of record) the amount of such securities could be come at. They might then be assessed by an appropriate registration-duty, on a par with other sources of income.

ART. XXVI. *The Principles of Taxation, or Contribution according to Means: in which it is shewn that if every Man pays his Proportion to the Stake he has in the Country, the present ruinous and oppressive System of Taxation, the Custom-House and the Excise-Office, may be abolished, and the National Debt gradually and easily paid off.* By WILLIAM FRIEND, Esq. 8vo. pp. 72.

SOME citizens of London convened by public advertisement a meeting of the *livery*, or as the Londoners ought to say (for it is surely time to drop the Norman jargon of the law) of the *freemen* of their city, in order to deliberate about petitioning parliament for a repeal of the property-tax. This convocation was somewhat unbecomingly postponed to latter Lammas, without the conveners having assigned any *public* reasons for their recantation. To this project of meeting, and to the individuals who stirred about it, Mr. Friend's preface chiefly relates: it is therefore already out of date.

The pamphlet itself treats of the principles of taxation, and derives the word *tax*, not as usual from *task*, but from an old word meaning to *touch*. We are next told, (p. 33) that "Taxation is equitable, when each member is taxed in proportion to his means of paying the tax; it is inequitable, when each member is not taxed in proportion to his means of paying the tax. Thus where two persons, having the same means, are taxed unequally, or two persons having different means are taxed equally, the taxation is not equitable." In short, Mr. Friend makes equality of pressure the criterion of wise taxation; and proceeds to examine the property-tax by that test.

To the principle itself we decidedly object. Income-taxes press more equally than most taxes; yet they are vexatious, inquisitorial, partial, discreditable, most lenient to the fraudulent; and they favour a sort of gipsy population, of lodging-house strollers, who luxuriate alternately in the metropolis and the bathing-places, without retaining any home for a twelve-month.

Now let us take an opposite case, put in our second volume, p. 358. Suppose that in Ireland taxation raises the price of spirits, at the same time that it lowers the price of tea. What is the consequence? The numerous classes are immediately reminded, that it is become expedient for them to employ less of their wages than before in the purchase of spirits, and more in the purchase of tea. Tea is drunk at home; spirits at the gin-shop. Hence an increased habit of domesticity sets in throughout the families of the poor. Tea requires a little apparatus of kettles and cups and saucers. Hence an increased consumption of brassery and pottery, by which the manufactures are benefited; and a greater habitual capital becomes vested in furniture; by which means the love of home, the fear of the workhouse, and the means of obviating a sudden pressure are all augmented. Yet this tax was literally taken off the rich, and laid upon the poor; for, previously to it, the rich were the tea-drinkers, and the poor the spirit-drinkers. Here is a good tax, in which the assumed criterion, equality of pressure, is inverted.

Those are good taxes which encroach on the money unwisely expended by the subject. The financier should proceed on the principles of a Roman censor, and seize on that, of which the multitude render themselves unworthy by abuse. Every tax should place the people in a better condition than it found them: it should have distributed more equitably the rewards of conduct and of virtue: it should diminish the well-being of the idle, and the resources of the spendthrift; but leave unshortened to speculation his casting-net, and to industry his oar. Taxes on the rent of

houses and land are of this kind: were they progressively to absorb half the rental, they would leave shelter and produce as abundant as before; but they would have compelled many idle consumers to occupy themselves productively and usefully. The rent of houses is heavily assessed in the form of window-taxes and parish rates. But the rent of land is scarcely touched; because the land-owners depute a majority of the house of commons, and constitute the whole house of lords. Every tax ought to be a public benefit, a wiser employment of the national property than the people would voluntarily have made of it; several of our taxes are so; but not those on soap, leather, candles, sugar, or tea.

Mr. Frend thus classes the resources of the nation.

"The property of an individual arises out of one, or two, or all of these three things: unproductive capital, productive capital, personal industry. By unproductive capital are meant valuables, which do not produce any increase to the possessor; as furniture of houses, carriages, pictures, and the like. By productive capital is meant property, which produces a yearly rent, or money producing annual interest. By personal industry is meant the application of mental or bodily powers to procure an annual income.

"The difficulty of comparing together two persons, whose property depends in a different manner on these things, will be evident from one or two examples. Suppose a man, with a wife and family, to be in possession of five hundred a year, arising from productive capital, and to have besides a good house, well furnished, worth three thousand pounds. Let another man, with a wife and equal family, have the same income, from personal industry, and an equally good and well furnished house: What is the relative situation of the one to the other? In productive capital there is no proportion between them. In unproductive capital they are equal, and in income also they are seemingly equal. But personal industry may be ruined or diminished by a thousand accidents: and, whilst the possession of the productive capital makes the one totally easy, in case of death, with respect to

his wife and family, the other, if a prudent man, is endeavouring to save something for their future provision; thence it would be very great injustice to demand from each the same sum. Suppose again two men to have from personal industry the same annual income of five hundred pounds, the one possessing an unproductive capital worth a thousand pounds, the other an unproductive capital worth only a hundred pounds. Let each have spent his five hundred pounds, when a tax of fifty pounds is demanded. To pay this, the one reduces his unproductive capital to 950l. the other to 50l. and at this moment their relative proportion to each other is that of 950 to 50, or of nineteen to one; but the moment before the tax was paid, the relative proportion to each other was that of 1000 to 100, or that of ten to one. Thus such a tax would be in a very high degree unjust, since it changes so materially their relative situation."

How can Mr. Frend think of classing furniture as unproductive capital? If a family hires a ready-furnished house, it pays twelve or fifteen per cent. on the estimated value of the furniture, for the yearly use of it. A man may live in a house of his own, or use furniture of his own, and therefore pay no rent for either: but both are productive properties, by whatever such a house and such furniture would cost yearly. There can be no such thing as unproductive capital; the terms are inter-destructive. Books, pictures, are as much productive objects, as a nectarine-tree, or a silkworm. The value of the pleasure they afford constitutes the cause of their price: this is translated into rent at the circulating library, and at the exhibition; it is translated into capital at the bookseller's and the auction room. Mr. Frend throws out the question, (p. 71.) should laws be written in a plain and clear style, or be filled with *technical jargon*? yet in his own schedule of valuation (p. 69.) he has made a subdivision for *unproductive capital*.

This pamphlet, though not wholly convincing, abounds with instructive and interesting remarks.

ART. XXVII. *Egeia, or Elementary Studies on the Progress of Nations in Political Economy, Legislation, and Government.* 8vo. pp. 324.

THOSE who have perused the lectures on political principles, published by the Rev. David Williams, in 1789, will, probably believe themselves acquainted with the Numa of this Egeria. In both

works, there is bold thinking and splendid illustration; in both, an oracular, mystical, dark, indefinite turn of expression; in both, Montesquieu is the peculiar favourite of the author, his chosen in-

structor, the Pythagoras of his secret veneration. It is certainly worth while to enter the crypts and grottoes of his unfrequented school; although, perhaps, too much of his former self has transmigrated into this new form, and he would do well somewhat to renounce the worship of Echo.

Is Montesquieu a writer of such paramount authority? His *Spirit of Laws*, like Harrington's *Oceana*, is full of obsolete inquiry and fanciful theory. His imagination is too prominent in it for the statesman to quote him with dignity, or for the philosopher to lean on him with confidence. He is obscure and oracular, as often from indecision as from profundity. He begins by dividing governments into republican, (under which he improperly comprehends those aristocracies which are not elective) monarchic and despotic. He then assumes that virtue is the motive of the citizen under a republic, honour under a monarchy, and fear under a despotism. This frivolous and fanciful distribution of actuating principles, is stated as if the laws of mind resulted from human governments; as if virtue, honour, fear, were subsequent to human institutions. Montesquieu maintains the equally improbable doctrine, that frugality and plainness of manners are natural, nay, essential to a republic: as if Athens, Corinth, Syracuse, Palmyra, among the ancients, and Florence, Venice, Genoa, Amsterdam, among the moderns, had not been remarkable for the most exquisite refinements of luxury. Montesquieu is for ever re-producing the wild doctrine of climates; as if the republican constitutions of the Italian towns were not common to the Anseatic towns; as if the monarchy of Denmark or Russia differed from that of Spain or Mysore. In his zeal against luxury he describes China as depopulated by it. Montesquieu tells us that the spirit of a monarchy is war and aggrandizement, but that of a republic peace and moderation. He avoids, however, the appeal to modern Spain, or ancient Rome. To a democratic republic he ascribes peculiar impotence of conquest; and he lays it down as favourable to success, not to alter the laws of the conquered. France, is it so? Montesquieu accredits not merely the nominal but the actual separation of legislative and executive power; whereas they never were really separated, nor mutually independent, without produc-

ing a civil war. As soon as our long parliament ceased to obey the impulse of the king, it began to contrive an executive power of its own. As soon as Charles had lost the control of the ordinary legislature, he began to contrive an Oxford parliament of his own. This very separation overthrew the French constitution of 1791. Montesquieu's theory of criminal law is to suit the punishment, with a sort of metaphoric wit, to the nature of the offence. Thus sacrilege is to be punished by excommunication, and theft by fine; as if excommunication could repress sacrilege, or a fine deter the poor. His theory of taxation, as the two most unexceptionable resources, recommends custom-house duties and an excise on beer. He tells us that in England no punishment is inflicted on the body of the suicide. His irony about negro-slavery does not contain one suggestion how to abolish it with most convenience. He thinks that commerce cannot flourish under a monarchy. He approves the English restrictions on the exportation of wool, stallions, &c. in short the impertinent laws against owling. He praises the law of Geneva, which excludes from the magistracy the children of those who die insolvent; as if even the bankrupt himself ought to be excluded. He thinks that nations, which, like the Americans, import more than they export, are made poorer by their commerce. He recommends limitation of the interest of money. He believes in the relative depopulation of the modern world. His tedious antiquarian disquisitions about the feudal system have so vague a drift, that one would think he had written on legislation only to prove, that, in its time and place, whatever is right. These are but a few of his errors. Where are his new truths?

The five first studies of Egeria are consecrated to the recapitulation of them. It is contended at p. 5, "that nations can only be saved by the recovery of their principles," a counsel repeated by Montesquieu, from Macchiavelli, who recommends to a declining community to resume its original condition, *ripigliar il stato*. What does this mean? Is a community to dissolve into the dust and powder of individuality, and to take the chance of some new magnetism for consolidating its particles in fitter arrangement? Of ecclesiastical institutions, atheism is the appropriate solvent; of hereditary institutions, democracy: when both

these menstrooms are employed at once, anarchy is the probable consequence. During the liquefaction of anarchy a new crystallization commences; but the devotees of church and crown are in most societies so numerous, that these institutions form the poles of that nucleus to which the new filaments of crystallization attach themselves. A church is reproduced less endowed, but less tolerant; a dynasty is reproduced less venerable, but less patient: vigour is acquired, but mildness disappears.

Instead of this chemical process a botanical one is preferable. Butler observes rightly, that governments are not built as houses are, but grow as trees do. By pruning and grafting the bad become good. If a dislike of the ecclesiastical institutions diminishes the nationality of the citizens, some new form of sectarism, adapted to the varying temperature of literary research, should be engrafted on the old trunk. If a dislike of the traditional maxims of the legislature occasions combinations among the people to superinduce alterations of policy, additional tribunes of the multitude should be assembled, and permanently annexed to the administering bodies: such representatives will soon indicate what branches require a partial excision, or a new direction. Hope still more than gratification attaches the innovator. The union with Ireland, and the consequently increased strength of the representative branch of the constitution, has inspired this sort of hope in Great Britain; and has revived sensibly the attachment of the nation to the constituted authorities. The political equality of religious sects is the redress of grievance chiefly coveted, and will probably be conferred by the imperial parliament.

The second study respects the origin of society. Power, or sovereignty, every where began in military force; and was transmitted by birth when intermissions occurred of the actual exercise of force.

Le premier de nos rois fut un soldat heureux is a maxim true in all countries. The different chieftains of the primeval petty military bodies conspired to make power hereditary in their respective families, as soon as they had settled residences. Only those countries have grown up without an hereditary nobility, which, like Greece and North America, were indebted to colonies of tradesmen for the mass of their population. These colonies of tradesmen brought with them democra-

tic municipalities, and a reverence for the personal nobility of opulence. Wealth and the comparison of travel has every where refined the merchant into a better judge of excellence than the landlord. Merit of all sorts has risen to distinction sooner, and has consequently abounded more in mercantile than in aristocratic societies. Babylon, Athens and Alexandria were the fountains of civilization to the ancient world; Barcelona, Florence, Geneva, to the modern. But mercantile communities have always been found incompetent to the defence of the country. Hence the expediency of tolerating a nobility of landlords, whose hereditary views, like those of the Roman patricians, often interfere with domestic liberty and public peace, but favour national security and prospective aggrandizement.

The third study treats of the inequalities of social situations. These inequalities result partly from birth; for which the remedies are, by heavy legacy-taxes, even in the case of direct descent, and by abolishing the distinction between real and personal property, and the consequent preference of elder sons, to prepare a more equal starting in life. They result partly from forms of occupation; for which the remedies are, to raise the wages of labour, by abolishing all impediments to combinations of journeymen; and to erode the sources of idle maintenance, by taxes on the rent of fixed property of all kinds. Inequality ought to exist; but the prizes of life should belong to well-exerted talent, not to the mere accident of natality.

The fourth study discusses the political passions. There are two classes of politicians; the disinterested politicians, who are sectaries of monarchy and episcopacy, of aristocracy and presbyterianism, of democracy and independency, or of other gradations of civil and ecclesiastical institution: these are mostly obstinate and unaccommodating; but informed, philanthropic, orderly, and exemplary. There are other politicians who pursue advancement in life, who are zealous for those parties that distribute the emoluments of the state, and whose allegiance is as versatile as the fountains of preferment: these are mostly flexible and forgiving; but ignorant, unjust, overbearing, and spirited. The allegiance of the disinterested has but one price, the realization of their views: on which account they are usually discontented in quiet times, and usually attain

their ends, when factions and usurpers are stepping into power. The allegiance of the interested has but one price, the recompence of their alacrity; on which account they decline when a government is impoverishing, and often transfer authority suddenly to parties, which are less solicitous to provide for the established forms of patronage than for those in rising demand.

The fifth study treats of public imagination and public mind. We transcribe a passage.

"It is possible, however, though reformers must long wait for the event, that men may acquire an influence over political and moral bodies, similar to that they exercise over those which are natural. Society is an aggregation of families, having fundamental laws forming its constitution, and civil laws securing its tranquillity. But what is that principle of which reformers have so much vaunted, and in the apparent direction of which they have committed so much evil? What is it which seems diffused through the organization of an animal to give it life and sense? The answer would assist in giving life and sense to political bodies. Architects of constitutions act as if political unity consisted in juxta-position or accretion; it is not so in animal nature, it cannot be so in society. There is a principle, the continuity and equal distribution of which renders any number of people in the pursuit of their respective interest a political unit. What is the law in nature or science which regulates the distribution of this principle? No man should presume to form or change the constitution of a state, who cannot answer this question.

"It seems to be generally agreed, that the arrangements of the whole political body, when formed by social wants, social feelings, habits, and intelligence, may constitute one organ analogous to the general system of the natural body; and that the natural movements, positions, and feelings of this organ may, by means of a council or sensorium, be rendered the materials of public reason and public will. But all bodies are influenced by counteracting principles, and to render politics a science, it should be employed in specifying and estimating those powers.

"Statesmen have hitherto considered communities as passive inert masses; it is the business of philosophy not to demolish those communities, not always to criminate those statesmen, but to demonstrate that societies, justly instituted, are analogous to living bodies, having always a considerable portion of irritability, sometimes principles of reason, and will diffuse it through their organs.

"In taking living bodies as models, the author does not mean to embarrass himself with theological questions; it is not of importance in his present inquiries, whether the

human body have or have not a distinct and immaterial soul: he considers only the actual powers possessed by organized matter; that species of life or mind, and those functions diffused equally to all the orders of the animal kingdom, even where the presence of a distinct substance has never been pretended. Indeed, all the analogies he wants might be deduced by any skilful botanist from the vegetable kingdom, where the existence of an immaterial spirit hath never been maintained.

"The similarity of physical and political bodies rests on the following facts:—1st. That the phenomena of life are produced in them by the operation of agents on their organization, whether perfect or imperfect.—2d When those agents are accommodated by their quality and mode of operation to their peculiar structure, they are natural to them, whatever they may be in the views or imaginations of philosophers.—3d. When they are not thus accommodated, either by excess or defect, they are unnatural, and stand not in need of empirics to destroy them. Good and evil to communities of this sort are only different states of those powers, as health and sickness are of those which affect the natural body.

"Affections, arising from the condition of particular parts from noxious circumstances debilitating or inflaming them, are subjects of municipal correction, to prevent any commotion in the general system, which may produce a constitutional disease, and require those constitutional remedies which can be administered only by the wisest men, as all their effects are rapidly diffused through the whole frame of the political body.

"Political as well as physical bodies are excellent only as we can ascribe life or the power of action to them, not as they may be the instruments of other bodies. Political as well as animal constitutions are free exactly in proportion to their sensibility and intellect. Those who by the number and quality of their organs, are capable of transmitting all possible information to a central council or sensorium, in perfect sympathy with them, are capable of developing the highest political intellect, a public mind, and a will directing public functionaries and public actions. And the gradations in communities of this intellect, from absolute political freedom to absolute political slavery, are exactly proportioned to the gradations in the quantity and quality of the organs of general information, and of the capacity communicated to the sensorium of developing a public mind."

We are not content with the phrase *architects of constitutions*. There are no instances of constitutions of government being constructed *à la Sieyès*, in a single cast, out of a nation previously reduced to the incoherence of anarchy. Certain organs must learn to move first: in govern-

ments founded during war, those which respect the public defence: in governments founded during peace, those which respect private justice. When the military and administrative institutions are rendered satisfactory to the people, they are prepared to extend their views to the concatenation of the community. This concatenation may be accomplished two ways; from below, by an order of representatives, or from above, by an order of priests. Those societies are most completely concatenated which depute representatives (answering to the percipient organs of animals) to, and which receive public instructors (answering to the voluntary organs of animals) from, the seat of government, the parliament, or brain of the community. In rude and ignorant societies a more numerous and scattered class of public instructors is required than in learned societies, where the press becomes a substitute for instruction formerly oral. The whole organization of a state is a series of habits, of which only one is learnt at a time: when the first set of organs have got their lesson, comes the season for stimulating into activity the secondary sets. Ascending concatenation is by some writers unaccountably called *liberty*; and descending concatenation is by some writers unaccountably called *despotism*. All concatenation, by increasing the influence of all over the actions of each, must somewhat diminish liberty; and, by diminishing the resistance of each to the volition of all, must also somewhat diminish despotism. Both these effects are useful; for the highest degree of liberty, which is anarchy, renders requisite, for the attainment of public purposes, the highest degree of despotism; whereas order resulting from organization prevents these alternate extremes.

With the sixth study philosophical investigation ceases, and an ornamented mythological form of instruction begins: visions, and dialogues in Elysium between shades of the ancient and the modern dead, succeed in showy but scopeless profusion. Many interesting and brilliant ideas are started; but there is a want of drift, aim, and specific purpose in these dialogues, which is less apparent in those of Wieland, whence they seem to have been imitated; nor have they his pageantry of framing, or his dramatic propriety of character. In the tenth study Moses, Quesnoi, and sir James Stewart discuss with Egeria various

questions of finance. From the fifteenth study, as it relates to characters still in practical activity, we shall select an interesting specimen of the author's manner.

"On the return of Egeria, who had only glanced into those councils in Europe, preparatory to a new series of incidents and events, she found the spirits she had quitted contemplating the processes of correction on despots, tyrants, and military chiefs, who were not incorrigibly depraved. The spirit of Alexander was chained to a rock, called the Rock of Patience, and subjected to all imaginable humiliations of pride. Cæsar was the slave of Cato. Frederic sometimes a drilling corporal, sometimes a preaching friar, accompanied by Voltaire as a clerk. Charles V. and Philip II. followed by execrating myriads of protestants, led by Luther and Calvin; and Louis XIV. a waiter for the accommodation and service of all the Huguenots, who passed into the nether world. When Egeria appeared, Bajazet and Koulikhan, who were yoked to the machinery of a perpetual engine, cried out, Is the consul coming? He will surely be appointed to relieve us.

"*Frederic*.—He seems to have disgusted Egeria with projects of reform; which have always terminated in the elevation and despotism of some adventurer.

"*Egeria*.—Of all the forms which despotism has hitherto assumed, that of the French consulate is the most insulting and humiliating to the people, and the most alarming to all neighbouring powers.

"(The fury, employed on Robespierre, suspended her operations, and the monster felt a moment's consolation, when Egeria pronounced the general sentiment of Europe, as well as of France, whenever Robespierre and Bonaparte are compared, *Ille crucem prelium sceleris, tulit hic diadema.*)

"*Egeria*.—To warriors and despots I may appear to advance a paradox, when I say, 'Of the two evils, the anarchy was the least.' The incidents of anarchy are, doubtless, horrible and disgusting, but they are few; the sufferings they inflict are short; and they soon rouse a resistance which terminates the evil; but a military despotism, amalgamated with that refinement of human villainy called Machiavelian policy, throws over the whole people a despondence, for which there may be no remedy but in a second revolution.

"*Frederic*.—Egeria will not, surely, aver that France, in exchanging jacobinism for despotism, is not benefited.

"*Egeria*.—I have blushed for France, when she stood appalled at the name of a feeble and cowardly miscreant, such as Robespierre: but she was disorganized. The general prevalence of ferocity over talents; the execution of the king; the devoted death of Charlotte Corday; the murder of the twenty-

two deponies; the sacrifice of the immortal wife of Roland; the massacre of the queen and of the amiable Elizabeth; and the reciprocal butcheries of the monsters who had been instigated to those atrocities; were deemed incidents which diffused terror over Europe. But these, however dreadful or unjustifiable, were events of short duration, and their effects inconsiderable, compared with those of a cool and permanent system of fraud and cruelty, now constituting the government of France: a government wholly supported by the terror of an army, by spies, and suborned evidence; by imprisonments at pleasure; by the command of judges; and by discretionary and disproportionate punishments. Such a government inflicts more real wretchedness and misery in one day, and repeats that infliction daily, than popular insurrections in an age. I do not plead for insurrection, but if I were obliged to submit to despotism, I should prefer that of Robespierre to that of Bonaparte: the one affording hope, the other being hopeless."

This dialogue is continued in the six-

teenth study. For our parts we do not see so plainly as this author, that the liberties of France are in a desperate condition. The authority of Bonaparte is hereditary it is true, and splendidly entitled; but it is partaken by a strong senatorial body, which, in proportion as alarms for public order subside, will be found to acquire the weight which wisdom always gives in quiet times. Should this senate be made hereditary, as is probable, it will be a firmer power than the imperial family, whose patronage is inconsiderable for the executive branch of France, and whose consequence, but for the personal character of its temporary chieftain, would be rivalled by the wealthier aristocracy. The despair of our author would however have been felt by Montesquieu: "*Quand les dieux ont souffert que Sylla se soit impunément fait dictateur dans Rome, ils y ont pros crits la liberté pour jamais.*" Dialogue of Sylla and Eucrates.

ART. XXVIII. *An Inquiry into the Nature and Origin of Public Wealth, by the EARL of LAUDERDALE.*

IN a catalogue of royal and noble authors the earl of Lauderdale may hold a distinguished rank: his inquiries have been directed toward the topics which legislators should cultivate; his opinions have leaned to principles, which the wisest philosophers have taught; his writings have tended to diffuse a spirit of inquiry and a liberality of sentiment.

Lord Lauderdale however is an over-valuer of the physiocratic writers of the French. They are perspicuous indeed, but through their perspicuity one discovers only mud: a clear style is not enough, if the thought at bottom be without form and void. Plain propositions are often insignificant deductions or trivial truisms: simplicity of expression, in which these French philosophisers excel, differs widely from precision of argument, in which they are deficient. We are not to fancy ourselves convinced, because the words are all familiar, and we happen to read on without a shock; that is the conduct only of minds, which want the habit of attention, and would rather be thought for, than think.

Something of this passive conviction appears to have been produced in his lordship by the Physiokratie of Dupont de Nemours; from whom (at page 50) the following passage is quoted with approbation: "*Il faut distinguer, les biens d'avec les richesses. Ceux-la ont une valeur usuelle, et n'ont point de valeur*

vénale. Celles-ci ont une valeur usuelle, et une valeur vénale. Il ne suffit pas à une nation d'avoir des biens. Il faut qu'elle tende à se procurer de grandes richesses, pour subvenir par le commerce à tous les besoins différens des membres dont elle est composée." Physiokratie, p. cxviii.

In all this passage is there a single sentence of common sense? Why must *biens* (which lord Lauderdale renders *wealth*) be distinguished from *richesses*? Is it true that *biens*, translated any way, have no venal value, or value in exchange? Is it not, on the contrary, manifestly false, and yet arrogantly taken for granted? We are next told that riches have a value both in use, and in exchange. This is a distinction without a difference: for value implies exchangeable value; and is the result of utility. "It is not sufficient (continues Dupont) for a nation to possess wealth (*biens*); it is necessary it should endeavour to procure riches." How ridiculous a bull! And what are these riches to be procured for? To administer by means of commerce to the wants of the members of which it is composed. The Hollanders make commerce to get riches; but this French politician is for getting riches to make commerce: he harnesses his state horses rump foremost.

On this unfortunate paragraph the two first chapters of lord Lauderdale's

treatise lean much. With such a text, the sermon cannot well contain sound doctrine. In the third chapter the sources of wealth are analysed in the following terms.

"In treating of political economy, the science which professes to display and to teach the means of increasing the wealth of a state, it would seem that the first and most anxious object of inquiry ought to have been, what wealth is, and from what sources mankind derive it? for it appears impossible to discuss with precision the means of increasing any thing, without an accurate notion of its nature and of its origin. Yet, if we reject the doctrine of the economists, it is in vain we look for a decided and precise opinion upon the origin of wealth in any modern work on public economy; and it is impossible not to think, that the anxiety of the economists to overthrow that system, which regards commerce as the source of opulence, has led them, in rejecting labour and capital as original sources of wealth, beyond the bounds that reason authorises.

"The liberal doctrines to which this theory led, by inculcating the impropriety of all legislative restraints, or interference in commercial transaction, must command approbation; but they are nowise inconsistent with the opinion we shall endeavour to establish, that land, labour, and capital, are all three original sources of wealth; that each has its distinct and separate share (which it is most necessary should be defined and understood), in the formation of those objects which are desirable to man, and which have been shewn to constitute his wealth.

"Though these three original sources of wealth in the various states of existence in which history displays man, contribute to his wealth in very different proportions, yet in every state of society in which he is known to exist, each, more or less, affords its share.

"Consumption, most undoubtedly, must always precede production; but, long before man cultivated the earth as a means of procuring his subsistence, he must have derived his wealth from all these sources. To appropriate the fruit of a tree or an animal for food, he must have, in a certain degree, laboured; and it will be shewn, that the first stick or stone he took into his hand, to aid and assist him in procuring those objects, by performing a portion of his labour, fulfilled the same duty in which every branch of the capital of a mercantile nation is now engaged.

I. Of Land, including Mines and Fisheries, as a Source of national Wealth.

"In the earliest stages of society, men acquire that portion of wealth they derive from the surface of the earth, in the same manner as, in every stage of society, they attain that part of their wealth, which proceeds from the ocean. Their exertions are not made to

increase the quantity, but to appropriate and adapt for use the portions of those things nature has formed, for which their wants and their appetites give them a desire.

"In this state of his existence, therefore, man derives a greater proportion of what forms his wealth from land, than in subsequent stages of society, when the aid of labour and capital are called in, not only to appropriate and render fit for use, but to meliorate the quality, and increase the quantity of those commodities for which his desires create a demand. •

"This, however, is but of short continuance; for nature, whilst she has implanted in him the seeds of an unbounded variety of desires, has every where scattered with so sparing a hand, the means of satisfying them, that the assistance of labour and capital is early called in to perform the most important duty allotted to them through any stage of society, that of increasing the quantity of those productions of nature which form the objects of our desire; and from that moment, the natural produce of the earth gives way to those productions, which the industry of man, by improvement in cultivation, procures in augmented quantity and superior quality.

"In treating of the increase of wealth, therefore, we shall again be called upon to consider this subject. At present it is only necessary to observe, that with the single exception of the economical system long prevalent in France, every thing useful to man, produced by land, whether spontaneously or extracted by art, has been deemed, under all systems of political economy, to add to the wealth of a country.

"It was, indeed, the principal tenet of the economists, that the earth is the sole source of riches, which are multiplied by agriculture; but by a strange mode of reasoning, they exclude that part of the produce of the earth which is reserved for seed, and for furnishing the nourishment of the cultivator, from forming any portion of national wealth. This produce was by them deemed necessary to secure the production of future wealth, and to use their own language, they regard it not as wealth, but as a machine that must be carefully preserved, for the continual reproduction of wealth."

Here and there a tincture occurs in this passage also of the style of Dupont de Nemours, as where his lordship observes that "consumption, most undoubtedly, must always precede production," which is absolutely impossible; but in general the positions advanced are clear, methodical, and demonstratory, and the reading displayed is worthy of a professor in some Scottish university.

Lord Lauderdale objects to considering national riches as the sum of indivi-

dual riches. In this mistake he has been preceded by Dr. Adam Smith, who borrowed from the French physiocrats his unfounded or rather misfounded distinction between productive and unproductive labour. Dr. Smith classes the labour of actors, preachers, barristers, as unproductive; merely because it assumes no permanent form, and is not consolidated with the price of any wares or commodities. An exhibition of fireworks is not an unproductive investiture of capital; although the whole capital employed is exploded on the spot, and loses its previous exchangeable value. From the income of the spectators was derived a new capital, not only equal to, but greater than, the capital thus consumed and annihilated. Very few of the spectators diminished their own capital by attending, and thus at the end of the transaction, the national capital was greater by all the profit of the undertaker, less the loss of capital to those few spectators, who withdrew from their capital and not from their revenue the price of admission. It is thus with actors and singers. Out of income that would not else be hoarded, they collect in small sums a mass of property. Whatever portion of it they hoard becomes an addition to the national capital. Whatever portion of it they spend increases circulation as much as an addition to the national capital producing an equivalent revenue. Disinterested labour is the only unproductive labour.

Lord Lauderdale, it seems, is an anxious Anti-Pittite, which, in questions of statesmanship, does honour to his judgment: but, in questions of finance, Mr. Pitt has usually taken a wise course, has selected the most rational plans of others, and has executed them with great practical dexterity. Among his meritorious laws, surely must be classed the institution, in 1786 of an accumulating fund for the progressive purchase of the national debt. Unless a vast sum were daily brought into the stock-market for the purchase of funded property, it would be impossible to keep afloat so vast a national debt. Where could the large stock-holders find, any day, ready-money purchasers, if the absorption of the commissioners was not nearly equivalent to the daily redundancy of stock? The depreciation of the funds would proceed with accelerated velocity, whenever a tendency to sell had once begun; and government would

have to borrow at a double rate of interest. If a banker were to leave off exchanging his notes for cash, those notes would depreciate: so, if government were to leave off exchanging stock, by means of the commissioners, for ready money, we should again have American-war prices, public despondence, nodding institutions, and certain bankruptcy. The ancient maxim *Si vis amari, languida regnes manu* has sunk rather too deep into lord Lauderdale's benevolent nature; he would relieve the people from the just burden of their own expenditure, and hand over to posterity undiminished the whole debt created by the present generation. A vast portion of the fourth chapter is consecrated to the attack of Mr. Pitt's law of 1786: this forms the only dangerous part of the volume.

Some just observations occur in the concluding chapter.

"But it is not general reasoning alone which produces a conviction, that the distribution of wealth, in all societies, must ultimately regulate the formation of wealth. The same conclusion may be deduced, by a still plainer and more familiar process, from an examination of the situation, the habits, and the distribution of the property of mankind; a view of the subject which may be illustrated by examples innumerable, uniformly evincing, that, in every society, it is the wealth of the consumers who resort to the market, and the manner in which it is distributed amongst them, that universally decide both the quantity and quality of the goods that are exposed to sale.

"We have often occasion to remark, in many of the small fishing-towns of England, where the goods generally exposed in the shops are of a nature adapted to the demand dictated by the property of the inhabitants, that the summer season no sooner invites to the coast a number of opulent families, for the purpose of bathing, than there is transferred thither a quantity of goods suited to the demand which the fortunes of those who for a time visit the place create; and the residue of these goods is at the end of the season constantly removed, because the fortunes of natives are not such as to create a demand for commodities of that nature.

"It is to be remarked, too, that for the good of that place; as well as of those new shopkeepers who resort to it, it is necessary that those who thus for a time reside in it should not be too affluent; for the tastes and habits which extreme affluence generates, naturally induce those who possess it to bring from a distance their wines, and many other articles of their consumption, as well as to send to the capital for any new ornaments, or additional articles of clothing, which the taste of day may suggest as desirable; so

that not only the affluence of those who resort to the market, but even the degree of affluence, seems to decide on the nature and extent of the demand, which may be diminished as much by the extreme riches of the temporary visitants as by their poverty.

"It was the luxurious habits of the French court, generated by extreme affluence, that with justice gave rise to the complaints uniformly made by the inhabitants in and around Fontainebleau, that the short residence of the sovereign, in summer, created an additional demand for nothing but eggs, milk, and butter, as the courtiers brought almost every other article of consumption along with them; and it is not improbable that shopkeepers and traders in and around that town, are at present deriving more benefit from its being converted into an English prison, than they did from its being resorted to by the court of France.

"The curing of fish is a means of increasing food, and of course wealth, which has occupied the attention of many of the maritime powers of Europe. The legislature of this country has, in particular, made repeated inquiries, enacted various regulations, and given, at different periods, very considerable bounties, for improving and encouraging the curing of herrings.

"The great object has been to imitate, and, if possible, to rival, the Dutch in this undertaking; but the inquiries of committees, the regulations, in consequence of their reports, the bounties and encouragements granted by law, the instructions given by Dutchmen dispersed throughout our fishing towns, to teach the process which has succeeded in Holland, have all proved ineffectual. The herrings produced are as inferior in quality as ever, to those cured in that country; and must remain so, if there was even much greater encouragement given; for the consumers of the greatest part of the herrings in this country are the poorest of all men,—men absolutely deprived of the power of possessing property—the slaves in our West India colonies; whilst the consumers of the herrings cured in Holland, are men of property and affluence in Germany, and other parts of Europe, at whose table that fish is introduced as an article of luxury. Till, therefore, the West Indian proprietor becomes as nice about the victuals of his slaves, as a German prince is about the luxuries produced at his table, this country can never expect to see the curing of herrings brought to an equal state of perfection as in Holland: for the fortunes of the consumers in Germany, make the excellence of the commodity the sole recommendation in that market; whilst the situation of the slaves, makes the cheapness the only recommendation in the West India market.

"Let any man examine the wretched clothing sent from this country, to cover those who are employed in the cultivation of the sugar-cane, and then let him reflect, whe-

ther, if this was the chief source of demand for our linen and cloth, any possible bounty could induce our manufacturers to produce lawn, cambric, or fine broad-cloth.

"This nation is at present the greatest commercial country in the world. There is hardly any people, in any climate, with whom our merchants have not dealings; and, if we examine the cargoes that are made up to suit the demands of different nations, we shall universally observe, that it is the distribution of property, in each country, that dictates the nature and quality of the goods that are sent to it.

"In India, property is most unequally divided. The poor man possesses the necessaries, but has not wealth sufficient to suggest a desire even for the comforts of life. The rich possess not only wherewithal to pamper their appetites, but sufficient to satisfy their most refined desires. Accordingly, the cargoes which our India captains carry out, if meant for sale in the country, and not for the supply of the company's servants, uniformly consist of the most expensive clock-work, of mirrors of the greatest size, of fire-arms of the most distinguished workmanship, of lustres, and other ornamental articles, of a value, even beyond what any European market requires.

"In the United States of America, on the other hand, property is more equally divided, than perhaps in any other country. Almost every man possesses, not only the means of procuring the mere necessities of life, but his wealth is such, as to extend his demands to some articles of comfort in clothing, furniture, and habitation; and there is hardly such a thing as a princely or overgrown fortune. Accordingly, the goods sent to the American market are all comparatively low-priced,—things, calculated to secure comfort, not to attract admiration.

"Send to India a cargo of goods, assorted for this market, they will find no sale. The poorer orders might, indeed, have a wish for articles of this sort; but, in a country where three half-crowns per month is the usual allowance for wages, food, and clothing, they cannot have the means of procuring them; and a wish, unaccompanied with the means of obtaining a commodity, never can constitute a demand. Neither could there exist, on the part of the native princes, any demand for such articles. They, indeed, have amply the means of obtaining them; but this, without the wish or desire to possess them, cannot constitute a demand; and these are not the commodities for which opulence creates a desire. The things, for which riches dictate a demand, are articles scarce and rare, calculated to display splendour, and excite admiration."

Lord Lauderdale gives hopes of a continuation of this work. We shall examine its progress with regularity. We recommend some abbreviation of the

matter, by omitting what is vague, indefinite, or notorious, in the argument. The style will appear diffuse to those who have the habit of reasoning: in abstruse disquisitions this favours popularity. Adam Smith is diffuse; but clear, intelligible, and significant. The subject does honour to the author's choice, and merits his persevering attention. What Turgot recommends to the statesmen of France, is also applicable

to Great Britain. "*Cette nation est nombreuse; ce n'est pas le tout qu'elle obéisse, il faut s'assurer de la pouvoir bien commander: et pour y parvenir, il semble qu'il faudrait connaître sa situation, ses besoins, ses facultés, et même dans un assez grand détail.*" To such statistical inquiries, the leisure and the labour of lord Lauderdale are honourably consecrated.

ART. XXIX. *Bonaparte, and the French People under his Consulate. Translated from the German. 8vo. pp. 253.*

IN the preface to this most instructive work, we read much of the fickleness of the French people; of its changes from democracy to royalty; from infidelity to catholicism; from arrogance to servility; and this with a nationality of concert, which demonstrates alike the internal indifference to each successive form of profession. The fact is, that Frenchmen all pursue advancement in life; that they adapt themselves, without scruple, to the slang in vogue, and immediately engage in any competition, where superiority is honoured with public recompenses. In plasticity, emulation, and ambition, they abound; in principle, perseverance, and disinterest, not at all.

Under governments that have long been free, and are accustomed to the alternate ascendancy of hostile parties, consistency is a rational speculation. The steady, but temperate, partisan, may rival the new zealot in his chance of preferment: fidelity has its value as well as intrepidity. Such governments too are tolerant: they suffer the display of adverse excellence, and have a secret pleasure in dividing the public suffrage, against potent eloquence and acknowledged merit. But, in France, whatever is not heard with pleasure, by the ruler of the hour, is not long heard at all; and thus an apparent unanimity is produced, not by the conversion of opinion, but by the silencing of contradiction. They have made an outcry about the liberty of opinion, and the liberty of the press; but they have done nothing to protect either: the tribune is banished for his harangue, and the author for his diatribe.

The habit of tolerance is best generated by rival periodical publications, which contend as often about topics indifferent to the magistrate, as about those which excite his jealousy. Thus factious ques-

tions become mere seasonings in the cauldron of public opinion, not its elemental ingredients. The subdivision of attention weakens the bitterness of its adherence; and truths, which whole would nauseate, are swallowed without reluctance in minces.

The habit of tolerance must precede the institutions to defend it. Laws avail not without manners. The prettiest plans of reformation cannot be superinduced by a vote: they must accord with the best usage of instructed districts, and respected citizens. Every thing should be tried; first on the small, next on the large scale. Give to one ward of the metropolis, or to one city of the empire, a wise charter of representation, a popular judicial constitution, a pervasive administration of the poor, before the forms of proceeding be superinduced on the whole state. The forty-third of Elizabeth resulted from the experience of Norwich; therefore it has been found a wise poor-law. Had a-priori lawgivers attempted such a statute, they would have done no more good than the Lingets and the Mirabeaus, by their speculations on mendicity and work-houses. Legislation, like all sound philosophy, begins in experiment; and ought merely to define and generalize the result of the best practice. Laws should be made not for, but from, usage; and ought no more, to survive, than to precede it. They are patent machines for facilitating social labour; but they are only useful, where the sort of labour to which they refer is in demand. The French seem to think they require no human tendance, but are to bestow order and welfare without being put in motion.

Hence it happens that their legislation is so versatile: whatever of ancient practice has remained is returning to be law; whatever of reformation has been un-

executed, is now to be abrogated. A correspondence of law and usage is essential to political order. It might often not be amiss to make laws permissive for the first year, and obligatory the second: the practical difficulties would thus be ascertained by the well-affected, and could be done away before the peremptory period: as watches are put together to ascertain the places of friction, and then repolished, before they are exposed for sale.

Anarchies usually terminate in military usurpation: but if Bonaparte had been a disciple of the new, not of the old, principles; of the Jacobin, not of the Jesuitic, school of French opinion, the natural retrocession from excess, the counter-revolution of law and usage would, under him, have been the least possible; whereas, now, it will be the greatest possible; and, in the endeavour to remonarchize France, law and institution may be pushed back so far, as to leave the crown greatly strengthened. The senate, at times, dimly reflects the glimpse of pale flashes of a wish for independence; but it has not the courage of the ancient parliaments, because it is less introverted; far less that of the states of Languedoc, Dauphiny, and Brittany. Those revolutionary measures, which are most likely to be stable, are the changes introduced by the government clerks of office; and these had all for their object to strengthen executive power, to diminish the friction of provincial and personal resistance. Hence the division into small departments, the uniformization of tenures, the suppression of local taxes, and even the substitution of elective magistracies, to the jurisdiction of lords of manors. The feudal aristocracy was struck at, because it stood in the way of power, not of the people.

Our author thus comments the organizing senatorial decree, which is considered as the origin and title of the present imperial constitution.

“ By this organizing *senatus consultum*, the French constitution is entirely changed, and the first consul made unlimited sovereign, in a degree superior to almost every sovereign in Europe. With unheard of presumption, in the very promulgation of this law, the unlimited power which it was to give the first consul, was already exercised; for it was not, even for form's sake, communicated either to the tribunate for discussion, or to the legislative body for approbation or rejection; it had, therefore, according to the

constitution still existing at the moment, no degree of legal force. In the promulgation of this law, the first consul already assumed a power which the people had in nowise conferred on him; and this glaring violation of the constitution ought to have excited the resentment of the people, and of all the constituted authorities, so as to rouse them to every possible resistance; the more so, because no legal complaint had occasioned it, and as no legal opposition could take place, so lamed and crippled already was every thing that could have effectually opposed it in a legal way!

“ If the form of this innovation be wholly contrary to law, how much more are its contents at variance with every idea of genuine national representation, and legally free government!

“ This *senatus consultum* abolishes the lists of the notables. The mode of drawing them up hitherto was indeed too artificial and complicated; most people could not comprehend the form. But now, the elections are made under the superintendence of a president appointed by the government, who has even the care of the police in the assembly; who has the public force at his command, and can appoint or break up the meeting when he will. Every meeting is subdivided into sections, each of which has its presidents, chosen by the first. The government can call together the meetings in the cantons, when it pleases; and, when it apprehends too bold an opposition to its will, can forbear calling them at all. Besides, the president is chosen anew by the government for every session; but the members of the electoral assemblies retain their places for life, and are thus wholly independent of the people, whom they are supposed to represent. In case of need, the government has also the right of dissolving the whole electoral college. In all the assemblies, numerous members of the legion of honour, chiefly military men, were appointed electors. The people's right of election is therefore, for the future, totally illusory.

“ This organizing *senatus consultum* also secures the first consul, for the future, against all legal opposition and contradiction, which he had now and then met with, but which these new laws render quite impossible. The criminal and civil courts are entirely subject to the will and power of the first consul. What has hitherto every where passed, even under the most unlimited governments, for the most scandalous abuse of power, is sanctioned by this law as a constitutional right. Let any one read only the fifty-fifth article, which is as follows:

“ By regulations which have the title of *senatus consultum*, the senate suspends, for five years, the functions of the juries, in the departments where it shall think this measure necessary. 2nd. As circumstances require, it declares whole departments out of the constitution. 3d. It appoints the time when the individuals, arrested according to the

forty-sixth article of the constitution, shall be brought to trial, in case it cannot be done in the prescribed ten days, reckoned from their arrest. 4th. It annuls the sentences of the criminal and civil courts, when they endanger the safety of the state. Lastly, It dissolves the legislative body, and the tribunate, and appoints the consuls."

Thus trial by jury is arbitrarily liable to be withdrawn; and a still further encroachment on this most essential provision for public freedom has since taken place.

"Where the juries still exist, their jurisdiction is curtailed by what is called the *police correctionnelle*, which is exercised by a single judge, and some justices of the peace, as assessors, to whom a great many cases are referred, as being of too little consequence to go before a jury. It is further retrenched, by submitting all cases of forgery, assassination, arson, &c. to the special tribunals, whose arbitrary mode of proceeding has been noticed above.

"Thus has Bonaparte, by the abolition of the national militia, by the weakening and annihilation of the genuine trial by jury, and by the destruction of the freedom of the press, undermined the three grand pillars of a republican constitution; and that without even introducing a well-ordered legal monarchical establishment; but a mere provisory government, subject to every alteration he thinks proper, and exposed to every inconvenience and disadvantage that can result from the detestable corruption of the public officers, inseparable from such a government, and without the possibility of any legal opposition. It is only by forcible resistance that the people will be able in future to deliver themselves from their new oppressions, which far exceed those under the old corrupt monarchy. Thus does Bonaparte prepare new revolutions for the nation, already corrupted by every abuse of government, as torn by all the horrors of anarchy; and he has, indeed, but too much reason to be upon his guard, and to protect himself by every despotic measure.

"All these, however, will be found insufficient to insure his safety, if he continues to incense the nation by his boundless *nepotism*, and spirit of patronage, in which he goes to work without the smallest precaution or decency. Who would think of being offended with him, powerful as he is, for making, with prudence and moderation, the fortune of his family? But to give to a family so numerous, who are besides strangers in the land, every thing, without distinction, that the most voluptuous and licentious avarice and vanity can covet; while his own legal income is still very limited, and therefore affords no appearance of personal sacrifices or generosity, to bestow on innumerable brothers, brothers in law, uncles, cousins,

and their whole train; all the first places, without any regard to their talents and characters! to heap several offices upon every one of them; to make them every where preside in the electoral meetings, as in the constituted bodies! to have all brilliant lucrative affairs transacted by them alone! Such exclusive profusion surpasses all papal, princely, and patrician *nepotism*, hitherto known! These must rank in future history, as inferior to consular *nepotism*, as the old Roman imperial power and arrogance must yield the palm to our consular despotism!"

The following sketch of the emperor deserves notice for its colouring.

"All their writers of the last century, from Montesquieu to Mirabeau, nay even to the very latest, Necker, Riouffe, Mounier, and Chénier, represent their own nation as so morally and politically debased, that neither a good constitution, with obedience to it, nor a durable, consistent opposition to a bad one, nor even an enlightened judgment concerning it, is to be expected from them. With this want of solid judgment, consistency, character, and active patriotism, it is to be wondered that, during a revolution of fifteen years, a man did not sooner arise, who united in himself the talents of the warrior and statesman, courage and audacity, will and power, successfully to seize on the whole government of the state. Even he who at length attempts it with success, was not to be a Frenchman, as if the old national vices had so poisoned and weakened every seed, that no man of a fixed manly character, not a perfect egotist, who aims only at what is highest, and only for himself, not even a genuine tyrant, could be produced in the nation itself! It was necessary that such a man should spring from an inconsiderable island, the national character of whose inhabitants is, in almost every particular, diametrically opposite to that of the French: it was decreed that, for his guidance towards despotism, he should, in the course of his short life, see the French pass through almost every state to which a great nation can be subject; and that in all these states he should find it the same vain, uninformed, unsteady, faithless, cruel, thoughtless nation, with which its earlier history had already made him acquainted! His Cæsar and Machiavel had already told him, that this nation has, indeed, courage enough for a furious attack; but has neither patience nor strength for persevering opposition, for the manly support of unavoidable evil which leads to good."

This whole work is rather more consecrated to the political, than the statistical, state of France; but includes the following just remark:

"Farmers have in general been the chief gainers by the revolution; from a greater

facility in bequeathing by will; from the abolition of feudal restraints; of *maius mortis*; by the undisturbed possession and free alienation of all landed property; and lastly, by the division of land into smaller estates. Hence also the change in respect to money; formerly it flowed through the country to the cities; now it remains in free circulation in the country. This is attended with two very happy consequences. More land is actually cultivated than before, and in a better manner; and the stock of cattle is much more considerable.

"All the means for far greater augmentation and improvement are at hand. At the same time, many other channels for industry have been opened, which were formerly much obstructed in France; such as ship-building, manufactories, and commerce.

"The latter have been particularly enlarged, as the high nobility can engage in them without disgrace, and actually do so. Madame de Turenne has placed one of her sons in a great commercial concern; and in several other houses in Paris, many noble youths are engaged in mercantile business.

"Others of the nobility employ their capitals in manufactories. But this branch of industry is prosecuted with the least profit of any, the national character and the course of business hitherto being too much at variance with it. An incredible want of a spirit of order prevails in the whole nation; as much, perhaps more, than the want of solid knowledge and genuine experience. He who undertakes a great manufactory must absolutely have theoretical, scientific knowledge; he must have real experience of his own, not mere routine, and be possessed of a solid capital, or credit. Now all these are seldom found together in France, where manufactories are generally conducted on a small scale compared with those of the English, and where all is rather hindered than promoted by an arbitrary mode of proceeding. Most of the manufacturers are forced to engage in companies, which are attended with great disadvantages. Capitalists who form such societies are mostly inexperienced; they conduct speculation and commerce with the air of manufactory, which pre-supposes theory founded on experience. Such capitalists are besides vain; they begin with great

buildings, with elegant dwelling-houses. The Englishman, on the contrary, begins with small hired or slight buildings. The spirit of gambling prevalent in the nation, produces also in these undertakers the rage of making a speedy fortune. Their prodigal way of living, which extends to the subalterns and workmen, consumes a great part of the capital, and corrupts the morals of their servants. Hence arises the complaint, universal in all such undertakings, '*l'administration mange tout*.' Hence, in general, the fourth company are the first gainers by such great undertakings. The first consume their money in building and parade; the second in experiments; the third continues to commit blunders in business and management. These causes deter many from great undertakings which would raise the national industry."

The greatest reliance may be placed on this excellent account. It deserves to be read by every friend to human improvement; it must convince every one, that the ascent of Bonaparte to power terminated an anarchy, from which there was hope, by a despotism which leaves no hope; and that his sway must be numbered among the scourges of his country, the crosses of Europe, and the calamities of mankind.

Much is said on the topic of public instruction: the writer seems to have a system of his own, and to believe that too much cannot be done by the magistrate for patronizing the teachers of language and of science. We recommend an attentive perusal of the third part of Adam Smith's fifth book. Let those who want instruction club for it. The French have contrived lectureships and professorships for every man of literary eminence in Paris. What is the consequence? The fear of losing their salaries makes them silent while they disapprove. Schemes of public instruction easily become ministerial jobs; and may hire the literary priesthood of philosophy, to all the servility which it imputes to the christian clergy.

ART. XXX. *Apperçu de la Nation Française comme Puissance militaire depuis le Commencement de la Revolution, &c.* 8vo. pp. 104.

THIS commendable, but declamatory pamphlet, consists of several distinct essays. 1. The preliminary discourse contains common-places against the rapacity of France; laments the publication of "Why do we go to war?" which, however convincing, was but mustard after dinner; and exhorts the British multitude, in very fine French, *Ann. Rev. Vol. III.*

to arm and fight for the country, promising eternal beatitude to the slain. To this discourse is attached, exactly in the most pious part of it, a diverting anecdote of some French swindlers who cheated a banker's son. 2. The second part treats of the French army, and merits perusal; we suspect it does not contain the freshest intelligence of its con-

condition; but the information is often remarkable. We much doubt the following assertion at p. 15.

"The French artillery only preserves the name of the ancient establishment: it is at present ignorant, unskilful, and inferior to every other military department. The French attach no cannons to their battalions. The movements of the infantry being thus not subjected to those of the artillery, are freer and lighter. They repair this omission, which is perhaps wise, by placing their cannon according to the necessities of the ground; and by their horse-artillery, which is composed of chosen soldiers, who expose themselves unsparingly. This artillery has contributed essentially to their successes; it is superior to common artillery in that the men are picked; it repairs, by boldness and celerity, the want of skill and experience; and is a substitute for that lagging artillery, which interferes with the speed of armies."

Professional men will find other similar notices, which deserve to be taken into consideration. On a parade-day at Paris, cannon-races take place in the court of the Thuilleries, and form the most striking spectacle of the review. On very high wheels, which out-top the postilions, the cannons are mounted, and dragged about with a team of eight horses in full gallop, round and round the oval course; so that a flying artillery forms an habitual object of attention.

ART. XXXI. *The official Defence of General Moreau before the Tribunal at Paris, &c. Translated from the original French, which has been suppressed in France.* 8vo. pp. 118.

THE charges against Moreau amount at most to this, that he gave indirect encouragement to Pichegru, by holding two interviews with him, not for the royalist purposes of that ex-general, but with a view to enable the senate to recover an authority, unconstitutionally absorbed by the first consul. Under the fourth count of the indictment, the most suspicious circumstances are adduced. We transcribe that part of the defence.

"FOURTH COUNT.

"Interview with Pichegru and other accused Persons.

"Propositions made and received.

"It was more than seven months that Moreau had heard nothing of Lajolais, when toward the end of last winter, that general came to see him, when Moreau, greatly to his surprise, learnt that Pichegru was in Paris.—Lajolais then pressed him to give Pichegru a meeting, to confer with him on the

Carnot observed to an acquaintance of the writer, that the hopes of French mathematics were chiefly dispersed among the engineers, which implies an instructed staff. The polytechnic school has long been distributing among select pupils, all the military sciences, through the best teachers. It cannot be, that this department of the French army should deserve to be branded as ignorant. 3. The third dissertation is a parallel, between the policy of the French and of the Romans. No doubt the French have made the Romans their models; Montesquieu and Mably have so willed it: the first taught their plan of conquest; the second their plan of negotiation. Our author observes, (p. 53), "The French are in the middle of Europe. Petersburg, Constantinople, Madrid, and London, are less distant from Paris than Carthage, Antioch, Alexandria, and Babylon, were from Rome." He infers that they are in danger of a like fate. The true remedy is to place great nations, instead of little ones, along the French frontier. Give Holland, Hanover, Osnaburg, Bremen, to Prussia, if it will but undertake the conquest of all Westphalia and Franconia. 4. Some remarks are made on the Russian armies. 5 and 6. Observations occur on musquetry and barracks. This pamphlet is adapted for exportation.

means of getting leave to return to France; Moreau refused, and observed, that Pichegru being here without leave of government, might be arrested, and that he, Moreau, did not chuse to run the risk of seeing him arrested, perhaps, during their interview, and thereby expose himself to all the silly inferences that might be drawn from it: inferences from which he had sufficiently suffered on account of his letter of the 17th Fructidor of the year 5, then so imperfectly understood by the public mind. Lajolais returned to the charge, and proposed several places, insisting much on the desire of Pichegru to speak with him; Moreau persisted on his side, and absolutely refused.

"He thought then to have heard no more of it; when one day, at the end of Pluviose, last year, about eight at night, when Lajolais and two other persons were announced, he mounted into the saloon, where he found Lajolais, Pichegru, and Couchery. Couchery was the friend of Lajolais, who had called some months previously to ask if he had any letters to send to Pichegru, to which Moreau had answered, that he had nothing, and that

he would not write to him while he was in a foreign country at war with France.

"Moreau was extremely vexed to see Pichegru, after what had passed in the year 5; he never could have been easy if he had been arrested in his house. They entered into a library adjoining the saloon, where they remained a few minutes.

"Pichegru then spoke of nothing but his erasure from the list of emigrants, and his desire to live in France, and of the means of getting a passport to leave it. Moreau advised him in that case to quit England, and retire for some time into Germany. He also pressed Pichegru to go away. He added, that he would have seen him with pleasure, if he could have been of use to him, but that not being the case, he wished not to see him any more. They remained together about fifteen minutes. On rejoining Lajolais, Moreau reproached him with having brought Pichegru, and desired, with regard to himself, that he hoped he would never return.

"Nothing can be more free from guilt than that interview. As a proof that it was of no importance, it was too short for a first meeting on any thing of consequence relative to a conspiracy. Besides, even according to the accusation itself, it is at the second meeting that the opening of the conspiracy is introduced.

"Moreau would not again see either Pichegru or Lajolais; he had declared so formally to both. Lajolais, indeed, never came back: but a few days afterwards M. Roland, who in the years 4, 5, 8, and 9, had served under general Moreau, at the army of the Rhine, as inspector of transports, and who had been in the habit of waiting on him occasionally to pay his respects, arrived one morning, and asked for a meeting with Pichegru, who lodged at his house. Moreau refused. When Roland said he had something very important to communicate. Moreau persisted in not seeing him, but, in order to soften a harsh message to an old friend in adversity, said that he would send his secretary to know what general Pichegru wanted.

"He waited very patiently for an answer, when in the evening Pichegru arrived. Moreau was told that one wanted him. He went into his closet, and to his great surprise found Pichegru. Moreau was very vexed; but Pichegru was there. Nothing indiscreet on his part had taken place at the last interview, and it would have been ridiculous and unbecoming to make a disturbance by turning him to the door.

"The conversation began. Pichegru at first spoke of his personal embarrassments, of passports, and of returning to France. After some vague observations, Pichegru turned the conversation upon politics. That was not extraordinary between two men who had acted so great a part. Pichegru spoke of the invasion of England, the dangers attending the absence of the first consul from Paris for

public tranquillity, and the consequences of a miscarriage. It was then that Pichegru alluded to the changes that had taken place in public opinion, on the abstract ideas of republican government. He spoke of the Bourbons, of their misfortunes, and of their rights, without opening any plan or settled project, speaking by hypothesis—if the descent on England should prove unfortunate; if in consequence of that misfortune parties rose up again to tear their country afresh—he tried to sound Moreau on that subject, and his dispositions towards that family. It was then, for the first time, that Moreau came at the knowledge, not of a conspiracy, but the slight insinuations of an opening for one. As to Moreau, he repulsed all those insinuations, drily, laconically, and decidedly. He spoke to Pichegru of such things as being incompatible with the new ideas of the nation, and in themselves ridiculous. It was then that he conducted himself the best of any time in all the business. Pichegru became taciturn, and the meeting was finished with a request on the part of Moreau, for him never to return, which Pichegru promised. Moreau and he separated very coolly, Pichegru with an air of discontent.

"The discontent of Pichegru is a thing well ascertained, since Roland, who cannot be suspected of affection for general Moreau, says, that in returning to Moreau, he did not agree with him. Lajolais and Couchery say that he looked much discontented, and the words they attribute to him are an unequivocal proof that he was so.

"However that may be, he never again returned to Moreau—Lajolais had also been forbidden, so that every connection between Moreau and Pichegru was at an end, except that Roland had not yet been forbidden to return.

"Roland returned next day, and made the conversation turn on the same subjects with those on which Pichegru had spoke. Moreau, in a conversation with a man whom he had known for six or eight years, traced the ideas of Pichegru; but the whole, as he himself allows, was treated by Moreau as ridiculous folly. He then asked Moreau, in case of new troubles, if he had never thought of seizing some authority, which appeared to Moreau to be ridiculous; that he answered with a smile of contempt: 'That if there were troubles, the senate would be there; as to himself, he was not a madman; that before a private individual like himself, retired from military affairs and men in power, could turn in his mind any project of ambition, the whole government must be overturned, and that the consul, his family, and all those now in power, must be destroyed; and that if ever he had wished for power, it would have been when he was at the head of armies.' There he finished, and Roland, rather abruptly conducted to the door, went away."

This last passage is interpreted by the enemies of Moreau, as a vile hint to the party in concert with Pichegru; whereas every candid man will prefer to consider it, as expressive of aversion to foul means, and as a proof that the ambition of Moreau was subordinate to his virtue. Nor is the evidence of Roland, who seems to have been cajoled by the government, very decisive of the fact itself. Supposing the words to have been used, they rather account for, than justify, the banishment of Moreau.

Brutus, in the book which he wrote on virtue, related that he had seen Marcellus in exile at Mitylene, living in all the happiness which human nature is

capable of, and cultivating, with as much assiduity as ever, all kinds of laudable knowledge. He added, that this spectacle made him think it was rather he who went into banishment, since he was to return without the other, than the other who remained in it. May the exile of Moreau be softened, by employments as ennobling, and by consolers as illustrious: let him believe that, if his fellow citizens amend, he will be recalled; and that, if they do not amend, he can be no where worse than at Paris. The ignominy remains with them who persecute unjustly, not with him who suffers unjust persecution.

ART. XXXII. *An Essay on the Political Relations between Russia and France; with Remarks by the Translator, H. F. GREVILLE, Esq.* 8vo. pp. 56.

THE pamphlet before us is ascribed to a chevalier de Tinseau, from whom a letter addressed to the translator has been prefixed. This abounds with anglicisms to a degree which excites the suspicion of its having pre-existed in English. Whether Tinseau be the *nom de guerre* of a British agent; or whether the chevalier, by long residence here, has somewhat unlearnt his native idiom, is of little consequence. He sounds an alarm, which is of consequence, to the continent, for its own sake; and to Great Britain, in as much as anti-gallicanism is our habitual interest.

The prominent observations are comprized in the following passage.

“Let us now consider this vast empire, towards the complete formation of which the French are advancing with such rapid strides.

“Its basis consists of France, the Low Countries, Holland, Germany on the left side of the Rhine, Switzerland, Piedmont, and, it may be said, all the north of Italy, along the Po to the Adige, containing a concentrated population of forty-five millions of inhabitants. On the southern side of this basis are Spain and Portugal, both submissively subservient to the impulse of France, under the name of free states, until it shall please Bonaparte to deprive them of it. The French empire confines and separates them from the rest of the world, the combined efforts of which may revenge, but not wreat them from its oppressive influence. The south of Italy is no less dependent on France than the most central of its departments, and is governed by one of Bonaparte's lieutenants, under the fictitious regimen of the king of Naples, the pope, and what he stiles

through derision the king of Etruria. This vast extent of country, containing altogether about sixty-five millions of subjects, is covered against the attacks of all the sovereigns in Europe by that formidable frontier already specified, and which through the space of three hundred leagues, extends from the mouths of the Po to those of the Rhine and to the Zuyderzee. In front of this line, between the Rhine on one side, and the Prussian and Austrian dominion on the other, is a crowd of petty states, enemies or rivals to each other, without armies, without fortresses, open every where to the arms of France, trembling before her, and implicitly obedient to her orders. In the mean time this enormous aggrandisement is not owing merely to some fortunate casualties, but to a long, an obstinate, and most extensive war, mixed alternately with many successes and reverses of fortune. Fourteen years of intrigues, seductions, negotiations, perfidies, and crimes of every sort, have carried France to this height of power; and it is to be observed, that she has never ceded nor restored an inch of ground by the negotiations or the pacifications that have taken place.

“There remain but two steps more to be taken by the French government, to fix the boundaries of this empire as immutably as those of nature itself: herein they have been occupied ever since the commencement of this war, under the imposing pretext of invading England; one of these steps is towards the north-east, that is to say, Copenhagen and the entrance into the Baltic; the other towards Constantinople, and the entrance into the Black Sea.

“Already has an army victorious without fighting, and become mistress of Hanover through that mixture of intrigues and menaces which characterises French politics, seized upon both sides of the Elbe; it touches the Baltic, and severs Denmark from the rest of

Europe, at least by land. This army may in less than six weeks be successively reinforced to one hundred and fifty thousand men, that require only Bonaparte's orders to march for this purpose from Picardy, the Low Countries, Holland, and the Lower Rhine; this vast force will invade Holstein and Denmark, or more probably attack Prussia, after granting to Denmark, which the French may then leave in their rear, a transient neutrality, which will terminate in the submission of that kingdom to France without resistance, after this latter shall have either overturned or broken the strength of the Prussian monarchy.

"It may perhaps be objected, that Prussia is completely able to stop the progress of the French armies: but will it be found adequate to this task, especially should France strike the first blow? It has been shewn in the beginning of this essay, that the fate of Prussia in such a case will be decided by one or two battles. The French army, beside the advantages that have been stated, will possess perhaps that of superior numbers, and certainly that of the terror which France has hitherto diffused, by dividing nations from their chiefs, and threatening these with the whole weight of its vengeance. The discipline and bravery of the Prussian armies are unquestionable; but is it not possible that the French armies should meet with the same success on the banks of the Havel and the Spree, as on those of the Inn and the Salza? Is Prussia to flatter itself that Austria and Russia, when they see it attacked, will unite for its defence, and march to the Prussian territories, to combat an enemy that would hasten to assail them on their own? It may so happen, but is it probable? Has Prussia, which in the great contest for the defence of Europe has constantly separated its interests from those of these two powers, any right to expect such an intervention on their part? Is it not as possible, and perhaps as likely, that while Prussia is struggling against France with the majority of its forces in the Mecklenburgh and that neighbourhood, Austria and Russia may at the other extremity of the Prussian dominions seize, one of them Silesia and Little Poland, the other all the Prussian possessions as far as the Vistula, and the city of Dantzic, as well as that of Varsovia? Has not Prussia, by dividing its interests from those two powers, entitled them to do the same in their turn? and might they not deem it the safest policy, to reinforce themselves by so considerable an addition of territory, the acquisition of which would be attended with so much facility, which would associate them for their mutual defence, and give them against their new neighbour a frontier of little extent and great force? Should Prussia, in short, continue obstinately to act in concert with these two powers, in order to repel a common enemy, and to obviate a danger which threatens it particularly, does not the first of all rights,

that of self-preservation, justify such a conduct on their part, and authorize them to consult, in the midst of this general concussion of Europe, the means of saving themselves? The cabinet of Berlin may, if it please, look upon projects of this nature as chimerical; it may talk of the great Frederic, and the Prussian armies; but it is not their name, it is the genius and spirit which animated Prussia at that time, which will save it at the present. It is in the mean time a fact, that Prussia is become contiguous to the French empire, that it is the first obstacle France must overcome to extend its limits to the north, that it is unable to maintain alone so unequal a contest, and that it can only act wisely by recurring to a sincere union with two powers, that can preserve themselves without it, and possibly at its expence; but without which no future hopes of safety remain to it, but in the equity, the good faith, the moderation, and the sincere friendship of the French government.

"In such case the French government, in order to secure a continuity with Denmark, would unite with France that part of Germany which extends from Holland and the Rhine to the Baltic, taking for its frontier on the side of Germany a line drawn nearly from Cologne to Magdeburgh; then the Elbe to the conflux of the Havel; from thence a line to Prostock, or even perhaps to Stettin, and the mouths of the Oder."

It is highly important to the Prussian sovereign, and to the Prussian nation, to guard against the realization of this very probable and very practical scheme of encroachment, by a timely alliance with Russia and Great Britain. The long subsistence of petty states is become impossible on the continent; since the principles acted upon in the partition of Poland, are so unscrupulously acceded to by all the major cabinets of Europe. Whatever Prussia does not seize of independent Germany, France will seize. One of the great protectors must be chosen, even by Denmark. The sovereigns of these petty states would best perform their duty to the people, by offering to become a house of peers to the reigning dynasty of Brandenburg. They might condition for a representation of the imperial cities, and consolidate, under a sort of British constitution, the protestant north of Germany; which, if it included in one empire the whole territory from the Rhine to the Weichsel, could deliver Holland and Hanover from the French yoke, and protect Copenhagen against British invasion. A formidable empire of this description, bound by the tie of a common language, invigorated by a rational constitution,

consolidated by the force of Prussian armies, and propped against the impending onset of France by British treasures and by Russian troops, might mark a *ne plus ultra* to the northern strides of the French Hercules. If the cabinet of Berlin fears to undertake this adventurous task of aggrandizement, — minister of Britain, — dash that cabinet to pieces. Appeal to the independent genius of Germany, bid it invoke the aid of Prussian generals, and purer patriots than cabinets include, to press on the virtuous sovereign of Berlin, the preservation of his people, the wish of Eu-

rope, the interest of mankind. Would the father of his subjects shun to head a revolution, which must lift his name to apotheosis, expand his counties to an empire, extend his beneficence to millions, conferring security on the plundered, and freedom on the vassal, which would give a country to the Germans, and independence to Europe?

“Ma purchè l'altrui nave il vento opprima,
Che poi minaccia noi, questo sì sprezza;
Quasi s'ol sia perir il perir prima.

Darsi pensier delta commun salvezza,
La moderna vilta periglio stima;
E par ventura il non aver fortezza.”

ART. XXXIII. *Strictures on the Necessity of invariably maintaining the Navigation and Colonial System of Great Britain.* By Lord SHEFFIELD. 8vo. pp. 65.

OF lord Sheffield's pamphlet on the commerce with the American States, Mr. Gibbon said that it would become a classic book, if his lordship could find leisure to introduce order and ornament. The same absence of method and precision in reasoning, and of vivacity and embellishment in style, continues to dim the lustre of the noble author's patriotism. If his advice ought to be heard with attention, it ought certainly to be considered with caution.

His first argument is in the true John Bull spirit of contradiction. He says (p. 2) that, because Hauterive and Jefferson have opposed and condemned our navigation-laws, we ought to guard and protect the system; and that the object of foreign attack ought obviously to become that of domestic defence. Why so? This would in effect render foreign caprice the arbiter of our conduct. If the French happen to bepraise liberty, we are not therefore to abolish it at home; if the French institute a mere monarchy, we are not therefore to cashier our king. We are to inquire for ourselves, what is true and what is useful. If convinced by Adam Smith that prohibitions and restrictions avail little and do harm; we are not to renounce that conviction, because it has also extended to the liberal minds of Jefferson and of Gentz. As for Hauterive, he is the mere sophist of the factious cabinet of Versailles, the hired bruiser of Talleyrand; he does not advance the inferences of his judgment, and, if he did, that judgment ought to weigh very little as authority.

The fundamental principle of our navigation-laws, presents itself already in a

statute of the fifth year of Richard II. which enacts that none bring in or carry out merchandize but in English ships. This regulation was somewhat relaxed in favour of the French provinces belonging to England; for under Henry VII. additional provisions were made in the fourth year of his reign, for importing the claret of Guienne in English vessels. Selden drew the attention of the long parliament to this subject; and, by his speeches and controversial pamphlets, prepared that systematic attention of the legislature to secure a monopoly of the shipping-trade employed about our own importations and exportations, which is so efficiently pursued in the 12th Charles II. This bill, known by the name of the navigation-act, by its severe and precise definition of English vessels, completely realized what the statute of Richard II. had in view. It is a law which appears singularly wise to lord Sheffield, which he considers as the trident of the British Neptune, and which he holds up as the principal and perpetual cause of our maritime prosperity and superiority.

We doubt the utility of this vaunted navigation-law.

I. If English-built ships had no peculiar privileges, vessels would be built where timber is cheapest: in Canada, in Surinam, and elsewhere. This would occasion some exportation of shipwrights to the woodier regions of the earth, a more rapid colonization of them, and the consequent extension of the British market for produce and manufacture. It would occasion some diminution of the value of timber at home, thus cheapening the expence of naval defence

and territorial architecture, and favouring the conversion of forest into pasture. The sorts of timber too could then be suited to the probable voyage; and teak shipping could be constructed for the tropical seas, which so rapidly destroy fir and oak shipping. It would occasion the frequent purchase of foreign vessels, whenever war or similar causes interrupt the trade of the continent, and thus be continually adding the very implements of foreign commerce to our own. Our wealth would long ago have obtained a much larger share of the shipping, and of the attached commerce of the world, but for this restriction of the navigation-law. Besides, if the ships of each country are transferable to every other, a smaller number of ships can accomplish the business of the world. While the trade of the Baltic becomes inactive from frost, or of the Mediterranean from indolence, the appropriate shipping might be employed in the Atlantic; but if the proprietors of the Atlantic islands may not employ foreign vessels, they must create native ones; which in their turn will have to repose, while they might have been sold or let, beyond the Sound or the Straights. The build, wear, and tear of all this needless shipping must be levied on the consumer of removed wares in the price of freight; and thus, in some degree, discourage both the production and removal of such wares.

II. If English-manned ships had no peculiar privileges, sailors would be hired where they can be hired cheapest. For tropical voyages, lascars, for arctic voyages, norse-men would mostly be engaged, and thus the drains of war and climate on our population would imperceptibly be replaced; and the supply of natives requisite for the navy would far more easily be obtained. The expence of sailors' wages too, being in that case as low in Great Britain as in any other country, would not be peculiarly burdensome to our resident ship-owners. That depreciation of freight, which the successful competition of foreign shipping has often occasioned, and which, at times, threatens to oust us of the carrying-trade, would never result from the relative state of wages, and, therefore, less frequently occur. If, in consequence of the alertness of our masters of vessels, and of their economy of time, our ship-owners can successfully compete with foreigners, who pay lower wages

for their crews, how much vaster would be our shipping-interest, but for this restriction of the navigation-law?

III. If English-owner'd ships had no peculiar privileges, almost all vessels, not employed in the coasting-trade, would be owned conjointly by Englishmen and foreigners. The vessels trading to Hamburgh or the Baltic, would belong in part to the English houses, to whom they would be consigned here; and would belong in part to the Hamburghers or Anseatic citizens, to whom they would be consigned in the North Seas. The vessels trading to America, would have their proprietors resident there. In those trading to the Mediterranean, merchants of Livorno and Smyrna would purchase small shares, in order to secure a preference of consignment. The consequence of interesting a consignee in the profits of a ship is, that the expence of demurrage, or stay in a foreign port, is thereby greatly lessened. He has to gain by delaying a ship wholly British; he has to gain by expediting a ship partly his own. In the one case, the hulk yawns for a cargo, during months, beside the mole; in the other case, it is discharged and re-charged, like a Scotch still. Immense is the labor lost to the country, and to the world, in consequence of the impediment to foreign partnerships, imposed by this restriction of the navigation-act. But it has still another mischievous operation. In time of war, vessels jointly owner'd are easily transferred to the neutral party; and thus commerce would be very exempt from the troubles of war; but vessels, all whose owners are English, cannot suddenly, or in large numbers be transferred, so as to reap the advantages of neutrality. Hence the necessity of permitting merchants to turn their vessels into privateers. This barbarous practice increases during war the quantity of positive destruction and of unproductive labour; and it supersedes the navy in a sort of piratical vigilance, which ought rather to be the occupation and the reward of valour than of industry.

These three points are the principal provisions of the navigation-act. It requires vessels to be built at home, manned from home, owned at home. Lord Sheffield will not find it easy to prove any one of these regulations beneficial. They existed, without creating a marine, from Richard the Second to Henry the

Eighth. As soon as the colonies or plantations began to thrive, a maine grew up; which in the Dutch war of Cromwell, and in that at the beginning of the reign of Charles the Second (both before the navigation-act), was equal or superior to the united navies of France and Holland. Our naval strength has grown with our colonial intercourse, not by means of, but in spite of the act of navigation. It was found absolutely necessary to break in upon this act in the 55th of Geo. III. by what was called the Dutch Property Act; without which Britain could not have profited from the migration of Dutch capital, rendered natural by the French conquest of Holland. A further inroad of a more equivocal kind was made the year following, by conferring a dispensing power on the privy-council; a measure the resource of laziness, which cared not to discuss, and dared not to abandon decidedly, the old system. The India company has found inconvenience from the provisions which interfere with teak-shipping; but these probably, with analogous timidity, will be dropped by dispensation, and not by repeal. Are dispensations venal?

Lord Sheffield objects (p. 11.) that these suspensions, if completed, must render all England a free port. So much the better. All restrictions on exportation and importation diminish intercourse and endear commodities. Taxes on the rental of fixed property are the only ones which neither diminish the productive powers of the soil, the shelter and accommodation of the houses and machinery, or the recompence of human labour: they are the only innocent taxes. Every per centage on circulation beumbs circulation, and paralyzes industry.

We seek in vain for the arguments of lord Sheffield, being sincerely desirous of stating them in all their strength. The following declamatory assertions approach nearest to argument.

“For my own part, I see every where, and on every occasion, decided proofs both of the commercial and political utility of those laws, the effects of which have been so erroneously described. Defence and independence are more important than wealth; and, therefore, if they contributed only to the former, we should abundantly prize them. But they are the foundation of the whole, both of our maritime power and trade. Under their influence, English commerce has

diffused itself over all the world. Under their influence, that commerce, which otherwise would have fallen to decay, has been assured of the protection of an irresistible navy, and has gone forth to the four corners of the globe without the apprehension of insult or depredation. When, therefore, I observe activity, and labour, and enterprize excited and encouraged, and honourable and ample wealth thus earned and obtained, under a system which few men have the disposition fully to examine, and some with inconsiderate levity coudemn, I estimate the cause by its effects, and become more and more anxious to rescue from innovation a code which has been, and continues to be, productive of such various and inestimable advantages.

“I farther observe, that when the power and population of Great Britain were employed to establish and maintain colonies in America and the West Indies, the object was not the founding of cities, nor the extension of empire, but it was to secure to ourselves the perpetual supply of valuable markets, and the consequent employment of a greater quantity of shipping. The colonies were, therefore, to be retained under the direction of the mother-country, or the great object in founding them was at an end; and commercial restriction, and monopoly of the British market in return, were naturally to become the leading principles of colonial intercourse; in order to secure to the founders some return for the immense expence of establishment and protection.

“England is by no means singular in maintaining and acting on this principle. The means, indeed, which she has adopted, for securing to herself the trade of her colonies, are more liberal than those which have been employed by other nations; but the principle of all the mother-countries of Europe has been of the same nature and tendency; and all has alike sought to bring into their ports the most important produce of their colonies, and to retain, in full monopoly, the exclusive advantage of their supply.

“It is not now necessary to examine whether this system be impolitic or unwise. Experience, and the opinion of the best informed men, demonstrate that it must continue to be inviolably maintained. England is not to confer free commerce and navigation in return for the vexations and restrictions which are imposed by other nations; and though the navigation laws were not, as they are too firmly and too long established to be tampered with by experimental speculators, they would yet require to be cautiously and rigorously supported, if it were only because they are best correspondent with the views and regulations of other states, and because, so long as other states confine the trade of their colonies to themselves, England has not only a right, but is bound to act in the same manner.

“This is the very doctrine of the 15th of

Charles II. The preamble to that act, very judiciously states the motive of the navigation system to be the maintenance of "a greater correspondence and kindness between the subjects at home, and those in the plantations; the making the colonies yet more advantageous to the mother country, in the further employment and increase of English shipping; the rendering the navigation to and from the colonies more easy and cheap, and making the kingdom a staple, not only of the commodities of the plantations, but also of other countries, for the support of them, it being the usage of other nations to keep the plantation trade to themselves."

The independence of America has practically refuted much of this. We have no longer to ourselves the trade of that country; yet we derive more benefit from it in the present state, than ever we derived from the monopoly. England, contracted in extent, and far inferior in the number of her people to other nations, is always liable to the hostility of enemies, whose physical strength is superior to her own. To her insular situation, therefore, and to her navy, she must be indebted for her defence. Let her, then, withdraw every impediment to the farther increase of her maritime property; and, by opening to all nations the commerce of her colonies, render herself independent, even of their independence.

Lord Sheffield (at p. 41) rashly ap-

proves the principle of the attack on Copenhagen; an expedition very fatal to our continental popularity, and the real cause of that indifference to the usurpation of Hanover, which has marked the states endangered by its conquest.

To the following observation we decidedly accede: it proposes a most desirable inroad on the federative prerogatives of the crown.

"Above all, I wish that the most essential parts of the navigation laws should never be yielded by treaty, without previously referring the business to the consideration of parliament; for I cannot conceive, that to lay a treaty before parliament, when *concluded*, and when the mischief is done, is, in any respect, to submit it to their consideration; nor that it is constitutional to yield any thing, *contrary to the law of the land*, by a commercial treaty, without the knowledge and acquiescence of the legislature. I should not, however, have made this remark, if an instance had not occurred to justify it, in the 12th article of the commercial treaty with America, to which I have already alluded. Ministers seem at that time to have taken advantage of the apprehensions of the country, and of the necessity of union; the people were likely to submit to any thing that was proposed; and the navigation laws were completely suspended, as *Magna Charta*, which is not so essential to our existence as an independent nation, would possibly have been, under similar circumstances."

ART. XXXIV. *An Answer to Lord Sheffield's Pamphlet on the Subject of the Navigation System, by S. Cock, Commercial and Public Agent to the Corporation of Liverpool.* 8vo. pp. 74.

LORD Sheffield's pamphlet has been noticed at length, and our form of answer has been given in detail. This writer is no unwelcome ally; he adduces a most important collection of facts, which fully corroborate the theoretical reasoning against the utility of the boasted navigation-laws. This country has a longer line of coast than appertains to any other equally numerous population; therefore it vests more capital and more industry in maritime pursuits than any other nation. Its geographical, not its legislative peculiarities have occasioned its success in marine undertakings. But governors are always for ascribing to themselves a prosperity, which their regulations for the most part only impede. *Laissez nous faire* was the wise prayer of the merchants to Colbert: "repeal, repeal, and enact not," is the analogous wish of the ship-owners of Britain.

The following statement is conclusive against a leading argument of Lord Sheffield.

"An account of the number of Vessels, with the amount of their Tonnage, which have been built and registered in the several ports of the British empire, between the 5th of January, 1790, and the 5th of January, 1803.

Years.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
In the year 1790	- 827	- 71,090
1791	- 725	- 68,695
1792	- 766	- 68,940
1793	- 800	- 75,085
1794	- 714	- 66,021
1795	- 719	- 72,181
1796	- 823	- 94,972
1797	- 756	- 86,242
1798	- 833	- 80,319
1799	- 858	- 90,044
1800	- 1041	- 134,188
1801	- 1065	- 122,593
1802	- 1202	- 125,942

"From this statement it appears, that in the

year preceding these acts, the number of ships built in Britain did not exceed seven hundred and twenty; tons, seventy-two thousand; but after the operation of the acts, the ships built in one year exceeded twelve hundred; tons, upwards of one hundred and twenty thousand; and in the three last years the rise is progressive; whence it is evident, indeed obvious, that all the pathetic lamentations of his lordship for the decline of our *ship-building* are without any foundation in fact; because, instead of declining, ship-building has risen from seven hundred in

the year to twelve hundred, and a much greater proportion of tonnage."

This controversy is of great national moment, and owes important elucidations to the information and insight of Mr. Cock. Not only our commercial prosperity, but our national independence hang on the maintenance of our naval ascendancy. It is to Thetis that we must look for defence against the hundred-handed Briareus of military rapacity, whom all men call Bonaparte.

ART. XXXV. *The Claims of the British West India Colonists to the Right of obtaining necessary Supplies from America, and of employing the necessary Means of effectually obtaining those Supplies under a limited and duly regulated Interchange, stated and vindicated; in Answer to Lord Sheffield's Strictures; by G. W. JORDAN, Esq. F. R. S. Colonial Agent for Barbadoes.* 8vo. pp. 120.

"Those various squadrons variously design'd,
Each vessel freighted with a several load,
Each squadron waiting for a several wind,
All find but one."——

For, under our navigation-laws, to Britain, to Britain, is the compulsory destination, of what neighbours are bidding for, and the metropolis glutted with. But one should begin with the egg, and not with the clucking.

"In a conference with the chancellor of the exchequer, on the 15th of March, the minister, desiring to know to what extent it was proposed to open the American intercourse, the committee in attendance answered, That the colonists demanded only such an intercourse, as by furnishing them in the cheapest manner with some sorts of provisions, lumber, and cattle, might render their intercourse with the mother-country still more advantageous, since all their efforts as agriculturists, or as manufacturers, must depend on their being supplied with sustenance, raw materials, and means of labour, and with packages to send their produce into

Great Britain, and that in the opinion of the deputation, these objects might be accomplished, if vessels of a size, unfitted for crossing the Atlantic, might be permitted to bring the articles in question to the West Indies, and to take back the bare value of such cargoes in sugar, coffee, or any other produce of the colonies. The chancellor of the exchequer expressed himself favourably, as to the fairness and moderation of this proposal, but declined as at that time to enter into the discussion."

This proposal is here defended with copious and satisfactory arguments against the opposition of lord Sheffield, whose inflexible attachment to the navigation-laws we have already sufficiently criticized. Let it be recollected, that the North-American colonies were disaffected by obstinately delaying to infringe on the navigation laws; let it be observed, that symptoms are multiplying in the West-Indies of a disposition to advance similar claims, and to pursue a similar redress.

ART. XXXVI. *The Opportunity; or, Reasons for Alliance with St. Domingo, by the Author of the Crisis of the Sugar Colonies.* 8vo. pp. 156.

THE Crisis of the Sugar-colonies, a former book of this writer, was reviewed, vol. I. p. 401; his new work will be read with equal interest. He is a sort of literary Toussaint, skilfully and daringly anxious for the liberty of the negroes; but, in his plans of practical conduct, premature for easy success. He is impatient of inaction, and has not acquired that political wisdom, which consists in meddling the least possible. After detailing, with much information, the state of San Domingo, his advice to the

prime minister of Great Britain is thus given:

"You ought, sir, I conceive, to acknowledge, without delay, the liberty of the negroes of St. Domingo, and to enter into federal engagements with them as a sovereign and independent people; and you ought farther, not only to grant, but, if necessary, to volunteer a guarantee of their independence against the republic of France.

"Should this proposition startle at first, by its apparent boldness, it is no more than I expect. So let me again hint, did the opinion maintained in the Crisis, that the co-

lossal republic of France, the terror of continental Europe, could not with all its force, crush this same petty community of negroes. So it might be added, did at its first promulgation, almost every opinion or measure of national policy, which in this age of wonders has ultimately proved to have been wise. These are times in which hesitating choice and tardy decision will generally be found at a fault, and in which a British statesman should remember Cato's maxim, that

" — Fear admitted into public councils

" Betrays like treason."

" But should you favour me with a patient attention, you will, perhaps, find that the course here proposed, though a decided, is not a rash one: that the measures I recommend are bold in appearance only, not in reality; and, that they are in truth essential to any plan of colonial policy, from which future security can be expected or hoped.

" Let not my advice be prejudged at the outset by that dislike of innovation in the abstract, which the experience of the age has inspired. A new order of things has arisen in the West Indies, to which former precedents are quite inapplicable. The British statesman has there no beaten path to pursue; he has a new country before him, and a new road to explore. An unprecedented revolution has rent asunder our old colonial policy, and farther perseverance in it, out of mere respect to its antiquity, would savour more of pedantry than prudence: its former wisdom, had it indeed been wise, would, perhaps, be the clearest evidence of its future folly.

" It was, I grant, a fundamental maxim of all the powers of Europe, who possessed colonies in the Antilles, that the supremacy of the European race, and the depression of the African, must be at all times, and at the expence of every other public principle, maintained. It was a rule paramount in importance to all national rivalships, and to all national quarrels. There was an intercommunity of feelings and privileges among the white-skinned colonists, which, when the subordination of negroes was in question, made English and French, Dutch and Spanish, European friend and European enemy, very unimportant distinctions.

" But this strong chain of sympathy, forged by mutuality of despotic abuse, and rivetted by a sense of common danger, has been broken by the same shock that overthrew the social edifices of Europe; and effects have followed, of which the stability can now no more be doubted, than the novelty or the importance.

" An African people, insubordinated to any European inhabitants of the same territory, and independent of all exterior government, is planted in the centre of the Antilles; and possesses an entire island, the most important of the group: an island of far greater extent than any other (Cuba alone excepted) in the whole Western Archipelago,

and which, in population and produce, was lately equal to all the rest united.

" This new society has already proved itself, in its very infancy, unconquerable by the greatest powers in the civilized world, having successively defended its freedom and its territory against the long continued hostility of Great Britain at one period, and against the vast, impetuous, persevering, and merciless efforts of France at another. By power and victory, therefore, as well as by freedom and independency, is the African race raised from its late prostrate and despised state in this very considerable part of the West Indies. Instead of that abject and brutal condition, which was before their universal lot, the black islanders may now reasonably elevate their heads above their pale-faced neighbours; for, whether their country shall remain permanently severed from the dominion of France or not, it possesses a potential independency, of which none of its neighbours can boast; while they continue to lean for support and protection upon distant states, St. Domingo is found to be able not only to sustain itself without the aid of those states, but to set the greatest of them at defiance.

" To persist, after so extreme a revolution, in our anterior policy, would be more irrational, than even to retain the prejudices by which that policy was introduced and upheld. If we can be so far the dupes of prepossession as still to hold these sable heroes and patriots personally cheap, let us at least respect their power, and advert to the danger of still acting towards them upon principles of Creolian antipathy and contempt."

The method chosen for recommending this opinion is by showing any other plan of conduct to be mischievous. Our author thus classes the possible lines of proceeding.

" The first step towards a right choice, is to survey attentively the different objects among which we have to chuse; and, as it seems to me, that in this case there are, in a general view, but four different paths of conduct, in one of which you must of necessity tread, it may be proper to say something of each. They are,

" 1st. To interdict all commercial intercourse whatever, between his majesty's subjects and the people of St. Domingo.

" 2d. To permit such intercourse, but without any conventional basis.

" 3d. To enter into some commercial treaty or convention with the negro chiefs, not involving any relations closer than those of general amity and trade.

" 4th. To adopt the decisive measures which I have ventured to recommend."

And why not sit with folded arms, and do nothing? Let those, who can find their advantage in an unauthorized

commerce with San Domingo, and who are content to run the risks of plunder and confiscation, without expecting the metropolitan country to avenge such catastrophes, seize the opportunity of trade. But if government undertakes either to interdict, or to permit, or to limit the commercial relations of its subjects with the free blacks; it must employ force to prevent, or to protect, or to regulate such intercourse; and it must attempt to punish the very probable seizures of skiffs and massacres of crews, which, in their fits of rapacity, the black barbarians will occasionally perpetrate. The moment government is provoked to employ force, a new foolish and hopeless attempt at the conquest of San Domingo must begin, and a drain of men and treasure must be opened, as destructive to our interests as to our reputation.

San Domingo, under its black chiefs, will probably become the great slave-

market of the West Indies. As soon as every vestige of white civilization is abolished, and the few instruments, utensils, and ornaments, inherited from the Europeans, are used up, the blacks will begin to sell one another in order to obtain more. Their courage and idleness will prefer a predatory war with each other for captives, to the slow toil of raising sugar, coffee, or cotton, with which muskets and rum might also be purchased. They will buy women, practise polygamy, rear children, and sell men; and thus accommodate the productive and breed of negroes to the effectual demand of the neighbourhood. The West India islands will then be stocked with labourers on a much cheaper footing than from Africa; and with labourers born to the climate, and not likely to die in the seasoning. This, at least, is the most natural tendency and termination of negro insurrection.

ART. XXXVII. *A Postliminious Preface to the Historical Review of the State of Ireland, by F. PLOWDEN, Esq. containing a Statement of the Author's Communications with the Right Hon. H. Addington, and some of his Colleagues, upon the Subject of that Work; some Strictures upon the Falsities of the British Critic, and other anonymous Traducers of the Irish Nation, &c.* 4to. pp. 45.

IN our last volume, at p. 248, the large work is analyzed, to which this pamphlet, with Irish aptness, is entitled a postliminious preface. It replies to some animadversions of the British Critic, and it narrates a sort of chaffering with Mr. Addington, about the political complexion of the Historical Review, which

throws a diverting light on the manner in which the verdict of posterity is often put up to auction, and the trumpet of fame minted upon discount into drachmas. The observations on lord Redesdale's letters are neither extensive nor important.

ART. XXXVIII. *Strictures upon an Historical Review of the State of Ireland, by F. PLOWDEN, Esq. or a Justification of the Conduct of the English Governments in that Country, from the Reign of Henry the Second to the Union of Great Britain and Ireland.* 8vo. pp. 232.

THESE Strictures on Mr. Plowden's Historical Review of the State of Ireland have already appeared piece-meal in the British Critic: they are animated by a party-spirit of an opposite kind from that by which Mr. Plowden is actuated.

The statesman will prefer Mr. Plowden's point of view. He enters into the grievances of the Irish nation, he justifies their complaints, he extenuates their rebellion, he encourages them to hope from the union a policy more tolerant, and a treatment more generous. This spirit of confession, concession, and amendment is clearly the balsam for infusing affection, where wounds of deadly hate have pierced so deep. It is the

proper method of attaching Ireland to the union, and of making one nation out of provinces so lately at civil war. Had the severities been adequately provoked, it would be expedient to forget the provocation.

The British Critic, on the contrary, is solicitous in every possible case to deny the ill-usage: if there is nothing to blame in the conduct hitherto observed toward Ireland, there is nothing to alter. Every woe is to ake afresh, every wound to bleed afresh. Catholics will be persecuted as before, under pretence of jacobinism; torture and military outrage will be substituted once more to humanity and justice; and insurrection again

incurred to draw off invasion from Great Britain — if the governing classes continue to view with approbation the sacrifice of one sect to the ecclesiastical supremacy of another.

But whatever objections we may feel to the temper and tendency of this pamphlet, we admire in many respects its execution. Great reading of the Irish historians, and of the connected sources of intelligence, is displayed; and many local inattentions of Mr. Plowden are indicated with more harshness than the mere love of truth would have inspired,

but with more penetration than it would become him to overlook in a future edition.

What is most exceptionable in the first portion of these Strictures drew some animadversions from Mr. Plowden in his late Postliminious Preface, where he accuses his reverend antagonist of *doulodynamy*, or servility to, power: but there is yet room, on his part, for criticism more detailed, for investigation more particular, and for a defence more satisfactory.

ART. XXXIX. *Correspondence between the Right Hon. Lord Redesdale, Lord High Chancellor of Ireland, and the Right Hon. the Earl of Fingall.* 8vo. pp. 51.

A MODEST Apology for the Roman Catholics of Great Britain was printed in 1800, for Dr. Geddes, containing a most learned and argumentative reply to all the arguments against catholic emancipation, which the superstition of bigotry has imagined, the sophistry of office professed, or the jealousy of tyranny enforced. It is a pamphlet which exhausts the topic, and which, not to have read is a reproach to the literary acquirements of lord Redesdale. Yet his lordship cannot have perused this deservedly celebrated work, or he could surely never have penned the following words:

“I can consider no man (whatever his profession of loyalty may be) as truly the loyal subject of a king, whom he thus holds up to his people as the object of disaffection, nay, of hatred, because that king holds a different opinion in matters of religion from those who adhere to the see of Rome, and because he refuses any obedience, in matters temporal, to that see.”

Where such preposterous opinions are imputed to the people by the magistrate without scruple and without foundation, a reciprocal mistrust must prevail, and a consequent aversion be eventually generated. Confidence attracts, precaution repels allegiance. A persevering system of counter-intrenchment and mutual suspicion is sure, at length, to bring on insurrection and persecution. Civil war knows only alternations of evil, the capricious licentiousness of anarchy, or the uniform oppression of military prevalence. Let the magistrate then, if too

conscious of unkindness to dare to sleep, at least *affect* to slumber; and let him recollect that rebellions have usually succeeded to the assertion of extravagant prerogatives, and to the dissemination of opprobrious accusations. How shall his majesty's conscience be lulled and soothed into repose; if, while he wears a title to the crown, resulting from the union of the two kingdoms, one implied condition of Ireland's assent, the emancipation of her catholic people, should peevishly and treacherously be any longer withheld by ministers? The indignant honour of the sovereign will surely dismiss such servants.

A taste for uniformity, says Montesquieu, infallibly stamps a vulgar mind. Why should the same trees be made to grow on the opposite banks of the lake? leave the Lombardy poplars there, and the beeches of Saxony here. It might have been wished for the sake of the arts, that the catholic religion, which favours a splendid worship, had prevailed in the richer country; and that protestantism, which has been found more conducive to the instruction of the lower classes, and, consequently, to their advancement in life, had prevailed in the poorer country. If a greater variety of sects were every where contrasted, and in practical activity, it is probable that each class of society would adhere to the form of worship most adapted to its own moral interests and intellectual acquirements; and that all would be better provided with a credible and a vital religion.

ART. XL. *An Inquiry into the Causes of Popular Discontents in Ireland, by an Irish Country Gentleman.* 8vo. pp. 74.

THIS author, who is, on every account, worthy of attention, classes the causes of the popular discontents of Ireland under the following heads, and allots to each a chapter of comment.

" 1. The recollection, which exists in Ireland, of being a conquered people.

" 2. The great confiscations of private property.

" 3. The distinctions between the protestants and roman catholics.

" 4. The distinctions between the members of the church of England, the protestants, and presbyterians.

" 5. Tithes.

" 6. The degraded state of the peasantry.

" 7. The influence of a republican party.

" 8. The union.

1. For the first ground of discontent, there is no complete remedy : the past cannot unhappen, nor can its records be obliterated. But the Irish authors can explain to their fellow-subjects the extreme absurdity of hereditary hatreds, and of taking amiss, at the hands of the present generation, things performed without their concurrence. This ground of discontent is disgraceful to the ignorance and bigotry of the Irish.

2. The ancient confiscations of private property were, no doubt, unjust. The right of the original proprietor must always have resulted from habitual undisturbed possession. A new prescriptive claim has now grown up in behalf of the new holders, and the law of all nations recognizes a prescription of two generations as a valid title. The only persons, who have a right to complain of confiscations, are those born during the original tenure ; because their education and station in life may have been accommodated to the possession ; but those born after the privation are, of course, reared accordingly, and are brought up to work if they cannot afford to play.

3. and 4. The distinctions between the catholics, the church of Englanders, or bucerists, and the calvinists, are a disgrace to the party in power. We trust the late bloodshed is to be the last which intolerance will be able to spill.

5. Tythes are commutable for modusses, and will, we hope, in due time, be so commuted, both in England and in Ireland ; the modusses might then be

funded on the same plan as the land-tax was redeemed, and thus the ecclesiastical pensioners, like the other public servants, would have government-security for their incomes, and agriculture would be delivered from this ill-contrived burden, natural enough in Palestine before the invention of money, but a disgrace to the civilization of this age, and retained only by the lazy superstition of the Spaniards, and by the English.

6. The state of the peasantry does not seem capable of legislative improvement ; with the growth of industry and opulence, labour will rise in value, and instruction be offered for sale ; but in the meanwhile, the remedy is not easy.

7. That a republican party should exist in Ireland, and throughout Europe, and under all hereditary constitutions of government, is neither to be wondered at, nor perhaps to be regretted : such persons are continually indicating public grievances, and pointing out to governments the laws and institutions which require amendment. Like the censors of the Roman republic, they go about finding fault for the public good ; their mission is to abate nuisances, their occupation to denounce abuses, their business to detect wrongs. It may require some monkish self-denial to enlist in such an order, which, by the management of the magistrate, is, for the most part, excluded from offices of profit and distinction : but the order itself ought carefully to be kept alive by the protection of juries, and the reverence of the people.

8. The union appears to us greatly undervalued by this writer. The independence of parliament is obviously increased by the junction ; and from the independence of parliament, whenever it is sufficient to dictate ministers to the crown, will flow a purer and wiser legislation. An entire community of laws and taxes would emancipate and enrich both countries. The larger the circuit of empire comprehended under a given representation, the greater the chance for exalted talents in the statesmen : Ireland is too small for self-government, and cannot grow the requisite crop of merit.

ART. XLI. *A Description of the Condition and Manners of the Peasantry of Ireland, such as they were between the years 1780 and 1790; by ROBERT BELL, LL.B.* 8vo. pp. 43.

IN all stages of society there is great inequality of welfare: some have much, and some have little to spend, and, if the attention of the people is drawn to their comparative condition in life, there must always be motives of discontent. Certain grievances can be redressed by government; all those, for instance, which result from positive statutes. Those laws, which prohibit the combinations of journeymen, can be repealed; and thus labour may be assisted in securing a less inadequate reward. Those laws which prohibit the importation of corn, can be repealed; and thus the food of the people can be cheapened to a lower average. Those laws which exclude from offices of emolument, persons who have got by heart particular catechisms, can be repealed; and thus the jealousies of emulation may be restricted to the comparison of merit. Other grievances cannot be redressed by government; all those, for instance, which result from the want of demand for labour and produce. If worsted stuffs go out of fashion, government cannot bestow on the towns, engaged in such branches of manufacture, their pristine prosperity: the returns of the merchant, and the wages of the journeymen, must incur a proportionate diminution; until the superfluous capitals, and superfluous hands, are expelled into more promising situations. If a country is thinly inhabited, imperfectly intersected by roads, and seldom visited by travellers, the demand for hay, milk, horses, and similar objects of agriculture, which owe their value to their locality, will not recompense the farmer liberally for their production. In the one case, we ought to expostulate with the magistrate, and to solicit his interference; in the other case, we ought calmly to await the natural effects of the progress of opulence, of population, and of invention. The condition of the peasantry of Ireland is bad; but it results less from superfluous laws, than from deficient riches. The catholic emancipation would benefit the civilized classes, not the poorer: these must await the growth of towns, to find a better market for their industry. The multiplication of banks, the consequent abundance of paper-money, the competition of lenders to accommodate speculative adventurers, these are the processes

by which the foundation of manufactures, of fisheries, of commerce, is accomplished. The speculators in corn, who occasion a temporary dearth, are the most efficient patrons of agriculture. Poverty is not to be cured by describing it, or reasoning about it; but by the endeavour of each to earn much, and to save something. He, who better his own condition in life, assists to better that of every fellow-citizen, by means of the demand arising from his expenditure.

This writer has drawn up an interesting account of the condition of the Irish poor. We think that he overrates their former well-being; but that he describes with fidelity their actual manners. He has collected much historical, and much ethical information. His main drift seems to be the organization of a better system of popular instruction; and he has condensed his favourite positions in an appendix which we repeat.

"Perhaps there never was a race of men who had a stronger desire, and less means, to procure scholastic information, than the wretched peasantry of Ireland. Great numbers of them were ignorant from absolute necessity; and the consciousness of that ignorance, often became a source of unhappiness. The instruction received by those children, who happened to be sent to what they called a school, was not only bad, but sometimes worse than no instruction at all. Instead of expanding, it served to narrow their minds; and instead of inspiring them with notions of morality, it paved the way for the commission of every species of vice.

"That this barbarous system was caused by that government which long ruled over Ireland with violence, oppression, and folly; is as well ascertained as any historical fact can be. A government which expects its subjects to be peaceable, orderly, and obedient to the laws, must take care to have the rising generation instructed in the principles of public and private virtue. But the old rulers of Ireland, with a degree of sottish bigotry, of stupid pride, and active malevolence, of which a parallel is scarcely to be found in the Turkish history; not only forbore to encourage public instruction, but did every thing in their power to check and crush it. The laws passed in the reigns of William and Anne, with a view of converting the natives of Ireland from the popish to the protestant religion, by force, have been already noticed. The direct and avowed object of those laws was to shut out all kind of

instruction from the children of Irish Roman Catholics. If ever there was any one legislative measure more pregnant with folly and mischief than another, it was that of telling the majority of the subjects they must not read, unless they changed their religion. It was a law of such monstrous injustice and tyranny, as to render the enforcement of it impracticable; like every other bad law, it vitiated those that were good: and the people, having broken through it from necessity, were led into habits of disobedience of all law. This was actually the case of the Catholics of Ireland. They openly violated all the laws that forbade them to be instructed; and they did so in a manner that was at once degrading to the legislature, injurious to themselves, and dangerous to the state.

"The only way by which the catholic peasants could have been prevented from reading, was to have ordered a party of soldiers to be posted in every village, and to destroy all the pieces of printed or written paper they could find. Had this been done, one solitary advantage would have followed. The peasants, learning nothing good, would have imbibed nothing that was bad, in the course of their reading. But, in the very act of violating a public law, they received a certain kind of instruction which was worse than ignorance. Their teachers were generally men of the very lowest class: a knowledge of writing, and the common rules of arithmetic, was generally considered a sufficient qualification for them to assume the office of schoolmasters. But of moral truths, of history, geography, or the construction of language, they knew nothing. They could barely read a common English book; and what little they knew of the English language, they spoke incorrectly. They could not, therefore, communicate to their scholars what they did not know themselves; and, if they could, the poverty of the parents put it out of their power to procure the necessary books for the children. Books that could have conveyed any knowledge of history were too voluminous, and consequently too dear to be purchased: books of morality were above their comprehension: and their clergy would not permit them to read the Bible or Testament. Their reading then, consisted of vile stories, which, without conveying instruction to the mind, either filled it with extravagant romantic notions, incompatible with their station in life; or gave scope and activity to the worst passions. The books that were used at these wretched schools, tended as much to prevent the peasantry of Ireland from becoming good subjects, as any of the circumstances already noticed. Romances describing the manners of barbarous and superstitious ages, were not calculated to inspire youth with correct notions of law or government; especially when unaccompanied with any other kind of reading, that might do away the bad impressions they had made. But this was not all: the evil

would have been comparatively trifling, if the young peasants had read nothing worse than the wild miraculous tales of other times and countries. The histories of some of the very worst characters, from among themselves, also formed a part of their studies. In the perusal of these, youth became familiarized to offences of the most violent and atrocious nature; and were taught to look upon robbers, incendiaries, murderers, and violators of women, as objects of admiration. The transition from theory to practice was but short. And crimes proceeded more frequently from an inherent depravity in the perpetrators, than from that desire of gain which constitute their origin in most other countries.

"Besides those just alluded to, the country was frequently inundated with another species of publications, perhaps equally as destructive to public and private morality. These consisted of songs and ballads, composed in the vilest and the coarsest language, and conveying sentiments the most obscene and vicious that ever tended to corrupt the human mind. And such was the extent to which they prevailed among the lower orders of the Irish, that their priests were frequently obliged to denounce anathemas from the altars, against persons who should sing or repeat certain ballads.

"To that defective and pernicious mode of instruction already noticed, there was one exception, which the philanthropic mind cannot contemplate without some degree of pleasure, because it shews to what an extent the love of learning prevailed among these people, and to what useful purposes they might have been converted, under any system erected on the basis of wisdom and justice. An English gentleman, whose son has stood him in SEVEN or EIGHT HUNDRED POUNDS, before he acquired that insignificant portion of classical learning which was necessary to qualify him for admission to the university of Oxford; will hardly believe that the sons of some of the most indigent and obscure peasants in Ireland, were able to study and become acquainted with the best Greek and Roman authors; that they had taste to discriminate the beauties contained in them; and frequently conversed with each other in the Latin language; which (by the bye) they spoke much more correctly than English. It was no uncommon thing to see poor lads who had left their homes without shoes or stockings, or perhaps the smallest sum of money in their pockets, wandering through the country in search of scholastic instruction, and living on the bounty of those whom they had applied to for relief, which was hardly ever refused them. In this latter circumstance they were distinguished from all other mendicants, as well as in the compassionate attention they experienced from most people.—They called themselves *poor scholars*: and that name was always a sufficient passport for a temporary lodging and entertainment in the house of

any peasant, whose hospitable spirit the cold hand of want had not extinguished. They were hardly ever refused admittance into any school; where they were instructed gratuitously; and of which the master took care they should not be reproached for their poverty. In return for this kindness, after they had made some progress, they assisted in teaching the younger boys. The part of Ireland to which poor scholars chiefly resorted, was Munster; because in that province the classical schools were always the best and the most numerous. The ultimate object which they had in view, was that of being admitted into the Romish priesthood. If they were diligent in their studies, and correct in their conduct, they seldom failed of having their ambition gratified. Among the Roman Catholic clergy, were many men of learning and exemplary lives, who had acquired their education in the manner just described. There were even instances of some poor scholars having been admitted into the university of Dublin, and there distinguished themselves by their progress in classical and scientific knowledge.

"It would be foreign to the present subject to enter into the history of those institutions called endowed and chartered schools, which the benevolent zeal of individuals had founded from their private property, with a view of extending the protestant religion. It may be necessary, however, to notice them, so far as they formed a part of that general system of corruption and absurdity, which prevailed throughout the whole of Ireland. The peasantry, as must appear from what has been already said, could derive no benefit from these schools: for such of them as had not fallen into abuse and decay, were inaccessible to the children of any, except Protestants. And their utility was of a very limited nature. But the greater number of these foundations (particularly those which had promised superior advantages, and to which superior endowments had been granted) were not only useless and mischievous.

ART. XLII. *Observations and Reflections on the State of Ireland; respectfully submitted to the Consideration of the British Nation; by* ROB. STEARNE TIGHE, Esq. 8vo. pp. 98.

THESE Observations deserve every attention for their equitable object, and their propriety of execution. May they infuse that spirit of concession and repeal, so long the vain wish of every friend to the real union of the Irish and the British people! Is it for this nation to have to apologize for its pusillanimous mistrust,

While they neglected and injured the cause of learning, they operated as so many monopolies, to drive all fair competition out of the market. They were sinecure places for the nominal masters of them, who received almost all the emoluments arising from the endowments, without doing any public service: and the men who did the duty that was to be performed, had scarcely a sufficiency to subsist on.* About the year 1787, or 1788, certain commissioners† were appointed by parliament, to make a general enquiry into the state of education, and of the schools in Ireland. They proceeded in their enquiries with the most laudable activity, zeal, and perseverance. They performed the whole of their duty; in the course of which, they discovered the most flagrant and shameful abuses.† The public was given to understand that all these would be radically cured, and that a great, extensive, and effectual plan of education would be adopted: no such thing was ever done. The business was hardly proposed, when it met with resistance, and fell to the ground. Like every other fair blossom that had shot forth for a moment, as it were, in mockery of the Irish nation; this was blasted by the pestilential breath of selfishness and corruption."

There is a celebrated work of Diderot, *De l'Education publique*, which was transmitted to the empress Catherine, and which has had its influence on the late philosophically methodic arrangement, for providing Russia with schools, so honourable to the benevolence of the czar Alexander. If the natural growth of instruction ought any where to be accelerated by the patronage of the sovereign, it is in such countries as Russia and Ireland, where the thinness of the middle class, and their local distribution, prevents that dispersion of the demand for schools, without which, instruction would be too generally inaccessible.

and its ungenerous jealousy? Must we admit with the Alvares of Voltaire,

"Nous egorgeons ce peuple, au lieu de le gagner.
Par nous tout est en sang, par nous tout est en poudre;
Et nous n'avons du ciel imité que le foudre."

* The author knew of one school, of which the master (a beneficed clergyman, who never went near it), received FIFTEEN HUNDRED POUNDS a year from the endowment: while the usher, a man of learning, who did all the duty, had but FORTY!!!

† The right hon. Isaac Corry, member for Newry; and the late right hon. John Hely Hutchinson, provost of Dublin college, were among the number.

† The author was summoned before these commissioners, at the castle of Dublin, in 1788, in order to give information, on oath, concerning a certain institution, of which the author had some knowledge. On that occasion, he stated facts, at which they all lifted up their hands, with astonishment and indignation.

ART. XLIII. *Thoughts on the present State of Ireland, addressed to the Members of the United Parliament.* 8vo. pp. 60. •

THIS pamphlet is written with much literary skill; and will therefore be read with pleasure by the educated public: it deserves to supply an extract.

“On the delicate subject of tythes gathered from the poor (I mean the very poor cottier of Ireland), I am afraid to touch. The question has been often argued, and has always terminated with the same success: but my object is the amelioration of the condition of the poor. Their case is different, in one point of view, from the poor of any other country—they are taxed, in common with other persuasions, parochially for the repairs of a church which they dare not enter under the terrors almost of excommunication; they support by their grudging tenths the ministers of a religion whom they never address but upon those occasions; they must build, support, and maintain, by their mite of subscription, their own house of worship, their bishops, priests, friars, and all those set in authority over them. In these circumstances dare I suggest the possibility of exempting those from the spiritual tax, who were thought objects fit to be relieved from the temporal tax upon one single hearth, some few years since? Could there be an exemption from tythe extended to the labouring poor of those uncultivated bogs, which they might thus be induced to reclaim? Suppose for the life of the improver, or for seven years; the farmer would find his advantage in leasing to the labourer; thus to reap the advantage of a cultivated spot after the determination of the lease, and the poor labourer to enjoy it, for the benefit of himself and family, after the first or second year. The general benefit to the country at large would be obvious, nor would the interests of the church be injured in any manner, (save perhaps by this innovation upon tythes,) because we all know that these bogs

produce nothing but turf, which is not tytheable, but that when reclaimed they produce most excellent crops, and in their course of future tillage would be ultimately of advantage to the revenues of the church itself, as well as to the state; and in time, by this comparatively slight encouragement, reclaim many of those small tracts of bogs, which Mr. Young, the agriculturist, emphatically calls ‘heaps of dung,’ requiring only to have seeds thrown into them to make the richest and most fertile soils. Beside national encouragement from parliament for the improvement of these bogs, in which all are interested, I would remunerate the clergyman for the supposed injury by an assessment, by grand juries, for every acre so improved, from the parish or barony at large. The advantages held out by the Dublin society do not reach the description of the poor of whom I speak; the tracts required to be improved are beyond his capital or his means: my object would be to encourage the very poor man, to reclaim the little spots behind his solitary cabin, through these dreary tracts, and where frequently you see him make his humble attempt under all the pressure of difficulties that surround him; and to suffer him to enjoy the fruits of his labour unclogged.”

It would be fortunate for Ireland if farming would become so unprofitable in Great Britain, as to tempt the migration thither of young farmers educated in our habits: the smallness of the farms, and the want of capital, are more in fault than the government, in not occasioning a better cultivation of the soil of the western island. That will keep pace with the general progress of opulence.

ART. XLIV. *An Account of Louisiana: being an Abstract of Documents delivered in by, or transmitted to, Mr. Jefferson, President of the United States of America, and by him laid before Congress, and published by their Order.* 8vo. pp. 43.

THE North American commonwealth is not likely to go to war for an increase of territory. The recent acquisition of Louisiana has placed at the disposal of congress a vast unknown extent of country for the most part fertile in its soil and temperate in its climate. Into this the swarms of adventurers from the Atlantic states may pour for centuries without feeling themselves cramped for room, while the entire possession of the navigation of the Mississippi excludes French intrigue and postpones the necessity of

any serious discussion with the Spaniards till the chain of confederated republics begins to press upon the frontier of Mexico. The information which has been obtained for the use of the government of the United States is arranged in the work before us under the following heads:

I. BOUNDARIES.

The western boundaries of Louisiana as well as those to the north are by no means accurately defined; the course of

the Mississippi marks a very distinct frontier as far south as the 31° lat. but from this point it is understood by the Americans that the eastern line runs as far back at least as the river Perdido beyond the Mobile river, and therefore includes a part of West Florida.

2. DIVISIONS.

The province was distributed by the Spanish government into eighteen divisions, of which only those towards the mouth of the Mississippi were contiguous; the rest are

“ separated from each other by immense and trackless deserts, having no communication with each other by land, except now and then a solitary instance of its being attempted by hunters, who have to swim rivers, expose themselves to the inclemency of the weather, and carry their provisions on their backs for a time proportioned to the length of their journey. This is particularly the case on the west of the Mississippi, where the communication is kept up only by water, between the capital and the distant settlements; three months being required to convey intelligence from the one to the other by the Mississippi. The usual distance accomplished by a boat in ascending, is five leagues per day.

“The rapidity of the current, in the spring season especially, when the waters of all the rivers are high, facilitates the descent, so that the same voyage by water, which requires three or four months to perform from the capital, may be made to it in from twelve to sixteen days. The principal settlements in Louisiana are on the Mississippi, which begins to be cultivated about twenty leagues from the sea, where the plantations are yet thin, and owned by the poorest people. Ascending, you see them improve on each side till they reach the city, which is situated on the east bank, on a bend of the river, thirty-five leagues from the sea.”

In Upper Louisiana there are hardly any settlements; although the richness of the soil will no doubt speedily attract

inhabitants: the territory which borders on Mexico is represented “as one immense prairie. It produces nothing but grass, and is filled with buffalo, deer, and other kinds of game, the land being too rich for the growth of forest trees.” Some lead mines near the Mississippi are already worked to a considerable extent, and about a thousand miles up the Missouri an extensive mountain of rock-salt has been discovered, and caves in which saltpetre has been collected.

3. INHABITANTS AND THEIR ORIGIN.

The inhabitants of Louisiana are chiefly the descendants of French and Canadians; French about New Orleans, and Canadians in the upper settlements on the Mississippi: there are also a few Germans and English, and several Americans. The population according to the latest returns, but confessedly underrated, amounts to 21,244 whites, 12,920 slaves, 1768 free mulattoes—total 42,375. The registered militia amounts to 10,340. The Indian nations on the Mississippi amount in all to about 9000 individuals; and on the Missouri are about 20,000.

4. CULTIVATION AND PRODUCE.

The chief articles of produce are lumber, tar, pitch, lead, horses, and cattle; those of cultivation, are wheat, maize, tobacco, cotton, indigo, and sugar. This latter appears to be attracting very general attention in the south of Louisiana, and will no doubt become the principal staple of foreign commerce: in 1802 the quantity imported into the United States from this province amounted to 1,576,933lbs.

5. NAVIGATION.

In 1802, 265 sail of merchant ships entered the Mississippi; their tonnage was equal to 21,241 tons, of which 130 vessels (21,383 tons) were American.

Aat. XLV. Origines Gauloises, celles des plus anciens Peuples de l'Europe puisées dans leur vrai Source. Par LATOUR D'AUVERGNE-CORRET, premier Grenadier de la Republic Française. 8vo. pp. 354.

THE different provincial dialects are melting so fast into the great languages of Europe, that the next generation will no longer be able to collect sufficient documents for the investigation of their origin and the classification of their relationship. How desirable therefore that a dictionary or grammar, and a few specimens of such popular songs and trans-

lated prayers as are yet in being, might be drawn up and printed off for every district of which the jargon is peculiar. It will then be possible to ascertain by actual inspection which are the unmixed and which the mongrel nations; and whether a given tribe was wafted westward with the first, the second, the third, or the fourth wave of Asiatic population.

France was already colonized by four distinct savage races when the Romans first introduced their language, laws and civilization. 1st. In the south, dwelt Aquitani, or Basques, as they are now called, of whose language Larramendi compiled a dictionary, and Haouy published a grammar. The oldest Basque ballad relates to an incident of the year 1322; the translation of the Testament was printed at Rochelle in 1571. 2d. In the central parts, along a diagonal line stretching from the Alps to the mouth of the Loire, dwelt and talked the Gauls, properly so called. The French have not been so attentive to preserve the memorials of this their mother-tongue, as of the contiguous languages; its familiarity has prevented its appearing worthy of notice and record; one remarks only the strange; hence it is difficult to detect in the central provincialism what is of Roman and what of Gaelic origin. But one may observe that its basis bears much analogy to the Irish or Erse language, and that all those Irish words, which are not obtained from the Welsh, are to be found in the patois of the Gauls. 3d. In the north-west corner dwell the Bas-Bretons, to whose celebrity this book is consecrated. It contains here and there a short careless glossary of their language, far less valuable than the *Catholicon* of Auffret (Tregnier 1499), the dictionary of Rostrenen (Rennes 1732), or the compilation of Pelletier (Paris 1752). Yet enough occurs dispersedly to prove that this language is Cimbric; and of the same stock as that spoken in Cornwall and in Wales. No traces of those Cimbric nations remain elsewhere on the European continent; so that, one would be tempted to suspect that they arrived by sea, and began to spread from the chops of the channel; were it not for the wars of Marius, which imply early inland power in the Cimbri. 4th. Another distinct race of Frenchmen is the Gothic, who extend along the Rhine, and throughout Flanders, where a Low-Dutch dialect is still spoken: the Frankish Goths were those who imposed a new name and a long race of kings on the Gallia of ancient geography.

These Origines Gauloises throw but a prismatic confusing prejudicial light on the subdivision of people whom it was intended to illustrate. The author wholly wants discrimination. Mr. Pinkerton proclaims it characteristic of the

Celtic mind to be without the power of detecting and the will of preferring truth: of Celtic and Cimbric inquiries and researches it has certainly been characteristic to accumulate clods of erudition without arrangement or purpose, and to blench the torch of investigation into the fenfire of credulity.

This book seems to have more than one author. The person who is to father it, was a patriotic grenadier born in 1743 at Carhaix, was killed at Eberhausen in 1800; and who probably supplied to his employer the provincial words required in willing profusion, and with entire fidelity. The other person, who ought to father it, was probably an author by profession, read in Peloutier but not in foreign antiquaries, and who could reel again but not disentangle the ruffled skein of his voluminous predecessor. At least in the eloquent funeral oration of Latour d'Auvergne he is so much described as the mere soldier; and in the book he so much appears as the mere pedant and literary drudge, that we cannot avoid suspecting the bookseller of having purchased at one door the composition, and at another the author's name.

An instance of extraordinary ignorance shall be selected from page 13.

“Plusieurs des hymnes gauloises, dont les savans ont si souvent regretté la perte, sont renfermées dans un poème erse, nommé *Edda*; mais ce monument runique, qui seroit si propre à nous éclairer sur le système religieux et sur les antiquités des Celtes, est encore presque inconnu au-delà des limites de la Scandinavie.

“Les hymnes, où l'on célébroit les actions des grands hommes, et les homélies, où l'on expliquoit au peuple les matières de la religion, étoient composées par des poètes, nommés *Bardes*. Ceux-ci jouissoient, dans les Gaules d'une grande considération: l'histoire qui a lié leur nom à la liberté de leur pays, l'a fait passer avec gloire à la postérité. Ces poètes marchoient toujours à la tête des armées; et comme il étoit aussi glorieux de chanter les héros qu'on les imiter, leur office se bornoit à composer et à réciter des hymnes en l'honneur de ceux qui se distinguoient par quelques actions généreuses, ou qui mourroient victimes de leur pieux dévouement à la cause de la patrie et de la liberté. Lucain a dit de ces anciens poètes:

“Vos quoque qui fortes animas belloque peremptas,
Laudibus, in longum, vates dimittitis ævum,
... plurima sudistis carmina *Bardi*.”

Here we are told that Gaelic songs, whose loss has been regretted by the learned, are contained in an Erse poem, called the Edda; but that this runic monument, so proper to teach us the religion of the Celts, is almost unknown out of Scandinavia. Observe the number of gross blunders in this single sentence. Gaelic songs are put into the Edda, every word of which is Gothic; and that Edda, which originated in Iceland, is called an Erse (i. e. Ersh, Erish) or Irish poem. The learned are made to regret what they possess. A runic monument, that is a book written with the sixteen-letter alphabet of the Gothic north, is stated to be a probable source of instruction concerning the Celts, who differed totally in religion, manners, and language from the nations where runic inscriptions are found. And, as if to make every assertion as incorrect as possible, the Edda is said not to be known beyond Scandinavia; although it was not composed there at all, and owes its dispersion to the printing-press of Copenhagen. We are next hustled among the Cimbric nations; these are confounded both with the Celts and with

the Goths, and their *bards* are imputed to the Irish and the Scandinavians, neither of whom had any such institution. The *bards*, it is here said, led the armies, which does not appear, as the *ovates* were the fighting order: the *bards* were often heralds, and their presence seems to have imposed truce. It is not worth while to analyze, to refute, or to derange such a mass of erudite foolery, such a dance of chaotic atoms, where 'black spirits and white, blue spirits and grey, mingle, mingle, mingle.' This art of reading without profit, of acquiring learning without instruction, and displaying erudition without communicating information, has lately been carried among ourselves to rival perfection. The Bryants, the Fabers, the Roberts, the Vallanceys, the Pownalls, the O'Hallorans, too often border on vague, wild, visionary, and thoughtless doctrines concerning the early history of primeval tribes. They could furnish an English grenadier with similar cartridge-paper. If there be any thing in this book which it is useful to preserve, the vocabularies must be of that description. We reprint one from p. 98.

Mots bretons simples, et par conséquent primitifs.

Bro, pays, contrée	-	-	-	-
Ber, une broche	-	-	-	-
Bat, babic, un marmouzet, une poupée	-	-	-	-
Ach, une hache	-	-	-	-
Breur, frère	-	-	-	-
Bagdad, assemblée, réunion d'hommes	-	-	-	-
Aél, avel, vent.	-	-	-	-
Alb, blanc	-	-	-	-
Pas; id est ensura quinque calceorum	-	-	-	-
Bara, pain	-	-	-	-
Rhédec, courir	-	-	-	-
Tan, le feu	-	-	-	-
Akel, l'aile	-	-	-	-
Taro, taro, taru, un taureau	-	-	-	-
Ti, maison, demeure	-	-	-	-
An-oc'h, l'homme déjà sur l'âge	-	-	-	-
Ran, grenouille	-	-	-	-
Iac'h, plein de vie et de santé	-	-	-	-
Adare, encore	-	-	-	-
Gél, la gelée	-	-	-	-
Mat, bon	-	-	-	-
Dec, dix	-	-	-	-
Dant, une dent	-	-	-	-
Phalc'h, une faulx	-	-	-	-
Mor, la mer	-	-	-	-
Gall, couleur jaune	-	-	-	-
Marc'h, un cheval	-	-	-	-

Mots hébreux, syriaques et chaldaïques composés, et conséquemment dérivés.

Héb. Baro, mot formé par épenthèse de l'ro.
Héb. Bheriach, lat. vera.
Héb. Bata.
Héb. Atsd.
Héb. Bcrith, pactum fœdus; est enim inter fratres fœdus amicitie ipsa auctore natura.
Héb. Bagad.
Héb. Avel, abel; flatus.
Héb. Laban, par inversion du celtique alb; lat. albus.
Héb. Phazag, progressus est; phasach, transire.
Héb. Barach, panem manducare.
Syr. Rhedah, proficisci.
Héb. Tannur, lucerna.
Héb. Atsil; lat. ala.
Chald. et syr. Tauro; arab. taur; punice. thrau; lat. taurus.
Héb. Ti.
Héb. Enosch, l'homme rassis, d'un âge mûr.
Egypt. Ranah, héb. ranach, personuit, vociferatus est.
Héb. Chujach, id est vivere; chajjach, quod vivit.
Héb. Adar, rursus.
Héb. Gelad; chal. gelad, id est congelari.
Héb. et chald. Matach et matak, doux, agréable au goût.
Chald. Deka, decem.
Persan, Daudant; lat. dens.
Héb. Phalacgh; chald. phalak; syr. pheleg.
Syr. Mar; lat. mare.
Chald. Chelta; lat. flavus.
Tudesque et angl. Mure; chal. meri, jumenta.

<i>Mots bretons simples, et par conséquent primitifs.</i>		<i>Mots hébreux, syriaques et chaldaïques composés, et conséquemment dérivés.</i>	
<i>Korn, sive corn, une corne</i>	- - -	Héb. <i>Keren</i> ; chal. <i>karna</i> ; punic. <i>carn</i> ; lat. <i>cornu</i> .	
<i>Tal, le front, la partie supérieure de la tête</i>	- - -	Héb. <i>Taluck</i> , être au-dessus.	
<i>Bod, branche</i>	- - -	Héb. <i>Bad</i> .	
<i>Kouf, sive houx, un coffre</i>	- - -	Chald. <i>Kousa</i> .	
<i>Ster, une étoile</i>	- - -	Pers. <i>Star</i> .	
<i>Car, une charette</i>	- - -	Chal. <i>Cowan</i> ; lat. <i>carrus</i> .	
<i>Magi, magui, nourrir</i>	- - -	Arab. <i>Magahh</i> ; héb. <i>maschah</i> ; lat. <i>nutrire</i> .	
<i>Ler, du cuir</i>	- - -	Héb. <i>Leor</i> , la peau.	
<i>Ogyg, sive ochig, un vieillard</i>	- - -	Egypt. <i>Ogyggos</i> , premier roi de Thèbes, contemporain de Moïse; ainsi nommé de son grand âge.	
<i>Kar, kari, karout, aimer</i>	- - -	Héb. <i>Iakar</i> , carus fuit.	
<i>Tri, trois</i>	- - -	Héb. <i>Theri</i> , per antiphras <i>duo</i> .	
<i>Mam, mère</i>	- - -	Héb. <i>Aman</i> , nutritio; chald. <i>ama</i> , nutritrix.	
<i>Kanab, le chanvre</i>	- - -	Héb. <i>Kaneh</i> ; calamus arundo.	
<i>Mint, la menthe</i>	- - -	Chald. <i>Mentach</i> ; lat. <i>menta</i> .	
<i>Ker, ville</i>	- - -	Héb. <i>Keria</i> ; syr. <i>karita</i> .	
<i>Sach, un sac</i>	- - -	Héb. <i>Shak</i> , sac, id est tēxit.	
<i>Al, autre, de-la le franç. aliener</i>	- - -	Héb. <i>Al</i> , separare.	
<i>Séc h, franç. sec.</i>	- - -	Héb. <i>Sachach</i> ; lat. <i>siccus</i> .	
<i>Ol, tout</i>	- - -	Héb. <i>Col</i> , par prothèse, du celtique <i>ol</i> .	
<i>Sar, aigre</i>	- - -	Héb. <i>Seor</i> , fermentum.	
<i>Sod, un sot</i>	- - -	Syr. <i>Sote</i> , chald. <i>seta</i> , stultum agere,	
<i>Roguet, déchiré</i>	- - -	Héb. <i>Ragats</i> ; lat. <i>laceratus</i> .	
<i>Mark, merch, marquer imprimer, un signe sur quelque chose, noter</i>	- - -	Chald. <i>Marak</i> , imprimer.	
<i>Tal, haut, élevé</i>	- - -	Héb. <i>Thal</i> ; lat. <i>editus</i> .	

We do not disincline to believe in the Phenician or Hebrew origin of the Cimbric tribes. The Gaelic savages, disciplined and governed by settlers from Tyre and Carthage, may have been known to the Romans by the name Cimbri. Yet as we find, in still earlier times, Cimmerians at the back of Greece and on the Euxine, there are many symptoms of a regular westward progress along the middle zone of Europe. These vocabularies are however insufficient proofs of identity between the Welsh and the Phenicians. Single words are often communicated from one nation to another, especially names of objects, the first knowledge of which may have been due to Phenician merchants. But if pervasive grammatical analogies and inflections were com-

mon to the Hebrew and Welsh languages, a direct descent from a common stock would be adequately proved. Mr. Owen, that meritorious and discovering antiquary, would confer an important service on historical literature, by neglecting to trace resemblances often fanciful and often accidental between the consonants of single words, and stating in what respects the Welsh and Hebrew tongues agree or differ in the structure of their grammatical analogies. The numbers of the Welsh are, in the main, those of the Latins: yet the number *four*, which is not Latin, is not Hebrew: if the Phenicians taught any thing to the Cimbri, they were likely to teach reckoning; and of this, it is clear, they were not the teachers.

ART. XLVI. *Introduction to the History of Ireland.* By S. O'HALLORAN, Esq.
M. R. I. A. 8vo. 3 vols.

THE oldest account of Ireland which supplies any details is that of Ptolemy, who flourished under Hadrian. He notices some rivers, capes, and towns by names resembling the present: thus he calls the river Barrow *Begynos*, cape Donnegal *Ouenveioy* *αὐενβίον*, and Drogheda *Πεδογδιον*. It may be inferred from his account, that Ireland was peopled partly

from the south-west parts of Britain and partly from Gaul; for he places Brigantes both in Ireland and on the Severa, and he places Menapii both in Ireland and in Gaul. It is probable, therefore, that the Irish are a mongrel race, a mixture of Gaulish and Cimbric tribes, which hypothesis exactly accounts for the state of their native language, in

which Gaelic and Welsh words abound equally.

Ireland was called by the ancient Greeks *Ierne*; by the Latins, after Cæsar, *Hibernia*; by Mela and Ptolemy *Juverna* and *Juvernica*. In Tacitus's life of Agricola, some barter is stated to have been carried on with the Irish coast; which the Phenicians knew, but do not appear to have frequented; for the Irish have not even their numerals from the Phenicians, but from the Latins.

Instead of beginning this history with intelligence arranged in the chronological order of its origin, Mr. O'Halloran has looked among the legendary romances of ignorant monks, and the monkish speculations of credulous antiquaries, for information concerning the early state of his country. The following is a characteristic but a wholly improbable passage:

"Schools and colleges were founded by the druids, for the education of youth, in different parts of the kingdom, which, on the reception of Christianity, were converted to Christian seminaries. But Tara was their principal university. There the arch-druid, chief brethren, or judge, *Ard-Philcadh*, or poet laureat, historian, antiquarian, constantly attended the monarch's court: there the general convention of the estates was held every third year, with the literati of the kingdom, to form new laws, examine the registries, and finally determine disputes and law-suits, just as Cæsar tells us, was the custom in Gaul many centuries after. The opening of this great assembly was solemn, awful, and magnificent; they met three days before the month of *Samhuin*, or November, and sacrifices being offered, and the holy fires lighted up, accompanied by all kinds of musical instruments, and succeeded by different odes in favour of the Deity, they repaired to the great hall, called *Moidh-t'uarta*, where each person took his place, according to the nobility of his blood and dignity of his sept; for honours and appointments being hereditary in families, no confusion could ensue; and to remove even pretences for dispute, the heralds were careful to place the arms of each chief over his seat. Probus* and Jocelyn† compare the magnificence of this meeting, in the days of St. Patrick, to that of Nebuchadnezzar, when he assembled his princes and nobles, to worship the golden calf on the plain of *Dura*, in the province of *Babylon*. 'The king,' says Probus, and chiefs of the people, the princes, peers, and magistrates, the druids, incanters, soothsayers, and doctors in all arts and sciences, being assembled, Loagaire the emperor, like a second Nebuchadnezzar, had the assembly

of Tara opened, with songs and lutes, timbrels and harps, and every species of verse.'

"Cæsar tells us, 'That the druids were exempt from taxes, from attending the wars, &c.' for which reason *only*, numbers embraced the profession. The high immunities enjoyed by men of letters here, we have already shewn; and so early as the year 3236, the number of registered druids, annalists, and poets, &c. royally supported amongst us, exceeded 200 of each order; besides such as were retained by private families. The *Ollamh*, or doctor in each science, had in his train thirty subordinate graduates; and on account of the great liberties enjoyed by them, many idlers enlisted themselves under their banners. This became so great an oppression on the public, that the estates of the kingdom deliberated more than once, to expel them entirely the kingdom; and though they did not unanimously agree in this point, their numbers were so far reduced, and such other prudent regulations made with regard to them, that the burden was no longer complained of."

For this splendid state of literature and art we are referred only to the Life of St. Patrick. What does such a reference prove? Merely that at the time when that legend was composed, so much of druidism was known to the writer as is here imputed to Ireland—merely, that at the time when Probus wrote, it was the custom for heralds to place the arms of each chief over his seat. English antiquaries doubt whether coats of arms were hereditary before the Norman conquest; but this Irish discoverer, like another Enoch, seems to have been living and flourishing both now and among the antediluvians, and to be as familiar with the state of his country, before any historian had made mention of it, as after. The most ludicrous superstitions of his countrymen are all espoused by this antiseptical writer. Thus we are informed at p. 74, that Ireland had no frogs before the revolution of 1688, and that the Dutch prince and his nightingales began their descent and descent together.

In the course of the second volume this truly Irish author determines to begin his history.

"With Phœnius, our *Ethnic* historians began their history, and so shall I. He is surnamed in our annals *Farsadh*, or the Sage; and is highly celebrated for his wisdom, and for being the first inventor of letters. Desirous to be informed of the different languages which then prevailed, he appointed

* Vita S. Patricii. lib. 1.

† Ditto, c p. 40, &c.

seventy learned men to disperse themselves through different quarters of the world, and to return at a certain day marked out, after the expiration of seven years. He supplied them with shipping and attendance, and whatever else was judged necessary for so great an enterprise. In the interim he himself went to the plains of Senaar, where schools had been long established, to receive every information he could, towards forwarding his great design of establishing arts and sciences in his dominions. On the return of these linguists, schools were erected; but as events trusted entirely to memory and tradition might be liable to misconception and misrepresentation, a medium was found out, by fixing on certain signs, for certain sounds, and thus by degrees was the first alphabet formed, which consisted of no more than sixteen letters. In this were to be recorded whatever related to history, philosophy, and other sciences, such as they then possessed; but for matters of religion a particular alphabet was invented, to be studied by none but the sacred order. I am sensible that our modern sceptics will turn their eyes to more modern times, when they read of schools on the plains of Senaar, and will look for an explanation from the early Irish Christians. To obviate the objection makes me thus stop short. But Herodotus, called the father of history, and who flourished centuries before Christ, tells us,* that the Egyptians derived the knowledge of letters, geometry, astronomy, &c. from the Babylonians; and that they possessed at the same time a sacred character, and a letter for common occurrences; Senaar is near Babylon; and the Egyptians, as we shall see, received letters from thence through the son of Phœnius. Senaar might or might not be known to Herodotus, but it must to Phœnius who visited it.

"The principal persons concerned with Phœnius in the above great invention, were, his preceptor Gadel, the son of Eathoir, and Caoih, called sometimes Gar, the Hebrew. From Phœnius a branch of our tongue is yet called Bearla Phœni, or the language of Phœnius; but it is more generally named Gaoidhealag, or (as pronounced) Gailag, from the above Gadel. Of the numerous issue of this great prince, the names of two only have been handed down, Neanuil his successor, and Niul the high-priest, and superintendent of the literati. This Phœnius is in our history styled king of Scythia; but from the expanded settlements of the Scythians in the interior parts of Asia, in times posterior to this, moderns have looked for his residence there. Every circumstance and every fact that can be collected, unite in fixing it on the Syrian coast bordering the Mediterranean, and to be the ancient Phœnicia, so renowned in history. As to the art in which he flourished, we shall offer the best, and what appears to us the least exceptionable rules to fix it on, with some degree of precision. A

certainty in chronology is of the utmost consequence to history; and as the history of almost every other nation of the world has been broke in upon and interrupted by new invaders, ours should be looked upon as a kind of polar star, to direct future chronologists in their pursuits.

"Our annalists count twenty-three generations from Phœnius to his lineal successors, the sons of Milesius, landing in Ireland. This last period, by the Psalter of Cashell and the Book of Conquests, is fixed at 1300 years before Christ. The most exact chronology makes it thirty-six years later, i. e. A. M. 1736, if we reckon according to the Hebrew computation: though I do not mean to become an advocate for it, against that of the Septuagint, or any other; yet, for the facility of reckoning, I shall for the future count from it. If we suppose thirty-five years to have intervened between each of the above twenty-three generations, and I think it a reasonable conception, it will then appear that 805 years must have elapsed from the days of Phœnius, to the conquest of Ireland by the sons of Milesius; and that he died in the year of the world 1931, or 2071 years before the incarnation."

We are again obliged to ask what evidence is there of the truth of a single word of this narration? When was the Book of Conquests composed, by whom, and from what documents?

This writer, however, is a violent opponent of the fables of others, and inveighs against Mr. Macpherson for pretending that such intelligence as is contained in Ossian can have been preserved by tradition for 1500 years. The diatribe follows.

"But though a Scot, for the honour of his country, might well conceive that regular epic poems, composed by an ignorant bard, might be preserved by tradition only for 1500 years; though the bard of one family could recite but a certain part of them; a second bard, another; and that it appears that a great number of these were consulted;—in short, that Mac Pherson went from bard to bard, to collect from each his portion of this mighty whole; which parts he threw into the same exact order in which they were delivered by Ossian himself—yet others not so closely interested in their success, might doubt their authenticity. But to attempt establishing a new system of history, in opposition to all antiquity, on the authority of these poems, after so many former unsuccessful attempts, proclaims highly the modesty of the author and of his associates. It is no wonder that the North Britons should eternally rail at Irish history: it has been a constant obstacle to their visionary schemes, and, in all appearance, will ever continue so to be; thus in the present poem, Ossian has, with

wonderful judgment, synchronized Cucullin, Connal Cearnach, Morni, his son Gall, his own grandfather Cumhal, and his father Fion, with the Danes; though the two first were contemporaries with Cæsar; though Morni figured in the first century; and that Cumhall fell by the sword of Goll, in the next age! Though Fion and himself lived in the third century, and that the Danes were not heard of until the ninth! But what of all this? the author, endued with *second sight*, could easily pry into futurity. He was a Pythagorean, and of course could tell what bodies the souls of ancient heroes would re-animate, and probably what prodigies of valour they would perform! Mac Pherson has declared this a genuine poem; and my lord Kaims * as zealously contends for its authenticity as Blair, or any other of the coalition. However he repeatedly attributes its preservation to nothing less than a *miracle*! a miracle then let it be. But instead of flying to Scandinavia, as the poem was confessedly written in Irish; that Ireland was the scene of action; and that by Caledonian accounts the Irish were descended from them, had lord Kaims consulted Irish history, to illustrate this poem, as he certainly ought, he would perhaps be better enabled to form his judgment; for all the above heroes were the real sons of Ireland; and their ancestry, exploits, and the different periods in which they flourished, are as well known at this day, as any facts in ancient history. Even in the twelfth century, Cambrensis remarks how full the common people were here of their fabulous stories of Fion Mac Cumhal, or Fingal, of Oissin, and Oscar, &c."

The only use which can be made of this uncritical sort of history is to supply the poet with plots of plays and fables of epopæas. Like the Lear and the Cymbeline of the British fablers, his Dearmod and his Guare may stalk on the stage, or declaim in duans; but they rather belong to the phantasmagoria of invention, than to the real ghosts of historic necromancy. It is however a

stride in culture to substitute the fables of the antiquary for those of the priest, and to attach the multitude rather to romances than to legends. The criticism of common sense incurs less intolerance, the scepticism of inquiry less persecution, when nothing of impiety, but only of impatriotism, is associated with the examination. A ridiculous is better than a dangerous credulity.

There is much curious matter concerning early Irish antiquities in Mr. Pinkerton's fourth part of his Inquiry into the History of Scotland: and we entirely coincide with his concluding reflection—"On the continent an antiquary is a man who examines ancient matters upon ancient authorities, and solid reasoning. In Britain an antiquary is a visionary, who details superficial dreams to the public, upon no ancient authority at all, and upon the most silly and irrational ratiocination. Hence what no foreign antiquary, what no man of sound learning would even imagine, has been seriously advanced among us lately; to wit, that the Phœnicians settled colonies in Ireland. That traces of the Phœnician language may be found in that of the Wild Irish! Seriously this is too bad: it is pushing learned folly to an extreme degree! Do reflect, sweet gentlemen dabblers, that the Phœnicians were a people equal to the Greeks and Romans, in every art and refinement. That the traces of their colonies in Africa, in Spain are fixt and decisive, and throw light all around them. And that if they had held the smallest settlement in Ireland, so striking a circumstance, so distinguished a mark of their extended power and navigation, could never have escaped *all* the ancient authorities."

ART. XLVII. *The History of the Gunpowder Plot, with several Historical Circumstances prior to that Event, connecting the Plots of the Roman Catholics, to re-establish Popery in this Kingdom; digested and arranged from authentic Materials.* By JAMES CAULFIELD. 8vo. pp. 94.

WE have no doubt that this book is drawn up from trust-worthy testimony; that the portraits are appropriated by better evidence than vague tradition; and that the manuscripts quoted, exist, and are deposited somewhere: yet we think that Mr. Caulfield ought to have particularized the sources of his intelli-

gence, and to have defined the place in which the documents appealed to, may be found and verified. They respect not merely the popish plot, so celebrated by the name of the gunpowder-treason, but the previous protestant persecutions which provoked it. The church of England was founded by Henry VIII. and

has occasionally exhibited the intolerant spirit of its founder. A document truly disgraceful to the hierarchy is the long list here given of catholic priests, executed during the reign of Elizabeth, for attempting to inculcate their religion. We shall detach it.

“ Elizabeth having been strictly educated in the protestant faith, no sooner ascended the throne, than she publicly declared her religious opinions, and promoted Matthew Parker to the see of Canterbury, who, as metropolitan of England, displaced catholic preachers, and substituted those of the reformed religion in their places; then it was the papal fury broke into a flame; and pope

Pius the Fifth issued a bull, excommunicating the queen, and all that adhered to her, which bull was meant to inflame the minds of the people against her, and encourage the re-establishment of popery in her dominion; for which purpose a number of English catholics were assembled at Douay, to take holy orders as priests, and from thence to return to their native places, and disseminate their dangerous principles. The circumstance of these missionaries poisoning the minds of the people in their religion and allegiance, caused an act to be passed, constituting it death for any seminary priest to be found in this kingdom. The following persons were taken, and, being convicted, suffered death accordingly* :

- 1570, John Felton, August 8, in Paules Church yard,
 1571, John Story, June 1, at Tyburne.
 1578, Thomas Woodhouse, June 19, at Tyburne.
 1577, Cuthbert Mayne, Nouem. 29, at Launston.
 John Nelson, Feb. 3, at Tyburne.
 1578, Thomas Sherwood, Feb. 7.
 1579, 1580. Anno 1577, in the moneth of January, was published a proclamation against Seminary Priests and Iesuits, and for calling home the Queenes subjects from forraigne Seminaries, where they remained vnder colour of studies.
 1581, Euerard Hanse, July 31, at Tyburne.
 Edmund Campion, Alexander Bryant, Ralphe Sherwyn, Decem. 1, at Tyburne,
 1582, John Paine, April 2.
 Thomas Ford, John Shert, Robert Iohnson, May 28, at Tyburne.
 Thomas Cottam, William Filby, Luke Kirby, and Lawrence Iohnson, May 30, at Tyburne.
 William Lacy, and Richard Kirkman, August 22, at Yorke.
 James Tompson, in Nouem. at Yorke.
 1583, Richard Thirkill, May 29, at Yorke.
 John Slade, Octob. 30, at Winchester.
 William Hart, at Yorke.
 James Labourne, at Lancaster.
 William Carter, Jan. 11, at Tyburne.
 George Haddocke, Io. Mundine, Iames Fen, Thomas Emerford, and John Nutter, Feb. 12, at Tyburne.
 1584, Iames Bele, and Iohn Finch, Aprill 20, at Lancaster.
 Richard White, Octo. 18, at Wrixam.
 This yeare also were twenty-one Iesuits and Seminary Priests banished the Realme, Ian. 21.
 1585, Thomas Aufield, and Thomas Webley, July 6, at Tyburne.
 Hugh Taylor, and Marmaduke Bowes, at Yorke.
 Margaret Clitherow, in March, at Yorke.
 N. Hamclton, and Rob. Bicardine, at Yorke.
 Edward Transam, and Nich. Woodfine, Janu. 21, at Tyburne.
 This yeare also were thirty-two Priests and Iesuits banished the Realme, Sep. 19.
 1586, Richard Sergeant, and William Tompson, Aprill 20, at Tyburne.
 Iohn Adams, Iohn Lew, and Rob. Debdale, Octo. 8, at Tyburne.
 Rob. Anderton, and William Marsden, at Tyburne.
 Francis Ingleby, at Yorke.
 Stephen Rowsam, and Iohn Finglow, at Gloucester.
 1587, Thomas Pilchard, in March, at Dorcester.
 Iohn Sands, in March, at Gloucester.
 Iohn Hamly, in March, at Chard.
 Alexander Crowe, in March, at Yorke.
 Robert Sutton, in March, at Stafford.
 Edmund Sykes, Gabriell Thimbleby, and George Dowglas, in March, at Stafford.
 1588, William Deane, and Henry Webley, August 28, at Myle-end-green.
 William Gunter, eodem die. at the Theat.
 Robert Morton, and Hugh More, eodem die. at Lincolns-Inne Fields.
 Tho. Acton, alias Holford, eodem die. at Clarkenwell.

* The Catalogue of Popish priests is taken from an old sheet without date.

- 1588, Richard Clarkson, and Thomas Felton, eodem die. at Hownslow.
 Rich. Leigh, Edward Shelly, Hugh Morgan, Rich. Flower, Robert Martyn, John
 Rocke, and Margaret Wade, Aug. 30, at Tyburne.
 Edward James, and Ralph Crochet, Octob. 1, at Chichester.
 Robert Wilcocks, Edward Campion, Christo. Buxton, and Rob. Widmerpoole,
 eodem die. at Canterbury.
 William Wigges, eodem die. at Kingston.
 John Robinson, eodem die. at Ipswich.
 John Weldon, October 5, at Mile-end-green.
 William Hartley, and Rich. Williams, eodem die. at Halliwell.
 Robert Sutton, William Spencer, Edward Burdou, and John Hewyt, eodem die.
 at Clarkenwell.
 Rob. Ludham, Richard Simpson, and Nicholas Garlicke, at Darby.
 William Lampley, at Gloucester.
- 1589, George Nichols, Rich. Yaxley, Tho. Belson, Hu. vp Richard, July 5, at Oxford.
 John Annas, and Robert Dalby.
 Christopher Bales, March 4, in Fleet-street.
 Alexander Blake, eodem die. in Gr. In. lane.
 Nicholas Horne, eodem die. in Smithfield.
- 1590, Myles Gerrard, and Francis Dickinson, Aprill 30, at Rochester.
 Anthony Myddleton, May 6, at Clarkenwell.
 Edward Jones, May 6, in Fleet-street.
- 1591, Edmund Gennings, and Swithin Welles, Decem. 10, in Grays Inn Fields.
 Eustach White, Pollydor Pladen, Bryon Lacy, John Mason, and Sidney Hodgson,
 Decem. 10, at Tyburne.
 Momfort Scot, and George Bisley, July 2, in Fleet-street.
 William Dickenson, and Ralph Milner, July 7, at Winchester.
 Edmund Ducke, Rich. Holiday, Ioh. Hagge, Rich. Hill, at Durham.
 William Pykes, at Dorcester.
 William Pattison, Iann. 22, at Tyburne.
 Tho. Portmore, Feb. 21, in Paules Church yard.
 This yeare also, in the moneth of Octob. was published a Proclamation against
 Priests and Iesuits.
- 1592, Roger Ashton, June 23, at Tyburne.
- 1593, James Burden, March 35, at Winchester.
 Anthony Page, Aprill 30, at Yorke.
 Joseph Lampton, Iune 23, at Newcastle.
 William Dauts, in Septem. at Beumaris.
 Edward Waterson, and William Harrington, Feb. 18, at Tyburne.
- 1594, Iohn Cornelius Mohum, Tho. Bosgroue, Patricke Samon, Iohn Carey, and Iohn
 Ingram, July 4, at Dorcester.
 Thomas Boast, July 4, at Newcastle.
 James Oldbaston.
 Robert Southwell, March 3, at Tyburne.
- 1595, Henry Walpole
 Alexander Rawlins, Aprill 17, at Yorke.
 George Errington, William Knight, William Gibson, and Henry Abbots, at Yorke.
 William Freeman.
- 1596, N. Auleby, and N. Thorpe.
- 1597, Iohn Buckley, alias Iones, Iuly 12, at S. Th. Wa.
- 1598, Thomas Snow, Christoph. Robinson, Rich. Horner, N. Grimston, and N. Britton,
 at Yorke.
- 1599, Math. Hayes, at Yorke.
- 1600, Christopher Wharton, with a namelesse woman, May 18, at Yorke.
 Iohn Rigby, July 21, at S. Th. Wa.
 Robert Nutter, and Edward Thwinge, in Iune, at Lancaster.
 Thomas Sprot, and Thomas Hunt, in Iuly, at Lincolne.
 Thomas Palaser, Iohn Norton, and N. Talbot, eodem mense. at Durham.
 Iohn Pibush, Febr. 11, at Tyburne.
 Roger Filcocke, Marke Barkworth, and Anne Lyne, Feb. 27, at Tyburne.
- 1601, Robert Middleton, and Thurstan Hunt, at Lancaster.
- 1602, Francis Page, Thomas Tichborne, Robert Watkinson, and Iames Ducket, Aprill 29,
 at Tyburne.
 N. Harrison, and N. Bates, in Aprill, at Yorke.
 William Richardson, Feb. 27, at Tyburne."

Anecdotes are given of as many persons contained in this list, as were mentioned in other writings known to the author. These protestant persecutions

have too long been concealed or overlooked, by the collusion of episcopalians, and presbyterians. When will an ecclesiastical historian arise, unprejudiced enough to record, with equal abhorrence, the crimes of every sect and every party; and to distribute, with even-handed justice, the rare praise of learning and humanity, wherever it has been deserved? The epithet of bloody Mary, so liberally bestowed on the catholic queen, might,

without much iniquity, be retaliated on the protestant heroine. She knew how to govern indeed; but the highest triumph of intellect is, in difficult times, to govern with mildness. Princes should recollect the observation of Cicero to Cæsar: that they can receive nothing greater from fortune than the power, nothing better from nature than the will, to preserve life.

ART. XLVIII. *A Letter to the Earl of Wycombe from Mr. Miles, on the present State of Ireland.* 8vo. pp. 86.

SWIFT boasted that the church of England would always be found to tolerate the subordinate and hostile sects; but expressed doubts whether, in case of a reversed ascendancy, they would tolerate her. How deplorably has the example of Ireland falsified the vain vaunt of the dean: while among the presbyterians of Scotland, and among the independents of North America, the episcopalians are quietly suffered to ramify, and no mob collects to burn the houses of their ministers, no magistrate stoops to inflict a single civil disability.

The fact is, that all the different sects of christianity have their several merits and excellencies, their several defects and inconveniences: but to suppose that there can be *danger* from any one of them to the order of society, and to the eventual happiness of mankind, is to blaspheme the founder of the religion. Sects arise by selecting peculiar passages of scripture for habitual attention: the emphatic texts of one society are insignificant phrases in another. Hence it naturally happens that some sects carry one virtue, others another, to the highest practicable eminence; and it is well that men should addict themselves to those sects, which enforce the line of conduct most adapted to their constitutional disposition. Let the man of fashion be a catholic. It is of the essence of fashion to fall in, it knows not why, with the splendid ceremonial in use among the exalted; and to place vital perfection in exterior compliance. The catholic is the form of christianity which has been found least unfavourable to the military spirit, and most indulgent to the gentlemanly foibles; it patronizes the fisheries by its dietetic interference, and the fine arts, by its ostentatious delight in monuments of architecture, sculpture, and painting. But let not the multitude be

catholic. It is a religion which operates in the manner of military discipline; so as to secure decency without reforming the inward man. Wherever the catholic populace have broken loose, they have exceeded in a savage, cruel, and bloodthirsty spirit, the populace of every other sect; and they are every where more ignorant and more idle than their protestant neighbours.

Calvinism, at least where it is a sect, and not, as in Scotland, an establishment, seldom attracts the higher classes, or the very lowest class: as if some degree of instruction and education were requisite to prepare the votary, as if a considerable degree of instruction and education unfitted him again for this form of belief. It is usually accompanied with a punctilious easeless behaviour, the result probably of that reciprocal inspection and vigilant control devised for purposes of moral discipline, and incorporated with the constitution of their congregations. It is usually accompanied also with an apparent gloom of mind, the result perhaps of an excessive use among their teachers of terrific denunciations; but which, to a mere bystander, suggests the idea of secret remorse or worldly embarrassment, and thus tends to affect the moral or pecuniary credit of these children of dejection. Such melancholics are apt to fly for relief to sottishness. The calvinists in general are seen to be industrious, provident, continent, neat, hospitable, but in other respects frugal, loth to military service, lovers of justice, of order, and of civil liberty. These are qualities, on the whole, desirable in the lower class of tradesmen; it seems far easier to increase their happiness than their utility.

Other sects are not sufficiently numerous to be apprehended in the gross:

unitarianism is not yet vulgarized; one cannot guess whether the unitarians owe the qualities by which they are distinguished, to their station in society, or to the operation of their favourite writers. The Italian and Polish unitarians appeared, while the sect was new, to aspire at blending the taste of the catholic with the principle of the calvinist; and at allying the splendid ritual of Rome with the simple creed of theism. But, notwithstanding the conventions of noblemen held at Vicenza and at Cracow, the unitarian party could no where attain the ascendancy; either in the dukedoms of Italy, or the republic of Poland. The educated and ambitious ranks gradually slid back through unbelief to conformity; and the multitude was classed with the fanatics of Munster, and squeezed between contempt and oppression into inactive insignificance. As socinianism is peculiarly the reverse of a mystical sect, it must be favourable to the evolution of the reasoning faculty, and is therefore perhaps suicidal. It seems to have died out in Holland and elsewhere, less from refutation or persecution than from internal causes.

Were all these sects equally favoured by the magistrate, they would severally be embraced by the adapted converts, and prevail every where in the desirable proportions. Moral competition and general instruction is increased by the variety of sects.

To such inferences Mr. Miles inclines.

"Any farther discussion of this subject, my lord, would lead to investigations, that are not strictly within the scope and object of this letter, which is meant for the perusal, not of those who, mistaking the semblance for the reality of religion, consider it as a piece of state machinery, but to the sober-minded few, who are equally removed from the atheism of this opinion and from the bigotry of sects, who regard and respect its pure unadulterated sense; who attach less consequence to the forms than to the essence of religion, and who are firmly convinced that every deviation from rectitude is crimi-

nal. It has been said that the church of Rome deserves expulsion by her own maxims; but injustice, though it may sometimes provoke retaliation, can in no case whatever be entitled to imitation, and especially by governments, which are bound in all cases to give good example, for it is their best and only preservative. The fact is, my lord, that I am ill qualified to contend with fanatics of any description; and though I am decidedly hostile to the intolerant principles and sanguinary character of the church of Rome, yet the vices, or rather the abuses of that religion, cannot destroy the eternal and self-evident truth, that every man, the natural born subject of a state, subscribing to its support, that is, to the maintenance of its civil, religious, and military establishments, is by right entitled to partake of all the advantages, and ought to be eligible to all the offices of trust and emolument, belonging to that state, unless indeed he is branded by crime or imbecility, which, as I have already observed, can alone disqualify him. Thus thinking, I am of opinion, that a catholic or a presbyterian may make as good a lord mayor as a protestant; and to make religion a pretext for the exclusion of either, is to pervert, not to sustain it. It is employing it to alienate man from man, to disunite what it professes to unite, to teach us to spurn and abhor those whom we are bound to embrace and cherish. The religion that would erect insurmountable barriers between men living in the same society, but differing in speculative opinions and modes of worship, can have no other tendency than to render them irreconcilable enemies to each other, and is contrary to that charity which christianity professes to bear towards all mankind, and which is one of the very best proofs that can be advanced of its divine origin. I profess myself to be the decided friend of religion; it is man's best consolation in this world, and fairest hope in the next: but it must be religion; it must neither be the semblance, nor the mockery of it; it must not be state craft on one side, nor bigotry or fanaticism on the other; but, as I have already said, the pure unadulterated belief in a first great cause of all, accompanied by a full persuasion, and that persuasion exemplified by a conduct strictly correct towards all mankind, that every deviation from integrity is criminal. This is what I call religion, in the true and genuine sense of the word."

ART. XLIX. *Reflections on the Policy and Justice of an immediate Emancipation of the Catholics of Great Britain and Ireland. By the late Lord PETRE. To which are added, some Strictures on the same Subject, by the Editor.* 8vo.

THE dying counsels of a man so deservedly venerated as the late lord Petre, cannot fail to make a deep and lasting impression, both on the great,

the good, and the wise. But the authority of his advice, and the dignity of his character, have been ill consulted by the form of publication here given to

his reflections. There is a flippancy of tone, and an acrimony of personality, in the strictures, notes, and introductory addresses, which discords with the calm gravity of his plain arguments and rational temper.

Lord Petre thus sums up the residual grievances of the catholics.

"From this plain statement it follows, that the disabilities to which the Irish catholics still remain subjected, naturally range themselves under three several heads—first, their being disqualified from holding offices of emolument above the value of 300l. a year:—secondly, their ineligibility to the house of commons:—and thirdly, the exclusion of roman catholic peers from sitting or voting in the upper house, pursuant to their hereditary rights and privileges—a right, the advantages of which have been greatly circumscribed by the late act of union. But upon this last division of the disabilities, I shall soon have occasion to offer some further observations. The great mass of the people of Ireland; namely, the lower and middle orders, possessing already so many rights of citizenship in common with their other fellow subjects, could scarcely derive any further immediate or personal benefit from more ample concessions, or even a complete emancipation of the roman catholics. Places of higher emolument than 300l. a year, or the exercise of legislative functions seldom, without the intervention of extraordinary qualities or uncommon good fortune, fall to the lot of those persons who, in the humble walks of life, constitute the bulk and physical force of every nation. Who then are to be benefited by a total emancipation, and what is their description? On enquiring into this, I have been informed, that there are about 150 to 200 roman catholic gentlemen in Ireland of landed or monied property sufficient to qualify them to become candidates for honours, rank, and places of superior emolument. In looking to the other branch of the legislature, it is to be observed, that by the act of union, the Irish, like the Scotch, peerage has undergone a considerable revolution in its institutional character. What was before a right and privilege from descent or by creation, is now become elective, and hence arises that diminution of privilege which I before adverted to. In Ireland there are six or seven roman catholic peers whom an emancipation would render eligible amongst the twenty-eight admitted by the act of union

to be elected into the imperial house of lords; and I believe it would be thought sanguine enough to calculate that one out of the six or seven may possibly be selected as a member of that chosen corps."

He proceeds to consider the obstacles to these insignificant concessions, and, among others, the coronation oath. It is thus worded.

"Will you, to the utmost of your power, maintain the laws of the gospel, and the protestant reformed religion established by law? And will you preserve unto the bishops and clergy of this realm, and to the churches committed to their charge, all such rights and privileges as by law do, or shall appertain unto them, or any of them?"

"To this division of the oath administered by the archbishop, the king answers—"All this I promise to do."

We do not agree with lord Petre in his plan of explanation: there is no need of casuistry. As soon as the two houses of parliament have voted any innovation whatever in the public religion, and have laid their act before the king for his consent or signature—the signifying of his consent, or the affixing of his signature, *establishes by law* the change so made. The coronation oath binds the sovereign to be a conformist. He must belong to the state religion of to-day, while it continues a law of the land: he must belong to the state religion of to-morrow, as soon as he has completed the form of legalization. The church may be changed from trinitarian to unitarian, and the king successively conform to both, without the slightest infringement of the coronation oath: it suffices that the king's conformity to the old church should last as long as the law; and that his conformity to the new church should begin precisely with the enactment. It is an oath to comply in his magisterial capacity with the religion of the state: we doubt much, in case of his majesty's visiting Scotland, whether he could there *conscientiously* enter an episcopalian place of worship.

ART. L. *Considerations upon the Necessity of discussing the State of the Irish Catholics in the ensuing Session of Parliament.* By JAMES MASON, Esq. 8vo. pp. 52.

THIS is a very pleasing pamphlet, and contains such observations on the catholic question as we should expect from a liberal and cultivated mind, not deeply skilled in political science, but

delivering its sentiments, upon an unstudied subject, with unlaboured exertion. Though we willingly subscribe to the doctrines, and approve the major part of the remarks, which Mr. Mason

has advanced, we are not sanguine enough to expect that they will afford much effective assistance to the cause he has befriended. His reflections, in general, are above the apprehension of the vulgar, and therefore are not calculated to subdue popular prejudices; yet below the bearing of the enlightened statesman, and hence they cannot be supposed to influence his views, or alter his schemes.

The faith of parliament is pledged to grant *further concessions* to the Irish catholics, and the faith of parliament ought not to be violated. This is easily admitted. But when Mr. Mason undertakes to argue the question of establishing the roman catholic religion in Ireland, besides granting seats in the legislature, and offices of trust in the government, to the members of that church, we certainly look for a higher strain of argument, and a more philosophical survey of society, than we have been able to discover in the pages before us; we must except, however, the quotations in the postscript from Mr. Fox's speech on the repeal of the test act. We conceive that a well-authenticated account of the present state of society in Ireland, would do more towards settling the disputes respecting the claims of the catholics in that country, than the most ingenious and cogent arguments derived from general philanthropic principles. It is a practical question of national policy, of great importance to the empire, and must be decided by circumstances, not by feelings: and without an exact knowledge of these circumstances, it seems presumptuous to say to what extent the promised concessions should be carried.

If, however, the pamphlet under review do not surprise by its profundity and acuteness, or instruct by the infor-

mation it conveys, it has at least the merit of being an animated statement of obvious reflexions and liberal sentiments, clothed in the easy polite language of a gentleman. We select the following passage, not as a specimen of the author's argumentative talents, but as a pleasing example of his style in writing, and of his power to interest the feelings of the reader.

"If indeed we were to imagine a foreigner passing through Ireland, who had heard much of the mild, tolerating, and beneficent spirit of the British constitution, but who was ignorant of the mode in which it is administered, what would be his surprise to behold crowds of people assembled round a miserable hut, kneeling on the bare ground, with no covering but the heavens, unable to approach the minister of their faith, or catch the sound of his voice? Who are those? such a stranger would say—whom or what do they adore? It must be some barbarous religion, stained with horrid sacrifices; some idolatrous devotion to a Being, whose imputed temper is to delight in crimes and vices, and for this reason, your wise and benignant laws, whilst they mercifully tolerate the worship, refuse it their countenance, and reject its establishment. No, we must answer. These people are adoring the same God with ourselves,—that Being, whose attributes are universal benevolence, omnipresence, omniscience; before whom the forms of prayer are as nothing; who searches the heart; we ascribe to him the same qualities, we clothe him in the same mysterious trinity, we acknowledge that he died for us, that he suffered for us the painful ignominy of the cross; we venerate him as our God, our Redeemer, as the parent, protector, and future judge of us all. We differ chiefly in this—at stated periods we eat bread and drink wine as emblems of our dying Saviour; whilst these, our unfortunate brethren, with a bolder creed, imagine this ceremony not only to represent the sufferings, but to partake of the nature of the Deity."

ART. LI. *Observations on the Statute of the 1 William and Mary, commonly called the Toleration Act, and on the Statute of the 19 George III. entitled An Act for the further Relief of Protestant Dissenting Ministers of Congregations, and others.* By JOSEPH SMITH, Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 50.

THIS pamphlet consists of a recital, or abridgment, of the toleration-act, passed in the first year of William and Mary; and of a recital, or abridgment, of the relief act, passed in the nineteenth year of George III.; to which documents are added some commentaries, to prove that itinerant preachers are not entitled to the benefit of either of these

acts; but are liable to serve in the militia, on juries, and as churchwardens and overseers, and cannot, by qualifying under these acts, escape any public burdens whatever. To us it appears that the author proves his point.

The whole system of privilege and exemption is, however, an error in legislation. Why should dissenting mi-

ministers not serve on juries, or as overseers? They, and their ordained brethren of the church of England, are very fit persons to direct the judgment of juries in criminal cases, and to apportion the distribution of relief among the poor. They are not fit persons to serve in the militia; but this is a pecuniary exemption, which their congregations ought to enable them to meet. All acts of this kind should be totally repealed; and the character of dissenting minister be as unknown to the law, either as an object of restriction or of exemption, as the character of a schoolmaster, an author, a lecturer on chemistry, or any other public instructor. Let the pupils accommodate their recompenes to the risks of the master; and let government observe, and influence through the press and other channels to public opinion, what there may be of censurable in the public leaning, or conduct, of the several classes of teachers. Whence the frequent necessity for special juries, but

because so many professional men are exempted from serving on juries, that a liberal education is rare in the whole class of persons summoned? Washington, after resigning the presidency of North America, served on the petty jury: it is thus that the administration of the laws may best be brought to the utmost perfection. The civic duties of men form an important part of private morality: how should this branch of duty be properly taught from the pulpit by those who are never called on to exercise it? The neologisms of theology, if prosecuted under the trinitarian statutes, ought to be tried precisely by a jury of clergy of all denominations. Cases of infanticide require medical juries. And in general the leisure and instruction of professional men adapts them peculiarly for services, from which they have been whimsically exempted, and which their exemption tends to bring into disrepute.

ART. LII. *Considerations on the twofold Mode of Election adopted by the French.* By the Rev. CHRISTOPHER WYVILL. 8vo. pp. 40.

MR. Wyvill is deservedly revered for the integrity and fidelity of his attachment to the cause of popular liberty, and to that of parliamentary reform: his eloquence must be impressive, for it has swayed large and respectable bodies of men; but his reasoning is not close and precise enough to have a commanding weight with the philosopher. He has here undertaken the attack of what he calls *twofold* representation; by which he means the double delegation, first of an electoral body, and secondly of the members of parliament. This term is incorrectly chosen, because it is not definite: every shire sends two members to parliament, it has a *twofold* representation; every clergyman is represented in the house of lords by his bishop, and in the house of commons by the county candidate, he enjoys a *twofold* representation; many a one can vote as a freeholder for the shire, and as a freeman for some borough, every such person again possesses a *twofold* representation. We prefer the less equivocal expression *gradationed* representation, which was first employed, we believe, in a contribution to the theory of representation, inserted in the Monthly Magazine for January 1800, (vol. viii. p. 953), whence we shall have to borrow

some observations, and some technical terms.

Mr. Wyvill's first period of argument occurs at p. 14.

"A parliament so chosen (by successive delegations) would be bound to the people by ties nearly imperceptible; it would feel for them, in no sensible degree, either *sympathy* or *responsibility*."

Here are two distinct propositions cluttered together: the one, that a parliament, indirectly chosen, would want sympathy with the people; the other, that a parliament, indirectly chosen, could not be rendered responsible by their constituents.

Were these propositions both true, they would prove little. It is no object that parliament should habitually sympathize in opinion with the people. The sway of the highest wisdom is the proper aim of all governmental institution. Parliaments, therefore, ought to sympathize with the multitude only in as much as these are sufficiently instructed to decide aright: with the ignorant classes they ought seldomer to sympathize, than with the informed classes of the people. Under a gradationed representation, the electoral body, or *choosers*, become the real constituents: the

chance, therefore, must be that parliaments will sympathize with the secondary, not with the primary assemblies; with the choosers, not with the mere voters. It will sympathize with the instructed class, and not with the numerous class, which is the desirable state of its sympathy.

As to responsibility, gradationed representation has again the advantage. The choosers vary every election. If a member contravenes the instructions of his constituents, not those who sent the instructions will pronounce the verdict of acquittal or censure; but other judges, unprejudiced by their own preconceptions, unpledged by their own recorded declarations, and aware of all the subsequent instruction promulgated. A courageous independence, or a prescient sagacity, is therefore surer of being ultimately approved and recompensed by confidence, where there is a shifting intermediate body of electors, than where the same constituents remain. The representative ought to guide, not follow, the public mind: under a system of direct deputation, his interests lead him to be retrospective, and to bend toward the will of the constituents of yesterday; under a system of gradationed election, his interests lead him to be prospective, and to bend toward the will of the constituents of to-morrow. And this in practical conduct is desirable.

Mr. Wyvill proceeds to contend (p. 15) that, in a rude state of society, gradationed representation is needless, because all are equally ignorant.

In rude societies there is great inequality, resulting from the unequal distribution of strength of body, and strength of mind. He who unites these sources of power in the highest degree, is the natural chieftain of a savage horde. These qualities can only be judged of by observation. Those who have attended the eminent to war, are alone equal to the office of discrimination. Savages would do well to depute the right of choice to their old warriors—that is, to have an electoral body. Accordingly the wise Jethro recommended to Moses the institution of gradationed representation, as most convenient among the rude. It was tried, and it answered.

Mr. Wyvill then examines its adaptedness to a country in the second stage of advancement, like the colonies, in North America; he says, that “an intermediate body would there be a waste of

time and trouble to guard against evils, neither extant nor probable.”

In the first place, the North Americans have recourse to an intermediate body for the appointment of the highest officers of the states: it is by the provincial legislatures surely, and not by the citizens at large, that the presidents are elected. They do not suspect the crowd of being able to appreciate justly the highest order of merit; concerning the hero painted by Apelles they would rather take the opinion of the connoisseur, than of the cobbler. And why should they not prefer in subordinate nominations also, the opinion of the educated to the opinion of the uneducated classes? It is in order to give ascendancy to the civilized, that they exclude from suffrage the blacks and the paupers; but if they had introduced intermediate bodies, they would have no occasion for restrictions on suffrage. Slaves would elect their masters, paupers their priests or their employers, into the body of choosers; and instead of that contempt for the populace, which now characterizes the democratic party of Virginia, some care would be taken to conciliate their good will, by providing for their interests. Negro slavery would have disappeared before gradationed representation, because the masters would have found it necessary to conciliate their slaves.

What can Mr. Wyvill mean by a waste of time and trouble? It would clearly save cost, time, and trouble too, if each parish sent one or more choosers, instead of all its freeholders, to a county election.

Mr. Wyvill inquires thirdly into the fitness of gradationed representation for an opulent and civilized community. It is allowed that elections would be less tumultuous. It is maintained (p. 20) that a lifeless and inanimate indifference would succeed; and that patriotism, and, with it, liberty, would decline; and with them, public spirit. The philosophic statesman, therefore, (in Mr. Wyvill's opinion, p. 25), “will seek for remedial reform, not in measures calculated to depress the minds of the lower classes, but to interest them in the public weal.”

The system of intermediate bodies of choosers is compatible with any increase of the original bodies of voters; by the extension of suffrage, the lower classes surely would be more generally interested in the public weal. The class of

choosers, wholly ignorant of their coadjutors until the day of assemblage, would almost necessarily fix on public characters for their candidates: no sort of influence, but that of diffusive reputation, is likely to bend into sudden concurrence the wills of men undisciplined to party, and detached and removed from local and personal influence. It follows that public spirit would be precisely the object of notice and advancement among the intermediary bodies. How public spirit should be diminished by superadding to its extant motives this new recompence of senatorial rank, we cannot conceive.

Mr. Wyvill next objects to gradationed representation (p. 26), that it would bar future improvement. Why may not that system as easily suffer change as any other; and as easily suffer change in a right direction? He objects that it would expose the bulk of the community to more severe oppression.* Why? He objects that it would throw a more deadly damp on our almost extinguished ardor for liberty; because the elections at the primary assemblies would be too unimportant to call into exercise any energy of character. And what energies are now called out? Those of the stomach chiefly. That sort of feasting, which is now collected in the shire town, would indeed be dispersed through all the villages honoured with primary assemblies; and that sort of discussion concerning the expedient candidates, which now takes place at a grand jury dinner during the county quarter sessions, would be postponed until the nomination of the electoral body was completed. The accomplished canvassers would be the appointed *choosers*. Each party would, in due time, learn to contest the other's superiority of number in the hundreds, instead of the shire; after three or four elections the new knack

would be acquired, and things would at worst reassume a state very much resembling the present.

The strongest piece of argument follows.

"From the influence which property bestows in this country, it may be concluded, with reason, that men in the superior and middle classes, at the primary elections, would usually obtain from their inferiors a majority of their votes; and men in the lowest classes would almost never be elevated to the electoral rank. This conclusion seems not to admit a dispute. For if the lower voters in Britain, under the present laws of qualification, are accustomed to vote as men of influence around them recommend, even in elections which confer a legislative power, it were highly unreasonable to expect that the same class of voters, at elections at which they could only exercise the power of voting for men by whom their legislators should be named, would exert greater independence of mind than upon an occasion far more important. And this expectation would be much more contrary to reason, if universal suffrage at the primary elections were established, and a more numerous class of still lower persons were allowed to vote for electors. The habitual effect, therefore, of the twofold election would be the almost entire exclusion of the lower classes from the electoral body; they would cease, in a great measure, to hold any connection with their representatives, who would neither owe their seats in parliament to their favour, nor would be liable to lose them from their displeasure, except by a circuitous operation, and a concurrence of causes which would rarely occur.

"And hence, instead of inspiring the upper classes with sentiments of greater respect for those at the lower end of society, this double mode of election would tend to produce a contrary effect. For men who had not been raised to the electoral rank, could not be considered by the members of parliament as their constituents, or only indirectly so; and consequently those members would generally be inclined to pay more attention to their immediate electors, to feel for them

* In the dissertation already alluded to; (Monthly Magazine, vol. viii. p. 955), an opposite inference is drawn. "Supposing it safe," says the writer, "to intrust the selection of representatives to householders paying ten pounds yearly rent, and that there were in Great Britain and Ireland 100,000 such householders, can it signify to the state, whether these 100,000 persons be empowered to choose by the suffrage of 3,000,000 adult males, or by any other means? But it signifies much to the lower classes to have the privilege of conferring this power by their suffrage. It is of importance to the comfort of a poor family that a relation, as it were of client and patron, should subsist between it and some person surrounded by the conveniences of life, through whose exertions, in case of leisure, difficulty, want or sickness, it may obtain work, advice, relief, or accommodation. With the increase of luxury and taxation, with the decay of the religious spirit, charity declines and selfishness spreads: some new means then of making themselves valuable to their superiors must be bestowed on the poor, if they are to retain their former share of notice and protection. The lawgiver will not easily find a better mean than universal suffrage."

a greater respect, and to promote their interest and their wishes with more anxiety than the interest and wishes of men who were merely the constituents of their electors. And thus our government would have a strong and constant tendency to oppress the most numerous part of the community, and to favour powerful men by means injurious to the weak."

The numerous classes, except in a few corporation towns, are at present excluded from suffrage. It will not be contended, that to give them a split vote, a fractional thirtieth of a suffrage, would make their condition worse than no vote at all; that he who has only a voice for a *chooser* would be more trampled on than he who has not even the means of this subordinate efficacy. The very small freeholders, whose pretensions are insufficient to concentrate thirty votes, and who could not rationally expect the office of chooser, would sink perhaps in importance. Who are these freeholders, and at whose devotion? They are mostly the absolute dependents of large farmers and country gentlemen, who compel their chief servants to buy freeholds, in order to use their votes at county elections: the farmer ingratiates himself with the landlord, and the squire with the peer, by thus ingrossing votes. It is only the apparent power that would migrate; at a less expence of purchase-money, but by the suffrage of more numerous dependents, the farmer and the squire would still be found to concentrate and to dispose of the influence of the parish. In the market towns there is commonly a book club, where the surgeon divides the laity against the clergyman. From such small towns it is probable that the surgeons would very generally be deputed as *choosers*. There is no class in society whose power may more safely be increased than the medical class; its education is liberal, its opinions unprejudiced, and its observations diffusive. If the institution of intermediate bodies should supersede the present plan of county elections, one may safely predict that government will institute a medical establishment, in order to influence by salaries the will of the surgeons, as it does that of the clergy. In the still larger towns, where there is a sufficient accumulation of populousness to make it worth a banker's while to institute an agency for the circulation of notes, the domineering influence would be that of the banker: his agent would be one chooser, and his debtors, the

others. This, in a great degree, is the present distribution of influence: the landed interest governs the villages, and the monied interest the towns. Where the great land-owners are divided, where the great bankers are divided, party assumes a form apparently autonomous; but there is a hidden chain of dependence extending from the highest to the lowest class, which, under every possible form of election, will be found, in quiet times, to bestow the victory on the balance of property. Nor ought this reciprocal link to be broken; for justice is the daughter of property, and the mother of liberty; and instruction is nearly coextensive with wealth.

On the whole it may be believed, that if to our present county elections were substituted a gradationed representation, allowing universal suffrage to the voters in the first instance, and allowing thirty such voters to depute one chooser, there would eventually be no great change in the practical distribution of influence. The numerous classes would a little have risen in importance by the difference between no vote, and one thirtieth part of a vote. The instructed classes would a good deal have risen in importance; because it would become necessary for the men of property to put forward surgeons, priests, schoolmasters, and persons of acknowledged education, as *choosers*; the mere possession of a decent income not being a qualification decidedly conciliatory. The established interests among the richer classes would, during the first ferment of change, appear to have yielded place to celebrity, public spirit, and talent; but would, after the first novelty of an independent choice, shortly reacquire their natural ascendancy.

Indeed Mr. Wyvill himself seems to think that matters would go on much the same as at present; for at page 91 he says, "Times of distress and danger would form an exception to the general tendency of the measure in question. The people would become solicitous about the management of public affairs; they would complain aloud, they would claim redress, and the change of ministers and their measures; but they would find their votes at primary assemblies gave them little importance, and their petitions would be disregarded." As it was in the beginning, is now, and ever shall be.

If however the best possible system of
U 2

representation could be devised, it would not follow that this best possible system ought to be substituted to the present. Uniformity is itself a fault, and a grievous one. It substitutes the tyranny of the prevailing interest to the specific preponderance of each. In every manner of electing there is some tendency, difficult of detection, to favour one class of men and one sort of interest more than another. Our county elections are so constituted that they almost necessarily throw the power into the hands of the land-owners. This influence already predominates in parliament mischievously, witness the corn bill; if a further addition was made to the county representation, the ascendancy of the land-owners would soon restore all the oppressions of the feudal ages. Our venal boroughs are so constituted that they almost necessarily throw power into the hands of the monied interest: they seat the highest bidder. This influence of city gentlemen is more favourable to commerce, to peace, to tolerance, to liberty, to a superstitious reverence for property, and to a virtuosity in human excellence which looks about for merit and lifts it, than the influence of country gentlemen. Yet who would consent to abolish county representation, and to retain only the close boroughs? By the

variety of our forms of election, the different interests, which are scattered in the community, are represented nearly in the proportion of the worth of their property. The most desirable addition to seats in parliament would be, that all towns containing more than twenty thousand inhabitants should, in right of their populousness, become entitled to a charter of representation; and send one, two, or three members, according to the number of the people. The most desirable suppression of seats in parliament would be those of the representatives of the little counties, where great land-owners, who are already in the upper house, also depute members to the lower.

In our opinion it would be wise to suffer the inhabitants of Birmingham, Manchester, Sheffield, and other dismembered cities, to frame a charter for themselves. Why should not one town realize the plan of election recommended by Horne Tooke, from observation of the London dispensaries,—that every person paying two guineas, may vote for a candidate as often as he pleases; another town realize the universal suffrage of sir William Jones; a third the graduated representation of Harrington, Hume, and Mackintosh; and a fourth the yet undefined plan of the respectable antagonist of twofold election?

ART. LIII. *An Inquiry into the real Difference between Actual Money and Paper Money; and an Examination into the Constitutions of Banks; by MAGENS DORRIEN MAGENS, Esq.* 8vo. pp. 68.

THIS inquiry contains much commentary on Mr. Thornton's book, which we considered at length vol. i. p. 384. The three first chapters are rather explanatory than theoretical. In the fourth, occurs the strange and dangerous proposition, that, in moments of alarm and adversity, the country is safer with one bank of England, than with a hundred private banks. In case of the bankruptcy of government, the insurrection of the populace, the presence of a rebellious or of an invading army in the metropolis, the failure of the East India company, and of the dependent mercantile interest, the detection of fresh embezzlements in a financial army, too vast for inspection, and, in other supposable, but unlikely circumstances, the notes of the bank of England may come to pass for invalid, and be sold at more or less discount. In this case the whole circulation of the kingdom would be at a stand. When

the bank of England stopt payment in the first instance, all the country-banks stopt payment also. But if every London banker issued notes of his own, and was at liberty to coin his own plate into drachmas for the discharge of them, the failure of government would overturn only those banking-houses who made advances of subsidies for the minister; the insurrection of the populace would endanger no public credit at all; the presence of one or two rebellious or hostile armies in London could not be made agreeable to the people, by promising to protect private property, and to plunder only public bodies; the dissolution of the India company would bury in its crash only the million-banks in connection with its peculiar circulation; the defalcations of embezzlement would be reduced by all the difference, between the vigilance of a director, who watches for others, and of a master,

who watches for himself ; and of course, at any given period of adversity, only one fraction of the banking interest would be affected, and there would remain sound and unhurt, a sufficient portion to conduct the still necessary circulation. We now embark on the *reputation* for solvency of one institution (which an absurd panic might annihilate), the security of all the forms of commercial intercourse.

This writer concludes by recommending a separation of the Bank and the Exchequer, in the following words :

“ Should the reader's sentiments coincide with the above, he may say, all this is true ; but how, at this present time, can we extricate ourselves from this dilemma ? How shall we now, in a state of warfare, venture to put things upon their old footing, as we acknowledge they ought to be ? And with great propriety do such questions arise ; but if original principles are to be adopted, there must, of course, be a time to arrange the alteration of system, and this being allowed, all difficulty vanishes. Why is not government equal to take care of its own Exchequer, without concerning themselves about the Bank ? Why a greater necessity for it now, than formerly ? It does not exist.

“ If a store of specie is requisite, it is no more than was always the case, and what actually existed in all former times. Is the minister to be embarrassed at a critical moment, by the bank telling him they are short of money ? Are his political arrangements to be influenced by the resolutions of a corporation ? And are the public at large to suffer, because his national exertions require more from the bank, than they were prepared to provide him with ? Can such things, which we all know have happened*, tend either to strengthen the executive government, or promote the particular benefit of the nation ? Is it not, on the contrary, dia-

metrically the reverse, as it enervates the one, and destroys confidence in the other ? Is it not, in fact, a system formed for temporary convenience ; to which all other considerations are sacrificed ? And does it not indisputably prove, that a bank cannot perform its own duties, and act also as a national exchequer ?

“ The command which the government have of money is prodigious : let them consider the great means they possess, and let them keep by them as much specie as the state of affairs may require : by such means, their measures may be more prompt and secret, and they will always be prepared for the worst : while the case cannot be the same, if dependent upon any corporation, or persons whatever. One great reason alledged for this drain upon the bank in 1797, was the rumour of invasion : had it taken place, how would government have been circumstanced had they wanted money to pay the troops ? And would not ministers have incurred the most severe censures, had there been a want of it, as there must have been in February, 1797 ?

“ Separate, therefore, the exchequer from the bank ; let the former depend upon itself alone ; and let the bank maintain its own sphere, as a house of agency for government, and of accommodation and convenience to the mercantile part of the community. By such means it may speedily be enabled to resume its payments in specie ; the government will be more secure, and general confidence better established. Nothing is wanting, but a resolution, on the part of the minister, to consider the bank only as an agent ; and never to borrow from it, or interfere with its concerns, unless some violent convulsion overturns all system, and renders measures necessary, which no other circumstances would justify. Maintaining this plan, both would be strengthened, and the national wealth encouraged and increased. Pursuing the system of the last ten years, nothing but weakness and eventual disgrace can be expected to occur.”

ART. LIV. *Observations on the State of the Currency in Ireland, and upon the Course of Exchange between Dublin and London ;* by HENRY PARNELL, Esq. 8vo. pp. 92.

BANKERS notes are machines for rendering fixed property circuleable.— They neither add to nor diminish the quantity of capital extant. The rent of this machinery may, indeed, be hoarded by the banker, and thus increase the national capital, like the hoarded profits of any other dealer ; but the notes themselves add nothing to the national property : a deposit was demanded for every issue in the form of cash, bills, or other security.

It follows that no nation can be en-

riched by issues of bank-notes, or any other paper-currency : and that it depends on the advantageous or disadvantageous employment of the capitals put in motion by this conversion, whether gain or loss is to accrue from the issue. A profuse transformation of fixed into circulating property, or which is the same thing, a profuse coinage and issue of bankers notes, rather tends to increase the competition of capitals in all forms of employment, to diminish that part of price which resolves itself into profit,

* See the Lords and Commons Report of the Bank, 1797.

and thus to be a cause of cheapness, and of lessening the gains of trade. The profits of commerce may be reduced to excess by these issues, and will be so reduced unless steps are taken to compel the payment in specie of all bank notes. This at once limits the issue to the effec-

tual demand. Our author very properly decides against any further or fresh restriction of the cash-payments on the bank of Ireland. This would replace, on its proper basis, the paper-credit of the Dublin bank.

ART. LV. *An Essay on the Principle of Commercial Exchange, and more particularly of the Exchange between Great Britain and Ireland; with an Enquiry into the Practical Effects of the Bank Restrictions*; by JOHN LESLIE FOSTER, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn. 8vo. pp. 209.

DURING the anarchy of the revolution of 1688, silver was scarce and copper abundant in Ireland, and a practice introduced itself of giving thirteen pence for a shilling, which has subsisted ever since. It is desirable to uniformize the circulating medium of both countries. This may best be done by issuing ounces of copper, of which ten should be exchangeable for one of our present shillings. The tokens, which circulate under the name of halfpence, and which are become so inconveniently abundant in Great Britain, as to suffer in practical value, might then be received in both islands, at their weighing value of three for an ounce, or new penny. To the mercantile world it would be an accommodation, if the denary column of their accounts were thus subjected to a decimal subdivision; as if ten pence made a shilling. To the numerous classes it would be a benefit, if labor, usually estimated by the penny were to be paid with the new penny of which ten, instead of the old penny of which twelve, make a shilling. The subdivision of minute values, facilitated by cheapening tokens, would enable those, who purchase grocery and similar articles, in very small quantities, to buy less disadvantageously; for fractional prices are made integral in the seller's favor, as an indemnity for the trouble of subdividing the articles sold. So that the change of the penny (to coin an Irish expression) into three half pence, would save money to the poor, and trouble to the rich.

This alteration, however, would not abolish the existence of a variable par of exchange between Dublin and London. It is probable that Dublin has more to remit to London, than London to Dublin; and that the demand for paper, payable in the other island, is greater in the daughter-city than in the metropolis. In this case, it will always obtain an agio in the mercantile world. At Edinburgh,

although no avowedly variable par of exchange subsists between it and London, bills at a long date on London are frequently exchanged as cash, which is only another form of allowing an agio. This percentage, or premium, given for drafts, is no misfortune to Dublin, or to Edinburgh. On the contrary, it would attract thither banking establishments from the metropolis, which, for the sake of the premium, would draw bills whenever they were in demand, were it not for the very heavy stamp duties, which now attach to every act of circulation. Those payments, which used to be made in two months' bills, are getting to be made in cash, in order to escape the stamps; and thus the capital of the country, so busied, has lost one sixth of its productive power. The ignorant policy of taxing circulating, instead of fixed property, is a principal cause of the growing embarrassments of commerce.

There is another form in which the agio, or premium, paid at Dublin for bills on London, operates usefully in Ireland: it facilitates the exportation of linens and other produce. The English merchant buys when he finds a profit in the exchange, and is therefore most surely tempted to do so, when bills bear the highest premium; when drafts on himself sell best. Hence the Irish manufacturers, and the merchant exporters, will always be found busy and thriving, when the exchange is what this writer calls *against* Dublin: and the merchant importers will always be found busy and thriving, when the exchange is what this writer calls *in favor* of Dublin. The thermometer varies from the freezing to the boiling point; but it is as much for us, that is for our interest, that it should be sometimes low, as that it should be sometimes high. It is so with the par of exchange, its even state is least favourable to circulation, and therefore to profit: its rise busies one set, its fall, another set of merchants.

This author, who is a clear, an informed, and a skilful reasoner, imagines that beside the effects produced on the exchange by the altered state of the demand for bills, there is a sensible effect produced by the practical depreciation of bank-notes. As in London, so in Dublin, it is occasionally necessary for the accommodation of country-bankers, or of Hamburg merchants, to pay two or three per cent. for the collection of gold and silver money. But it would be difficult to prove that this is a real depreciation of the bank of England note, the money so bought being to be issued by the country-banker at its original value, not at its cost. Such purchases are here treated as proofs of the depreciation of paper-money. Here, if any where, Mr. Foster has failed to convince us. This depreciation is then argued upon as a cause of the unprecedented, and therefore, inconvenient state of the exchange. Should such a depreciation once begin, it would be the duty of private bankers to supply the wants of the people, instead of the national bank.— This they might do, by advertising the issue of a fresh circulating medium, exchangeable for gold and silver tokens of their own providing. We do not find that the bank-charter, or that any other act of parliament, imposes a direct prohibition on such issues in the metropolis : although more than six persons may not unite in a firm, nor may unstamped notes be issued but by the bank. If several known banking-houses were each to coin a limited amount of notes (a million each, suppose) and to receive each other's notes as cash ; these houses all discharging, in gold and silver tokens, their own notes when presented ; a circulating medium would soon be generated more profitable to the state, and more secure for the public than bank-notes, because exempt from the accidents of ministerial credit. Discount would be executed more glibly, and government securities sell better for this addition of floating capital. The bank wants a rival. It does not enlarge its ideas with the public wants. Instead of cringing to the minister for the prolongation of a restriction which it could afford to despise ; let it disembowel those subterranean caves of Mammon, open a hundred offices from Limehouse to Knightsbridge, for the exchange of its paper into specie, and extend its lava of notes from twenty

to a hundred millions. This is practicable any day : the solicited restriction is a mere contrivance of counting-house economy, to save the opening of offices sufficiently numerous for the hourly conversion into specie, of the hourly proffer of paper. The re-issue could easily be effected from a single centre. Perhaps it would be expedient to charge one penny for the exchange of a pound note into specie, two pence for a five pound note, four pence for a ten pound note, and sixpence for fifty pounds, and upwards. This would sufficiently resist the exchanges of caprice, of malice, of idleness, of faction, of bustle ; the exchanges of fear and of convenience are entitled to accommodation, and for these the percentage would never be grudged.

The refusal of the bank to pay in cash is already a heavy tax on prices : it is likely to become a much heavier, for an adulteration of the coinage will probably take place before it is withdrawn ; and then the public will find every form of property reduced. The rent of land, and the amount of capital, will be paid in the new not in the old pound ; in the cheap, not in the pure coin ; and under the old denomination will purchase a twentieth less. But the bank sold out its notes for the pure, and will redeem with the adulterated coin ; and thus make a profit on a series of transactions by which every other proprietor will be a loser.

A sufficient idea of the manner of this essay may be obtained from the following passage.

“ It has already been admitted, that an unfavourable exchange, when real, that is, an exchange computed in the value of the precious metals, operates as a bounty on exports, though never to a greater extent than the expense of carriage of the precious metals to the creditor country : but for the reasons already stated, it is in vain to expect such an effect from a nominal exchange ; that is, an exchange computed according to the nominal value of the circulating medium of the country, as distinguished from the quantity of the precious metals which it really contains or represents.

“ It will be in vain, therefore, to continue any longer in expectation of what never can arrive, and to submit to an increasing grievance in the unfounded hope of its tending to redress itself. The necessity of seeking farther for a remedy must be apparent, and a remedy, not founded on a system of expe-

U 4

dients*, which can only tend to aggravate the evil.

"As all the difficulties in which Ireland is engaged, have evidently flowed from the restriction, we must naturally look forward to its removal as the final remedy: but it will be necessary also to take into consideration, that the effects which the restriction has produced, have the remarkable property of rendering its continuance a measure of necessity; it is necessary, therefore, to take into consideration, the probability of its removal being speedily effected, as well as the desirable consequences which would ensue on that event.

"But as that consummation, however devoutly to be wished for, may be still far distant, it certainly should become a subject of inquiry, whether, during the continuance of the restriction, it is absolutely necessary that it should continue the parent of so much mischief? whether it is impossible to curb its operations? at least, whether a system different from that which is pursued might not prevent the depreciation of paper through excess?

"It has already been observed, that so long as there was no restriction, the circulating medium could not be permanently excessive; but it does not follow that its excess must be the necessary consequence of the restriction; the restriction permits excess, but does not compel it; and it is difficult to conceive any obligation which it imposes upon the directors to issue a greater quantity of paper than would circulate, if no restriction was imposed.

"Previous to the restriction, the directors considered the run on them for gold as the criterion of the proper quantity of paper which they should keep in circulation; that is, when the demand on them for gold was great, they considered it as a proof that the quantity of their notes in circulation ought to be reduced; and they never failed immediately to contract their issues, and consequently to diminish the amount of the circulating medium of the country.

"This demand on them for gold they attributed to various causes; sometimes to the quantity of their paper being too great, sometimes to political alarm, but generally to the unfavourable state of foreign exchanges; and so much attention did they pay to this last cause of demand, that in all cases of unfavorable exchange, conceiving that the gold must be flowing out of the country, they lessened their issues as a measure of precaution. That such was the practice of the banks previous to the restriction is so well known, that it is scarcely necessary to adduce particular proofs of it. The reader will find

it continually avowed in the examinations of the English directors before the Secret Committees of the Lords and Commons in 1797, and still more distinctly by Mr. Colville†, an Irish Bank director, in his recent examinations. It is further assumed in the Report of the Select Committee.

"Such has been the natural practice of banks previous to the restriction. Mr. Colville states it in very clear and forcible terms as to the bank of Ireland. *Prior to 1797, they limited the amount of their issues as exchange rose.* If prudence has not dictated such a course, necessity would have compelled a diminution of their issues, by diminishing the stock of specie, which could only be replaced at a loss proportionate to the existing rate of exchange; and your committee observe, that, in fact as well as in theory, the effect of such practice always was and must be the redress of the unfavorable exchange‡.

"The general proposition which the Bank directors seem formerly with so much justice to have admitted, is, *that in every commercial country the limitation of the circulating medium is the efficient remedy for redressing its unfavorable exchanges.* In pursuing the line of conduct which this principle suggested, the directors acted for the benefit of the country as much as for the safety of their establishment; the effect of their measures having been most powerfully to second the operation of the balance of debt in producing the means for its discharge.

"As the first effect of an unfavorable exchange, arising from a balance of debt, is to create a demand for circulating medium in the debtor country, and in many instances actually to export it, it is evident that it tended to limit the amount of the circulating medium, by creating a demand for that medium which could not be supplied. The effects of this scarcity have already been fully examined§; it is sufficient now to observe, that, were there no bank, the principle by which the balance of debt, and consequent unfavorable exchange, are removed, is by the limitation of the circulating medium which they occasion.

"But it is obvious that a bank may entirely counteract this tendency by increasing the circulating medium of the country in proportion as it is demanded; and it is so natural that they shall be called upon to do it, that whenever it were possible we should not be surprised if such were constantly their conduct; but fortunately for the nation, before the restriction, their interest, as a private corporation, most remarkably coincided with that of the nation at large; which, so far from allowing them to increase their

* The reader will find in the 5th and 15th pages of the Evidence, a remarkable instance of the fate of an expedient adopted on a similar occasion.

† Page 100, Evidence before Select Committee.

‡ Report of the Select Committee, page 4.

§ In the first chapter.

issues at such a time, compelled them most remarkably to diminish them, and create a scarcity or limitation of circulating medium much greater than the balance of debt, or unfavorable exchange, could otherwise have occasioned. The interests of the nation and of the bank, though requiring the adoption of the same measure, that is, the limitation of the circulating medium, were founded on different motives; it was the interest of the nation that the circulating medium should be scarce, in order to encourage and compel an increase of exports in lieu of money to discharge the balance; it was the interest of the bank that their outstanding notes should be few, in order to diminish the run upon them for gold; so far, therefore, from there being any danger of the bank counteracting the

efficacy of the balance of debt the public were secure that the bank would facilitate its operations; for the balance of debt, if left to produce its own effect, could limit the circulating medium only in the amount of the debt to be paid: but the operations of the bank limited it much more, perhaps to double that amount; and by the superior scarcity, that is, value of circulating medium which they thus created, they redressed the exchange in a still shorter time."

This writer has a large capital of information, great clearness and readiness of statement, and has issued an important and good essay of exchange for circulation in the literary market.

ART. LVI. *A Letter to the Right Hon. Lord King in Defence of the Conduct of the Directors of the Banks of England and Ireland; with Remarks on the Cause of the great Rise of the Exchange between Dublin and London, and the Means of equalizing it.* By HENRY BOASE. 8vo. pp. 52.

LORD King justly observed in his celebrated pamphlet (see A. R. vol. II. p. 359) that the obligation to pay in specie would impose on the discounts of the bank the expedient limitation; and that the forced circulation of notes, an overstocking of the money market with disemployed capital, and a consequent rash and speculative buying-up of commodities, would all result from tolerating the mischievous privilege of a compulsory tender. The proprietors of bank stock gain by their patent paper: if a British minister could be venal, they could afford to give fifty thousand pounds to such a minister for the continuance of the restriction: the extra-profits of the concern would justify a still higher offer, and of course every pretext will be seized to make the restriction perpetual.

But the public suffer grievously by this coinage. At Michaelmas 1797 the amount of bank notes in circulation was little more than ten millions, and the price of bullion was five shillings for the ounce of silver. About a year after, the amount of bank notes in circulation was twelve millions and a half, and the price of silver bullion five and threepence the ounce. In 1800 the habitual circulation of notes was fifteen millions, and the average price of bullion five and sixpence. In November last, the issue of notes had ascended to seventeen millions and a half, and bullion to five and ninepence. It may safely be prophesied that when the issue of notes shall amount, which it perhaps will do this very summer, to twenty millions, the price of

bullion will be six shillings the ounce of silver. What does this prove? Certainly that the multiplication of symbolic money diminishes, as in other cases of plenty, the value of symbolic money; and that paper no longer bears the same relation to metal when it is abundant as when it is scarce. With bullion, the foreigner can still buy at the old rate the productions of this country; but the Englishman, with his paper, cannot buy them at the old rate; but pays more for them. The restriction therefore defrauds every individual who lives on the fixed and settled income of funded, bonded, or mortgaged property, of all the loss incurred by that appreciation of produce, which results from the distinct values of our paper and our bullion. Such appreciation is a vast tax on the people to enrich the proprietors of bank stock.

This author advances the unaccountable proposition that the scarcity of money in London is a proof that no more notes have been issued than are wanted. We must copy so perverse a piece of theory.

"That the quantum of bank notes is increased nearly double since the restriction, does not prove an excess: half the quantity might be excessive, or double the amount a deficient supply. Your lordship fully admits this principle, in admitting that the only standard of the requisite quantity of currency, is the *bona fide* demands of trade. And it must, I think, be as readily admitted, that as the transfer of goods and property is made only through the medium of currency, (whatever the symbols of it may be) there should be a sufficiency of currency to meet all the

demands of business ; otherwise trade becomes stagnant, and the nation suffers unnecessary loss. This is therefore a criterion to which we may fairly appeal, in proof that there has hitherto been no superabundance of bank notes ; and it is a proof within the reach of almost every body. Ask then your solicitor whether, since the year 1796, there has generally been a facility of selling or mortgaging lands, or whether there has not, on the whole, been much difficulty, on account of the scarcity of money, *i. e.* of bank notes ? Ask the merchants, who uniformly discount at the bank of England, whether, on the average, they have been restricted to a less sum, than was needful for their business, and have in consequence, been obliged to solicit the discount of bills of exchange from private bankers and friends ? Ask the bankers whether they have not, during the same period, much oftener refused to discount for their customers, than desired more applications ? Ask the several descriptions of brokers in the various departments of the money market (I mean bill-brokers, stock-brokers, &c.) whether there has not been for the last seven years, nine days of "scarcity" to one of "plenty of money ;" and that plenty also momentary, and not excessive ? I am persuaded, that from candid and intelligent men, totally unconnected with each other, one uniform answer would be received to all these inquiries ; and I know of no more substantial and unequivocal evidence for establishing the real matter of fact. It undoubtedly would prove beyond all rational dispute, that on the average at least, there has been no excess of Bank of England notes."

The scarcity of money has nothing to do with the greater or less issue of notes. General scarcity is made up of individual scarcities. Money is scarce with a

merchant when his returns are delayed beyond the expected period, and when his returns do not replace the capital advanced with the expected profit : he is then not able to undertake so soon or so much new enterprise as he projected. It would not be prudent so to do : he can incur (thanks to his credit) a debt at his banker's, or his friend's ; but money is scarce with him, though he has plenty of notes to pay all his acceptances. The scarcity of money in London announces that the last year's trade has been unprofitable, that the capitals of the country have been scattered without yielding their due increase, that our bread has been sown on many waters without germinating any where ; and for this loss and the consequent difficulty of realizing punctually the usual purchases and sales, a fresh issue of bank notes is no remedy. If the last year's crop was bad it may be right to sow the land again ; but the act of sowing, like the issue of bank notes, is not any diminution of this deficiency. Money is scarce when the nation has no longer the capital it had to conduct its affairs with. Bank notes are not capital, they are mere machinery for facilitating the transfer and subdivision and removal of capital. The proportion which capital bears to the demand for its employment constitutes the plenteousness or scarcity of money : but for every note issued an equivalent deposit is made at the bank ; so that the capital of the country is not at all altered by the issues ; though it may be increased by the profits of the bank.

ART. LVII. *Two Letters addressed to a noble Lord on the Manufactures, Agriculture, and apparent Prosperity of Scotland ; with a few Strictures on the Speculations, Morals and Manners of the Nineteenth Century.* 8vo. pp. 55.

WHILE infidelity gasconaded at Paris, a member of the Legislative Assembly proposed to institute an order of public orators, whose office it should be to withdraw the attention of the people from a mischievous solicitude about future existence, and to direct their care to a wise use of the present. Medical and statistical homilies concerning physical education and scientific farming were to supersede the liturgies of the theologians and the renunciations of christianity. Volney printed a civic catechism, and atheism aspired to priesthood and the mitre.

These two letters are such sermons as such a church would produce ; not that they meddle with religious opinions ; but they moralize about agriculture, manufacture, commercial speculation, and national expenditure, without any other apparent drift than to recommend a prudent mean between bootless timidity and rash speculation, between the caution, which foregoes all chance of profit and advancement, and the spirit, which exposes security and forfeits ultimate advantage.

The observations are natural ; the reflections just ; the style eloquent ; the

topics popular; but the *wherefore*, the *qui bono*, is still to seek in both dissertations.

Glasgow set up cotton-mills in 1783, and in 1793 had overtraded, and was visited with diffusive failures. Who does not know, who does not regret so orderly a misfortune, which reduced the master-weavers to clerks, and the weavers to soldiers? The growth of manufactures in Glasgow, and the consequent increase of population, created a contiguous demand for the productions of agriculture, which induced many graziers to turn farmers. The augmentation of rents enabled several landlords, hitherto obscure yeomen, to occupy houses in Edinburgh, and partake the luxuries of the metropolis. Who does not agree with the author in thinking those country gentlemen unwise, who began to live beyond the means which temporary causes of income produced? Distilleries resulted from the new demand for spi-

rits, which the augmented earnings of the poor naturally occasioned. Who does not agree with the author in lamenting the occasional mischief of the worm of the still?

In the second letter, the author quits Glasgow, and its neighbourhood, for Edinburgh; and prosés, with a similar pitying despondence of tone, over the symptoms of increased prosperity, we must not say, but of increased expenditure and circulation in the metropolis. Houses expand, without a sensible increase of inhabitants; frugality vanishes, without a sensible increase of capital; fornication kisses, without a sensible increase of children; splendour coaches the street, and alights at the prison-door. Probably these phenomena are new in Scotland, and therefore seem to merit remark. They are here noticed with wholesome admonitions worthy of the pulpits of religion.

ART. LVIII. *Thoughts on the Formation of the late and present Administrations.* By LORD ARCHIBALD HAMILTON. 3d Edition. 8vo. pp. 70.

IN the formation of ministries, so much attention ought to be paid to the wish of the crown, as is requisite for the defence of regal authority. By every constitutional politician, at least, this maxim must be acceded to.

The king, therefore, should always be allowed to place, in the cabinet itself, some representative of royalty, some devotee of the crown, so as to secure a timely notice of any measures hostile to the privileges, the prerogative, or the influence of the king, which parliamentary jacobins might think it a duty to suggest.

Beside this interference of precaution with the composition of the cabinet, which the interests of the constitution imperiously require, the king ought also to have a personal influence on the selection of his advisers, proportioned to his skill as a judge of merit. If, like the marquis of Lansdowne, he perceived with intuitive penetration, the adapted destination of men, and immediately beckoned each of his distinguished subjects to the performance of that public part in society, for which nature and education had exactly fitted them; he would deserve a wider range of trust over public appointments, than if he

were a sciolist in discrimination, an imprecise critic of human capacity. The king who selects a Pitt to superintend his finances, a sir William Jones to overlook the judicatures of Hindostan, a Watson to preach toleration among the episcopacy, deserves more personal (or apparently personal) weight and sway, than the king, who, when a Beattie and a Gibbon are competitors for his patronage, gives a pension to the poetaster, and passes over the historian. Combinations to overawe the personal inclination of the king, and to encroach on the patronage of his favouritism, are only meritorious, in proportion to the abuse of such patronage.

But beyond that influence, which the crown needs for its official protection; and that influence, to which it may accidentally be entitled by the sagacity of the reigning sovereign; no concession can be expedient.

For any possible undesirable bias in the sovereign, or his contiguous superintending private advisers, the British constitution has one acknowledged and sufficient remedy—the parliamentary dictation of ministers.

This was formerly accomplished, in cases of obstinacy, by withholding the

supplies. It is no longer wise, if it were practicable, to resist the grant of taxes ; the stockholders, not the advisers of the sovereign, would be the sufferers ; the public service, not the hangers on of the court, would be the victim. It is become necessary, therefore, in order to restore the practical constitution of Great Britain, and to preserve its antient spirit, to devise a new method of propping parliament in the dictation of ministers. This may best be accomplished surely, by separating the civil list into its national and personal grants.

Lord Archibald Hamilton sees the grievance, and puts it strongly. In our opinion, he is too precautions in the indication of remedy. He would be content that parliament should accomplish its end this time, by obscure compromise, without providing, for the future, definite methods of repeating its interference with success. He may have said enough for his allies, but hardly enough for the people ; he is more the temporary partisan than the perpetual patriot ; let it not suffice to get at the place of pilgrimage, a road should be made for arriving there at pleasure.

The following passage will describe the character of lord A. Hamilton's sentiments :

" The justice or propriety of the exclusion of Mr. Fox, in particular, forms no part of the question, as far as relates to constitutional ground ; because such justice or propriety cannot constitutionally be estimated by the royal mind ; nor does there appear to be any argument, which can justify or condemn it *in this point of view*, that would not apply with equal force to Mr. Pitt, or to any other man. The object of our inquiry does not relate to the person excluded, but to the principle of exclusion ; and, in the present case, not to exclusion, in concurrence with the house of commons and the country, but in direct opposition to both.

" It is a principle in the British constitution, that the king can do no wrong—upon what grounds ? Surely, that no wrong may be done without responsibility existing somewhere. Accordingly, every act of executive power is supposed to proceed, and constitutionally speaking, does proceed, from responsible advisers of the crown. Not a peerage, a pension, or grant of any kind, which can affect the public, emanates from the royal authority, that is not subservient to this principle ; the very speeches from the throne are subject to this rule, and are uniformly treated accordingly.

" To such an extent is this principle inherent in the constitution, that it would be indecent and improper to suppose, that the executive authority was, in any case, exerted, but under this salutary maxim ; and hence the constitutional check, which the house of commons enjoys over the executive power, in the appointment or continuance of improper ministers, is, in fact, over the *advisers of the crown*, and not over the crown itself. An opposite doctrine would violate the whole spirit of our government ;—it would presume responsibility in the royal person.

" On the other hand, it is equally clear, that the choice of its own ministers is the just and constitutional prerogative of the crown, subject to no exception or restraint.

" It must be evident, therefore, that neither of these two opposite and contending powers, which the constitution acknowledges, can be pushed to the extreme, in theory or in practice, without interfering with the other. The business of government, and all its duties, must be suspended, if the crown and the two houses of parliament were to persist in an obstinate adherence to the full legal exercise of their respective rights, whenever they did not concur in their approbation or dislike ; and nothing less than universal confusion could ensue. The crown might have thus continued Mr. Addington, for ever, as minister ; and the house of commons might, for ever, have denied him their support.

" Happily, however, the spirit of the constitution supplies a remedy to this evil ; and the usual practice of the crown has been conformable thereto. This remedy, or rather preventive, is composed of two ingredients : a responsibility, attaching somewhere, for all acts of executive power ; and a constitutional right in the house of commons, to refuse support, which, in its spirit and effect, is a power of rejection.

" This responsibility was not instituted, merely to punish wrong when committed, but to prevent wrong from being done ; and wrong, in such a case, can only be prevented, by excluding private partialities, personal feelings, and court intrigue, from having any influence in the appointment of the public servants.

" Were the king of England to nominate his footman minister, (I purposely suppose the most objectionable case possible), surely *some person* must be responsible for the outrage ; and there does not appear any reason, why the same responsibility should not attach to a capricious exclusion, as to an unwise appointment.

" It seems therefore that, consistently with the constitution, neither appointment nor exclusion can rest upon any other than public grounds ; and that, to impute the exclusion of Mr. Fox, in the present instance, to private prejudice, or personal feelings, in the royal mind, is to libel and traduce the king ;

and that, to ascribe it to the weakness or wickedness of his advisers, is to burthen them with no more than a just and legitimate, though, in this case, a very heavy, responsibility."

"Since Mr. Pitt's acceptance of power, his adherents have urged the impropriety of forcing any minister upon the king; which the conduct here suggested has been represented as having a tendency to effect, and thus to controul the legitimate prerogative of the crown.

"To this it is replied, that the constitution, in theory, acknowledges no such thing as forcing the king, though its spirit does authorise a refusal to support—and a continued 'refusal to support government till power be in the hands of persons acceptable to the people'; that, strictly speaking, it cannot happen, because the wishes of the king and of the house of commons can never, on this point, be constitutionally at variance—the prerogative of the crown, to appoint ministers, being established for the purpose of giving effect to the public voice.

"But it is to be observed, the present was no extreme case to the crown, though it was to the country—It was not the caprice of the one, against the caprice of the other—It was not an individual favoured by the one, against an individual favoured by the other.—For, even allowing that the crown did entertain a prejudice against one person—and allowing, also, that such a prejudice would afford a constitutional ground of exclusion, still, we must insist, that the question cannot fairly be stated to rest, in the present instance, upon an objection to an individual.

"The alternative to the crown, was not between the appointment of one man, whom it did approve as minister, and of one, whom it did not; but between an administration containing one individual disagreeable to the crown, the remainder being unobjectionable, and such an administration as we now possess.

"The alternative to the country was very different—it was between an administration composed on a principle and basis wholly agreeable, or on a principle and basis wholly disagreeable. On one side, the objection was to an individual; on the other, to a system.

"Mr. Pitt might have been minister as he now is, agreeably to the supposed wishes of

the crown. Mr. Fox's admission to office did not exclude Mr. Pitt, though Mr. Pitt's admission has been found to exclude Mr. Fox. Thus, on one side, a very slight sacrifice was required; on the other, a very great one.

"It is worth while, to pursue this point somewhat further—the more so, as this objection of forcing a minister upon the crown, has been made the apology for Mr. Pitt's conduct; and as a little investigation may distinctly point out, what degree of tenderness towards the prerogative, Mr. Pitt, in the course he has actually pursued, can fairly lay claim to.

"In the first place, it may be observed, that every refusal to support the existing ministers, is an attempt to controul the crown, in the exercise of its choice. There is no very great difference, between a continued refusal to support (we presume, Mr. Pitt's refusal to support would have been continued, as long as the same grounds had remained, which produced his opposition to Mr. Addington), and an endeavour, by lawful means, to secure such an administration as is desired.

"For the house of commons to prescribe any individual to the crown, would be indecent and unconstitutional; but to refuse its support upon good grounds, till a ministry was formed agreeable to itself, and conformable to public opinion, would be both constitutional and decorous. Perseverance in such a case, would be a question, not of constitution, but of policy.

"If the word *force*, however, is to be applied at all, and if a tenderness towards the crown be recognised as sound doctrine, and a salutary principle, still it is evident, that Mr. Pitt's opposition to Mr. Addington, and subsequent acceptance of power upon the basis of exclusion, cannot be justified upon any such ground; as it certainly has evinced no such tenderness."

This pamphlet is written with ability, perspicuity, urbanity, and singleness of view; it displays an intimate conversancy with the fathers of constitutional politics; it forms the acknowledged manifesto of the parties now coalesced in opposition; it will survive the present struggle, and be appealed to in successive emergencies.

ART. LIX. *Letter to Lord A. Hamilton on the Occasion of his late Pamphlet, in which the fatal Consequences of the King's melancholy State of Health are particularly considered.* 8vo. pp. 50.

THIS commentary, we had almost said supplement, to lord A. Hamilton's pamphlet, drags into the discussion the

question of his majesty's health, which, from motives of personal reverence, had been avoided in the thoughts alluded to.

* Thoughts on the Causes of the present Discontents.

After many particulars, valuable to the curious, about individual opinion, the writer goes on thus :

"Amidst this complication of mystery, how is it possible to believe, that the king's mind was even brought *fairly* to consider of a new administration; much less that it was *fairly* induced to determine and adhere to the exclusion of Mr. Fox? Your lordship, I perceive, like most other patriotic writers, accounts for all this, by ascribing it to the secret advisers of the crown : on the contrary, I account for it, by supposing his majesty *under guidance*, in consequence of his recovery not being completed; and, on this point, to use your own phraseology, "it is left to the public to determine."

"Having myself advanced thus far, upon what you may consider as delicate ground, and having, in a former page, censured your lordship for not going further than you did, I shall think it my duty to say a few words upon the probability of his majesty's perfect re-establishment, and upon the wisdom of yet, though late, adopting some measure of precaution against the evils of a relapse. I am aware of the delicacy of the subject; but, in my estimation, its delicacy ought, under the present circumstances of the country, to yield to its importance. If ever the time comes, that the united empire is involved in general calamity, for want of timely precaution on this point, the delicacy of the subject will constitute but a poor excuse for those, whose duty it was to stifle sensibility, and to provide against danger.

"In this view of the subject, it is not solely the present state of his majesty's health, and the prospect of his recovery, that appears of importance; for it is equally necessary to contemplate the probability of a relapse, and to endeavour, by timely provisions, to mitigate the ill consequences of such a calamity, if it should ever happen.

AÆT. LX. *A Reply to Lord Archibald Hamilton's Thoughts on the Formation of the late and present Administrations.* 8vo. pp. 45.

THIS writer barefacedly attacks the privilege of parliament: we hold up his positions to public animadversion.

"The doctrine (and I do not here mean to confine my observations merely to his lordship's pamphlet, but also to notice one or two opinions which have been made public elsewhere) endeavoured to be inculcated is, that parliament or the people have a right to prescribe to the king in the choice of his servants; thereby rendering the prerogative a perfect nullity.

"Parliament has a right, an undoubted and constitutional right, to interfere in the removal of ministers, insufficient in weight and abilities to the exigencies of the moment; but any attempt to go further, to govern the

"It must be recollected, as was stated before, that the very ground, on which *all* the physicians in attendance upon his majesty, in 1789, rested their hopes of his recovery was, that it was the *first* attack with which his majesty had been afflicted. However much their opinions might differ on other points, and however much they might derive their respective opinions from different impressions, this view of the case, and this ground of hope was common to them all.

"It is needless, my lord, to pursue this matter into any minute detail; but surely it will not be considered indecent or disrespectful to remark, that this ground of hope exists no longer; and that, if measures of precaution would be now premature, which is much to be doubted, there is some cause to fear that, at a future time, *they may be too late.*"

And what—if it were to become a constitutional doctrine, that a king of England can no more become *non compos mentis*, than he can do any other wrong, or be made liable, in consequence, to civil disabilities? If, for every public proceeding, there is a recognized responsible known adviser, punishable for misconduct, what inconvenience could result from the impassiveness of the sovereign, the merely nominal author of such proceeding? To hold up transient alienation of mind as incompatible with British royalty, has its danger. A seditious impatience under it, strikes at the stability of the dynasty. And surely parliaments are not found the less independent, during any interruption of the personal influence of the monarch. Why not then quietly consent "to take the indisposed and sickly fit for the sound man?"

king in his right to chuse new servants, after the ministers no longer approved or supported are turned out, can be construed into nothing more or less than a violation of one of the principles of the constitution, let the grounds for such conduct be what they may, whether secret advisers, or too powerful court influence."

It is only as the fountain of honour that the king can nominate ministers: now in this capacity the constitution so expressly recognizes the superior authority of parliament, that titles can be withdrawn by parliament, and not by the king. In the eye of the law, the king is incapable of thinking wrong;

therefore, if the crown is induced to grant any privilege to a subject, contrary to reason, or prejudicial to the commonwealth, such grant is rendered void, and attributed to *mere imposition*: this is Blackstone's doctrine and dialect, and applies strictly to a misappointed ministry. In their capacity of redressing grievances,

the bill of rights recognizes in our parliaments an overawing authority. The constitutional language, or parliamentary diction therefore, in which Mr. Pitt's accession to place ought to be reprobated, is this;—his appointment was a mere imposition. But as Lear says: "Robes and furr'd gowns hide all."

ART. LXI. *A short Appeal to the good Sense of the People of the United Kingdom; especially recommended to the Perusal of their Representatives in Parliament, occasioned by reading A plain Answer to the Misrepresentations and Calumnies in the Cursory Remarks of a near Observer.* 8vo. pp. 63.

THIS is a lively, a somewhat stinging pamphlet, which had its interest, while the choosers of administration were oscillating between Mr. Pitt and Mr.

Addington, and which tended to favour the pretensions of the latter. Now is the day after the fair, the puffs of the auctioneer are no longer in season.

ART. LXII. *Letter to Sir Francis Burdett, Bart. on the Folly, Indecency, and the dangerous Tendency of his public Conduct.* By the R. V. EDWARD HANKIN, M. A. M. D. 8vo. pp. 58.

THE object of this pamphlet is to hold up to public animadversion two passages of the oratorical conduct of sir Francis Burdett. The first is this extract, from a speech delivered in the house of commons, 18th July, 1803.

"The best, and, in my opinion, the only effectual scheme of defence which can be devised for the country at this crisis, may be comprised in one measure, viz.: a repeal of all the acts applying to constitutional topics, which have been passed since the accession of the present king to the throne, and then you may hope to rouse the antient enthusiasm of the people, and furnish them with real motives to fight, for the blessings of constitutional freedom, and personal security."

Surely this observation is not merely justifiable, but just; the constitutional laws passed during the present reign, whether wise or no, are innovations, in an anti-popular direction, and consequently the repeal of them must be favourable to the revival of the ancient enthusiasm of the people.

The second passage is said to have been delivered at the Crown and Anchor tavern, on the 29th July, 1803, and is thus reported by our author:

"———. I have no hesitation in declaring that, in the present state of the country, viewing the conduct of ministers in the light I do, I think it impos-

sible for any honest man to come forward in their defence, or to be justified in lending an assisting arm in defence of their country." Sir Francis proceeded to affirm, "that we should not arm till ministers had redressed all our grievances; that is, repealed all the acts of the present reign, as he so cleverly declared in the house of commons."

It is evident, at first sight, that this report is garbled, altered, and interpolated, with hostile intentions. The final clause beginning with the words, "that is, repealed all the acts of the present reign," must, by its very nature, be a gloss, or comment, of the reporter; yet it is here dotted as a part of the speech of sir Francis himself. We suspect that the final clause of the preceding sentence, beginning with the words, "or to be justified in lending an assisting arm," is also a gloss, or comment, of the reporter; and, in this case, there is here again nothing at all to rail at.

We are, however, entirely disposed to caution sir Francis Burdett against valuing liberty more than independence. The surge of an intolerant sect may ebb; but the dominion of a foreign power, whether clad in the tagrag garb of democracy, or in the imperial costume of despotism, would know no relents of oppression, and no interregnum of beneficence.

ART. LXIII. *Letter to the Right Hon. Lord Pelham, on the State of Mendicity in the Metropolis.* By MATTHEW MARTIN, Esq. 8vo. pp. 30.

WHEN a man stretches out his hand in the street to ask alms, it is not enough to answer "Go and work;" we ought to be able to say, "Come and work." Unless there are establishments, where every necessitous individual may find, at all times, the offer of employment, at wages adequate to his mere subsistence, almsgiving is not a weakness, but a virtue.

What is the worst use to which a half-penny so given is likely to be applied, suppose the receiver as idle, as profligate, as imagination can figure? He will employ it, perhaps, as part of the purchase of a dram of gin. Even in this case it will bestow ten, twenty, minutes of imaginary health, and luxurious excitement; the cares retreat, the hopes approach; sorrow has an interval of repose, and existence an interval of value. And if it is to be employed for purposes of real necessity, to defer the pawning of a blanket, or the hunger of a child;—who would grudge—who not volunteer the petty gift?

Begging is not so objectionable on its own account, as on account of the inequality of recompense with which it is attended. A good situation, a miserable appearance, will earn a little fortune for bustling worthlessness; while modest principle starves, unheeded, in pining humility. It was wise, therefore, in the catholics, to consolidate the fortunes of mendicants; to institute begging orders, to convene in one community the superannuated, diseased, and crippled, outcasts of industry, and to licence certain delegates of the distressed, to collect for the wants of the whole tribe of the helpless. Why not build convents, or hospitories, in which those might be fed and clad; who, after examination by appropriate surgeons, are declared incapable of earning a subsistence? Why not permit certain members of these fraternities, or sisterhoods, to offer locked tills at convenient places to the charitable passenger, and to bring home, for the use of the household, the result of a patient unobtrusive quest? Begging has, in all ages and countries, so much abounded in thronged situations, that it may be considered as a necessary phenomenon of popular society, as a lesson of nature, as the appropriate form of providing for those, whose labour has little or no exchangeable value. The eleemosynary rashness, which

gives without inquiry and without discrimination, is almost diffusive enough to maintain both the pretended and the real invalid. If the separation of these classes were intrusted to proper inspectors, no doubt, enough might be collected to maintain all who ought to be tolerated as members of the order of mendicants. Piety has always delighted in the gratitude of mendicity, and christianity has commanded us to deserve it: there is a sort of irreligion in attempting its extirpation.

Actuated apparently by some such views, the benevolent author of this curious and instructive pamphlet undertook those inquiries, concerning the beggars of London, of which the result is here published, and may thus be condensed:

"In an early stage of my inquiry, the 'Society for bettering the condition, and increasing the comforts of the poor,' was instituted, of which I had the honour of being nominated a member, and of proposing, that my plan for an inquiry into the circumstances of BEGGARS, should constitute one of the declared objects of that society, which was kindly acceded to.

"When about 300 paupers had attended, the undertaking becoming somewhat too arduous and expensive to be carried on without further assistance, I was induced to solicit the support of government.

"My wishes being represented to the society, a deputation of some of its members, of which I had the honour to be one, waited upon the duke of Rutland, to explain the nature of the design, which he was pleased to encourage; and, in consequence of his grace's recommendation, I received a warrant for 500*l.* from the lords commissioners of his majesty's treasury, to enable me to prosecute the inquiry; and since, by the favour of your lordship, a second warrant to the same amount, an acknowledgment of which, and of lesser sums, derived from other sources, may be seen, by reference to the account annexed. When I felt myself supported by government, the business of course assumed an additional degree of importance; I prepared to enlarge my plan of operation, and accordingly engaged an office and assistants. I took some time to digest my scheme; but when it was once sufficiently arranged, and set in action, the execution went on rapidly.

"In order to induce the paupers to attend at the office, I caused tickets to be printed; and about 6000 were disposed of to myself and others, at the price of three-pence each, for the purpose of being distributed to BEGGARS, who were admitted to the office in consequence of their shewing such tickets, and re-

ceived the value, and frequently more. Thus a small fund was raised, of which the paupers had the benefit in return for their accounts of themselves; and the tickets being lettered and numbered, and registered when disposed of, served as clues in particular cases, where required, to assist the donors in tracing the history of the parties on whom they were bestowed.

"The list of those who purchased these tickets is particularly respectable; and I am highly indebted, for the success of my plan, to the liberality with which they adopted and encouraged it. Liberality is an essential characteristic of the British nation; and is seldom or never wanting towards the support of any measure likely to contribute to an extensive relief of the poor.

"In a little more than seven months, the

2000 examinations recorded in the tables were taken; in the course of which time, above 600 other persons attended with tickets, who, though paupers, did not confess themselves to be BEGGARS; and therefore, in strictness, were not considered as proper objects of the inquiry; and accordingly their cases were not critically noted in like manner with the cases of BEGGARS, but the value of the tickets was allowed.

"The tables are forty in number; each containing abstracts of fifty examinations, disposed in columns, in order to point out the leading circumstances of the history of the parties; and the summary annexed to the tables, recapitulates their totals, for the purpose of exhibiting a general view of the whole."

Summary of 2000 Cases of Paupers, examined at the Mendicity Enquiry Office.

Table	MEN.					WOMEN.											
	Single	Married	Widowed	Military	Naval	Single	Married	Widowed	Military	Naval	Children	Home Par.	Dist. Par.	Uncert. Par.	Irish	Scottish	Foreign
1	1	3	6	3	0	6	18	16	9	3	49	22	18	4	4	1	1
2	1	5	0	3	1	9	18	17	4	4	63	20	12	5	8	2	3
3	3	8	4	2	4	5	12	18	2	5	46	19	13	3	10	2	3
4	2	4	4	2	1	7	14	19	4	2	68	19	16	8	5	1	1
5	2	8	5	3	0	3	14	18	0	2	61	15	16	7	5	4	3
6	1	6	0	1	0	6	22	15	4	3	67	24	11	4	6	3	2
7	3	8	3	5	1	6	23	8	3	0	63	20	14	4	7	2	3
8	3	4	3	0	2	9	21	11	3	3	61	14	15	2	14	4	1
9	2	6	4	0	1	7	19	13	4	1	69	18	13	5	12	1	1
10	1	3	1	0	1	4	21	18	9	2	62	16	15	5	12	1	1
11	0	0	1	0	0	2	32	15	4	4	91	18	4	2	23	3	0
12	1	0	2	0	0	3	29	15	3	5	75	31	4	3	12	0	0
13	2	1	1	0	0	3	34	9	3	0	103	22	8	3	15	2	0
14	2	7	1	2	1	3	25	12	3	3	72	17	9	6	13	3	2
15	1	4	0	0	0	3	33	9	6	5	91	20	11	6	9	4	0
16	0	5	1	0	0	4	26	14	12	2	73	17	15	0	17	1	0
17	1	5	0	0	0	0	29	15	4	4	84	17	5	7	20	0	1
18	3	1	1	0	0	0	35	10	12	2	84	18	7	2	21	1	1
19	1	1	0	0	0	4	28	16	0	2	88	13	5	2	29	0	1
20	1	1	0	0	0	2	30	16	3	2	73	12	1	4	29	3	1
21	0	0	0	0	0	0	18	22	1	2	81	12	7	1	30	0	0
22	2	1	1	0	0	3	30	13	1	3	67	11	0	3	34	2	0
23	0	1	0	0	1	1	34	14	1	6	68	13	7	1	26	2	1
24	0	1	1	0	0	3	34	11	5	3	86	11	10	2	27	0	0
25	0	1	1	0	0	1	30	17	1	3	75	14	8	1	24	3	0
26	1	1	0	0	0	2	27	19	2	5	79	12	4	3	28	3	0
27	2	1	0	0	0	1	33	13	0	2	65	13	11	1	24	1	0
28	1	0	0	0	0	1	37	11	3	4	101	19	4	4	22	1	0
29	1	0	0	0	0	1	35	13	4	3	112	25	2	2	18	3	0
30	0	0	0	0	0	2	33	15	1	5	96	16	3	2	29	0	0
31	0	0	0	0	0	2	38	10	7	1	94	22	6	2	20	0	0
32	1	0	1	0	0	3	32	13	2	1	190	26	11	1	12	0	0
33	0	0	1	0	0	3	39	7	2	0	05	15	6	7	21	1	0
34	0	1	0	0	0	2	29	18	2	2	76	24	5	2	18	0	1
35	1	1	1	0	0	3	23	21	2	1	78	28	5	4	12	1	0
36	2	2	0	0	0	0	28	18	6	2	73	25	4	6	10	3	2
37	0	1	0	0	0	2	27	20	2	2	61	18	7	7	15	3	0
38	1	6	3	0	1	6	25	9	2	1	68	30	6	3	8	3	0
39	1	1	1	0	1	3	34	10	6	4	86	20	11	1	17	1	0
40	1	2	0	0	0	2	22	23	1	4	72	24	7	5	13	0	1
	45	100	47	21	14	127	1100	581	133	108	3096	750	336	140	679	65	30

192 Men.

1808 Women.

2000 Children.

In our opinion, it would be less wise to licence individually the allowable beggar, which seems to be the tendency of Mr. Martin's reasoning, than to licence the requisite number of collectors in behalf of the disabled poor. The distribution of the quest would, in the first case,

be accidental; but, in the second, proportionate to the degree of disability.

Linguet announced, in his *Annals* for February 1778, a prize of fifty louis for the best essay on mendicity; but we have never seen the victorious dissertation.

ART. LXIX. *A Narrative, expressing a Variety of irregular Transactions in one of the Departments of foreign Corps during the late War.* By Mr. JAMES POOLE. 8vo. pp. 88.

ART. LXX. *A Reply to Poole's Narrative, &c.* By J. GARDINER. 8vo.

THESE pamphlets will convince a numerous public, that speculation is not confined to the admiralty department, and that public money is often made away with unfairly. Of the specific cases here discussed, we cannot speak better than in the words of Mr. Windham's letter, quoted in p. 67.

"What I recollect of the statement formerly made is, that, during the time of the troops being in Flanders, allowances were made to the officers in the emigrant corps, not authorised by government, and which, notwithstanding, did not appear to be applied in the way afterwards represented to me, viz.: to the relief of the officers in those corps, but to have been divided between * * * * *

* * *, or at least to have gone, in the first instance, to the advantage of the commissary, from whom it might be suspected that a part afterwards was made over to * * * * *; that the allowance in question consisted of rations of forage to persons who certainly had not the horses for which they might be claimed; and that the commissary and inspector of that time were Mr. Devaux and Mr. Gardiner. 'This, if my recollection is right, was the nature of the charge, of the reality of which, or of the means of proving it, I am still, as I was then, too little informed, to be able to give any opinion as to the propriety of pursuing it.'

Gratitude is due to Mr. Poole for the public spirit of probity and reform which pervades his denunciation.

ART. LXXI. *Cursory Observations on the Act for ascertaining the Bounties, and for regulating the Exportation and Importation of Corn.* By a MEMBER OF PARLIAMENT. 8vo. pp. 16.

THE Report from the parliamentary committee on the corn-trade, ordered to be printed on the 14th May, 1804, forms an epocha in English politics. No names are affixed; no responsibility accepted. Men, who would rail against secret advisers of the crown, have become the secret advisers of parliament, although the personality of monarchic character is a far stronger security against the execution of malignant counsel, than where shame and odium are to be divided among a multitude.

Their professed motives for suggesting the corn-bill are: 1. To secure an equitable profit to the grower. 2. To secure an uniform price. 3. To secure an habitual surplus of home-grown corn, so as to render the importation of foreign corn unnecessary.

1. It is not denied that the greatest possible degree of cheapness and plenty must always result from leaving the market open at all times to importation from all places. But this unlimited importation, it is pretended, would deprive

the corn-grower, not merely of his present profit, but of any profit. Corn being habitually one-fourth cheaper in North America than in England, our markets would sink nearly to the transatlantic level. The Americans have no rents to assess on the price of their corn; labour is already falling among them; the cost of freight is but a small duty on importation; so that, with the competition of their produce, it would no longer answer to the farmer here to cultivate any but his most fertile fields; he could not afford the expence of far-fetched manure, and artificial husbandry.

What would be the consequence?—Much arable land would be laid down in pasturage: milk, butter, cheese, and meat, would become unprofitably cheap; some tracts would again be abandoned to nature or to the poor. Many farmers would throw up their leases; all would solicit abatements; and, after about seven years, which, on the average, might suffice for the renewal of contracts between landlord and tenant, rents would

be found to have sunken considerably. If the farmer is to sell his corn nearly one-fourth lower, he will probably expect an abatement of one-fourth of his rent. This abatement of rent once conceded, he will make the same proportionate profit as before. It is only during the falling market that the farmer would be suffering. His trade, like all others, will not be carried on permanently at a loss, he would else divert his capitals into some more productive form of employment. The average or habitual profit, which is the equitable profit, will, in the long run, be regularly levied under all circumstances.

The landlord would be also a sufferer, but later. His rent-roll would be reduced by as many pounds sterling as he must give up to the farmer, in order to induce him to keep his lease. This loss, however, would not be entire. For the cheapness of corn would depreciate labour, and with it the price of manufactured produce, and of all the petty articles of consumption. Hence, the lowered rents would be found to go as far, or nearly so, in purchasing the conveniences of life, as the higher rents. This is so certain, that all those classes of society, whose incomes depend on a corn-rent, such as the clergy, and the owners of entailed estates, retain from century to century their relative rank in expenditure. Men of property are more numerous than of yore, because the population has increased, the commercial classes grow their proportion of eminent wealth, and the colonial land-owners are becoming residents in Great Britain; wherefore, a given sweep of acres is not so near the summit of society as it was. But, in the hundred, or the shire, it still weighs, as before, against all the forms of contiguous rank. There is no relative degradation locally; but, in the increased assemblage of metropolitan property, the same height is no longer eminence.

As a fall, so a rise, in the price of corn, is not of very durable importance, either to the farmer or to the landlord. The average unelapsed term of a lease being three years and a half, it is only for three years and a half that the farmer will get more than the habitual or equitable profit by a rise. Rents will then be raised to a new level; and whatever the farmer got, beyond what other farmers are willing to do business for, will go to the landlord. The landlord, in his turn, finds his apparent profit by the advance of rent again gnawn away by the gra-

dual rise of all commodities, which is ever commensurate with the dearth of food, a process which may require another three years and a half; so that it is only for about that period that the country gentlemen will have bettered, either the condition of their tenants, or their own, by introducing, and carrying through, their corn-bill. Under a system of entails, the profits of a dearth are likely to center chiefly in the farmers, because the landlord must let, and cannot sell; but, under a system of absolute tenure, the profits of a dearth would center chiefly in the land-owners, who would transfer, during a dearth, the fee simple of their farms, and buy them in again during a plenty.

Let us suppose, however, that instead of a three or four years' interest in the price of corn, the landlords and tenants of Great Britain had a life-interest, or a perpetual interest, in its dearth. Ought corn, for them, to be made dear? Who are the collective mass of corn-growers?—At most, even including the dependents on their expenditure, a tenth of the community, a petty fraction of the nation. The corn-eaters, or consumers, who are all injured by an increase of price, form far more than nine-tenths of the whole. Their interests constitute vastly the superior claim to political attention. The corn-bill diminishes the relative plenty at nine tables out of ten, in order to increase the relative plenty at the tenth, one might say at the hundredth, table. It slays the hecatomb to the Apis. But this is not all: it assesses a tax on corn-consumers, in the worst possible proportions. In the expenditure of the rich, the cost of bread is a minute article. In the expenditure of the poor, the cost of bread is the principal charge. It levies, therefore, the value of a minute's labour per day on the affluent; while it defrauds the pauper of the whole produce of two hours' labour per day. The consequences are exactly such as might be expected from the malignity of the system: In every cottage of the empire, the labourer's bread is now leavened with a mother's tear, who feels that it will not suffice for her offspring.

Of all the wants of man, food is the most essential. When his income decreases, he first shelters himself worse, he next clothes himself worse, he next feeds himself worse. The cheapness of food is therefore justly considered by Vattel, and the publicists, as a chief

purpose of political association, and the main end of legislation. To rebellions of the belly, as of all others the most justifiable, they recommend especial lenience. In the impeachment of Hastings, to have enhanced, by favouring monopoly, the cost of so welcome a superfluity as opium, was denounced as a high misdemeanor against humanity. But this corn-bill undisguisedly, publicly, designedly, undertakes to increase the price of necessary food.

It contemplates an average increase of one-fourth. The pendulum of price had formerly to vibrate between other limits. The markets, which lately opened to importation at forty-eight, now open to importation only at sixty. It is proper to compute the amount of this burden. London is said to consume yearly 800,000 quarters of wheat, and to contain 800,000 inhabitants, (compare *Proposal for supplying London with Bread*, and the *Population-Abstract*); so that each individual requires annually about one quarter of wheat. The 15,000,000 of persons contained in Great Britain and Ireland would, therefore, at twelve shillings per quarter, pay on their wheat a tax of 9,000,000*l.* sterling. Let us suppose that all the other sorts of corn enumerated in the tables of the act, such as rye, peas, beans, barley, beer, bigg, and oats, amount collectively to two-thirds of the value of our wheat; and that an equal proportion of burden reposes on these articles of food; and it will appear probable, that the annual tax inflicted by this corn-bill on the people of Great Britain, and inflicted in the inverse ratio of their means, amounts to 15,000,000*l.* sterling—15,000,000*l.* sterling yearly!

Of this tax, which, for magnitude, transcends the boldest efforts of ministerial rapacity, not one penny is to be applied to any public or national purpose. It is wholly a donative to individuals; to be parcelled out among farmers in the form of profit, and among landlords in the form of rent.

And so much for the *equitable* character of the profits which are to accrue from the corn-bill.

2. Why is an uniform price of corn desirable? Fluctuations are favourable to speculation, to traffic, to the multiplication of corn-merchants, to the investiture of additional capitals in the purchase of corn, and consequently to a larger domestic command of food. The stock reserved for immediate consumption

would, on a system of unrestricted trade, be greater than at present; and thus, the defence against dearth and famine would be proportionably greater. Fluctuations prove that the national capitals invested in the corn-trade are insufficient to call forth and provide the requisite supply; and that the granaries of private merchants (let us have no other national granaries) require to be extended, and better stocked. And fluctuations stimulate private merchants to make these very provisions. The corn market therefore ought to fluctuate, as long as the supply is but barely adequate to the demand.

This corn-bill, however, has no more tendency to prevent fluctuation than the old corn-bill had. It contemplates an oscillation of price between new extremes; but it does not narrow the distance, or diminish the probability of these two extremes. It is a low imposture to bring forward and urge as an argument for the change of a law, what is equally true of the law in its ancient form. Now the law in its ancient form never prevented fluctuations; and, for this reason, that it confines our corn-trade to our own resident merchants. A few corn-dealers in London can easily combine greatly to affect the market, and being secured against the interference of foreign capitals to a certain point, they can speculate much more daringly than if the ports were open always to and fro. The republic of Holland persevered in a system of open trade during the whole century in which our old corn-bill was operating. Holland, which grows no corn, was, during that whole period, the granary of Europe, was our own recourse in times of scarcity, and was supplied at home at a more stationary price than ourselves. Like the Dutch, we should house corn for all Europe, if we had the certainty of being allowed to carry it abroad, even when famishing at home. These that will pay most, want it most, and ought to have it.

The selling-price of corn in any one country, varies with the seasons, and the consequent popular apprehensions; but it seldom happens that the selling-price varies in different countries in the same direction. Corn cheapens in the Baltic when it becomes dear in the Mediterranean and reversely. On a system of unrestricted trade, we should, at the same time, be buying in the Baltic, and selling in the Mediterranean; and our own do-

metic prices would rise, if the tendency to export was strongest, and would fall, if the tendency to import was strongest; but neither, in the same degree as in the distant markets. But, under the limitation-system of the corn-bill, our merchants must make their election, whether they will export to the Mediterranean, or import from the Baltic. They cannot do both. They must then, by combination, bring down the prices in the one case, and run them up in the other: and thus the greatest attainable fluctuation is always secured by the corn-bill.

3. The only argument for the corn-bill, which is said to make much impression, is the assertion, that it has a tendency to secure an habitual surplus of *home-grown* corn. If the English have this great predilection for autochthonous bread and butter, it is strange they should not apply the principle to the rest of their breakfast. This country could grow its own tea, its own sugar, if it would build and cover in the requisite hot-houses, and incur the requisite expenditure for coals and tendance. But it would be absurd to make the attempt, because these commodities can be grown in other climates more cheaply. So that, by employing domestic labour in other purposes, the produce of that labour will purchase more tea and sugar, than if it had been squandered in this specific cultivation. The abundance of these commodities is greater in England, by leaving them to be reared in their native places, than if they had been here forced into existence. It is not less absurd to grow dear corn. It is no object, or merit, to produce; but only to produce cheaply.

Agriculture, at best, is the worst employment for the capitals of the country, because it is the least productive. Its reputation here, just now, results from an accidental blunder of Adam Smith. He says, (book ii. c. 5), that no equal capital puts in motion so great a quantity of productive labour as that of the farmer; but, in doing his sum, or making his estimate, he cleanly omits the capital value of the estate to be cultivated, and thus arrives, by a process, in other respects correct, at his stupendous and erroneous inference. If ever so little money is saved by buying our corn abroad, it ought there to be bought. This would set at liberty, for the more productive forms of employment, a capital now bribed into misapplication. It

is good for countries, as well as individuals, to deal at the cheapest market. And the sort of population employed in the importation and the removal of corn, is far more *disposable* than the population employed in growing corn. The work of the husbandman must, at all seasons, be going on: for the demands of colonization, or war, he can neither be spared nor interrupted: he is a part of the fixed property of the nation. But the maritime population, which imports or exports commodities, can accommodate its industry to the convenient season, can make, years before hand, the requisite provision, and devote itself at any time to the defence or service of the country. While this country continues an island, there can be no fear but some of its shores will be accessible to importation at all times. While there are unsettled districts in North America, or in the world, there can be no fear that the prospect of a British market would bring into cultivation acres amply adequate to our demand. Agriculture is only useful, in as much as it is the art of producing food *cheaply*; but our agriculturists forget its aim, and hold up means, not conducive to its purpose, as meritorious: to make corn dear, for the encouragement of agriculture, is as ridiculous as it is oppressive.

It is, however, highly probable that we now grow a vast surplus of corn at home, and that the alarm of the corn-committee is unfounded. They state that, during the last thirteen years, 30,000,000*l.* have been paid for imported corn, which is a mere trifle. They do not state how much has been received for exported corn during the same period: probably more. And there is, besides, a vast exportation of corn, in the form of beer, porter, spirits, starch; so that, after all, there may be danger of glutting the market by an overgrowth of corn, and of the return of cheap times, in spite of the corn-bill.

We have heard much of the impolicy of returning bankers to parliament. We now feel the impolicy of returning landowners to parliament. We trust that this flagrant abuse of the influence possessed by territorial property in the house of commons, will be the means of exciting an habitual counteraction in the disinterested and instructed orders of society. We hope that some efforts will be made to abolish that qualification of landed property, which necessarily

throws the representation into the hands of the feudal aristocracy. We wish that the number of county-members were to suffer a sensible abridgment, and that their seats were transferred to persons elected by the cities.

We have been the more diffuse in arguing against the author of this respectable and well-written pamphlet, as we hear that he has not only his arguments but his vote to reconsider.

ART. LXXII. *Letter to the Right Hon. Charles Abbott, concerning the Extension of the Fisheries.* By ROBERT FRAZER, Esq. 8vo. pp. 104.

THIS writer takes for granted, that emigration is an evil which governments should endeavour to prevent; whereas emigration is a good, which governments should endeavour to facilitate.

Where there is a regular drain on the population of a district exactly equal to its annual increment; the competition for labour remains the same, there is no tendency in wages to sink, and the general welfare of poor families is stationary. Where there is a regular drain on the population more than equal to its annual increment, the competition for labour diminishes, there is a tendency in wages to rise, and the general welfare of poor families is progressive. In these favourable circumstances, marriage begins to take place more generally, and at an earlier age; until the annual increment becomes equal to the annual demand: and then the prosperity is again stationary. But if any thing happens to interrupt the yearly removal of the superfluous hands, the competition for labour inconveniently increases, wages rapidly lessen, marriage can no longer be afforded, the promiscuous intercourse of necessitous communities is introduced, and vice and misery thin the population to its sufficient state.

Those provinces of Europe, whence there is a large annual drain of people, are remarkably the happiest and most virtuous. To belong among the breeding districts of the earth, is a noble and enviable privilege. The banks of the Upper Rhine, which are distinguished for a moral, industrious, handsome, and hardy peasantry, supply yearly to Holland, a vast colonization. These men begin by getting in the hay-harvest, and gradually insert themselves in the towns, as porters and carmen: thus replacing a population, which navigation, and the East Indian settlements, are constantly consuming.

Instead of checking the disposition of the Highlanders to emigrate, let them be carried gratuitously to Canada, to Trinidad, to Botany-bay. Let us under-

take the conquest of New Orleans, and the colonization of West-Florida; let us undertake the conquest of the Cape, and the colonization of the banks of the Orange-river, in order to create an additional demand for the home-born. Marriage will take place earlier, and morals become more pure; labour will be rewarded higher, and comforts abound more; the greater the annual emigration of our poor.

Men, like nursery-shurbs, transplant the better for being reared in a bad soil. The lean and lacking corners of the empire produce the most hardy and robust people. If great towns were to grow up in the Highlands, to scatter the factitious wants of citizens, and, by accustoming the people to a division of labour, to destroy that versatile activity, that plasticity of industry, that accommodating serviceableness, that art of turning their hands to any thing, for which the Scots are eminent, these provinces would cease to be fit nurseries of men. The other districts, where a greater degree of privation and temperance continued to prevail, would become the breeding counties, and the Irish and Welsh would replace the Highlanders, as soldiers and colonists, with an obvious disadvantage both to our armies and to our colonies; for the Welsh and Irish are irascible and idle in a degree dangerous both to military discipline and to civil thrift. The wise statesman, therefore, will avoid, by any local privileges or artificial expediture, to accelerate unnaturally the progress of the Highlands toward opulence: he will consider their present condition as far more advantageous to the whole than any other into which they can be thrown.

It would be easy to make every one of the Western Isles a seat of commercial cities, and far-fetched luxury of bustling business, and crowded vice. Let us suppose, that, to the isle of Jura, were given the privilege of importing ~~as~~ without any duty, and of distributing it untaxed throughout the British territory: it is

evident that this island would then have whole fleets passing to and from Canton, to fill its warehouses with the necessary stock, and to disperse it again in our cities. Let us suppose that to the Isle of Mull were conceded a similar privilege respecting *sugar*: the West Indies would pour thither their sweetest tribute, and the Baltic thence fetch its whole enormous and increasing consumption. Let us suppose, that, to the Isle of Sky were granted a like emancipation from custom-house claims on *coffee*. In consequence of such exemptions, these three, or any three islands, might be rendered emporiums of the principal articles of East and West Indian produce; might be enabled to vend them throughout the British empire, and throughout Europe, with exclusive advantage; might engross the wholesale grocery of the world, and find it worth while to remove the giant's causeway, in order to build themselves moles, kays, docks, and warehouses.

Yet who does not perceive the silly injustice of such a method of localizing property and prosperity, and of giving an unnatural site to the resting-places of commerce. How much wholly needless labour would be wasted in loading and unloading, what might as well pass uninterrupted to the Thames or the Elbe! How much revenue would be lost to the state, merely to destroy a vast value of property extant in the form of docks, warehouses, and communications, around London, and to create, in an inconvenient situation, an ineffectual substitute!

And if instead of *sugar*, *salt* happened to be the object of projected exemption from excise, would the principle of the measure be less absurd, or less unjust? It is an ascertained fact, that, while things are left to their natural course, the herring-fishery is *not* carried on in the Western Isles, because it can be conducted with more economy in old sea-ports; where ship-owners, warehouses, capital, and the means of sale and conveyance, are pre-established. Our author is not content that it should continue to flourish where it has struck root; he wants to banish it westward into Tirree and Uist, and to tempt the removal of the necessary capitals, by taking off the duty on salt. This would be imitating the kings of the age of chivalry, who pensioned men for playing the fool.

It is contended, and truly, that the Isle of Man derives advantage from such a privilege. This is not an argument

for extending, but restricting it. Why should people be pensioned for residing there, who would else reside at Liverpool? Notwithstanding the local bounty, such is the amount of labour saved by carrying on a manufacture in a district crowded with labourers and capitals; that these districts can afford the additional burden of duty, and yet compete successfully both in the foreign and in the domestic market, with the fishmongers of the Hebrides. That the Isle of Man has been injudiciously privileged can be no proof that local exemptions are useful to the whole state.

The specific proposal, which this profusely worded pamphlet is intended to usher in, occurs in the following paragraph:

"If then it appears that no duties on salt can be obtained that are worth looking after from the Highlands and Western Isles of Scotland, why not allow salt to be imported at least into these districts in the same manner as it is allowed to be imported into the Isle of Man? Any possible injury that could arise to the revenue must be from an idea of the free-duty salt being exported from hence to the southern counties of Scotland or to England.

"Surely there is much more danger of salt being so smuggled from the Isle of Man to either of those parts of the united kingdom which are immediately adjacent to that island; and although there were no doubt some small quantities smuggled in this way, before the salt was put under the excise in Great Britain, yet the quantity was never great, and it now must be much less. To suppose salt would be re-exported to England from the Highlands and Isles in any considerable quantities, is futile and absurd: and the little that could be sent to the low countries of Scotland, could never injure the revenues to any perceptible amount; it would be easy, by rendering any such transaction felony, to prevent any attempt of that nature, which indeed would hardly ever be made, as the inhabitants would feel the benefit of the indulgence so much, that they would prevent any idle or disorderly person from so doing.

"Provision, however, must be made that the salt so imported must be allowed to be landed without waiting for Custom-house or Excise officers to inspect its landing, otherwise, as has been the case respecting the taking off the coal duty, in as far as regards the body of the people whom it is meant to relieve, the privilege would be nugatory."

It is wonderful, it is lamentable, that such projectors can originate in the country of Adam Smith. He seems to have lived in vain. We go on granting local privileges, founding chartered compa-

nies, cutting up the country into jobs and monopolies, legislating about the price of corn, and the exchange of bank-notes, — as if government disdained alike the imputation of instruction or beneficence. Laziness and ignorance often govern well, because they let things alone: but the demi-semi-statesmen of the present age, meddle with every thing, and meddle but to mar.

There are few Scotchmen, says an ethic observer, who do not love their country better than truth; the political observer may have to add, there are few who do not love it better than justice. And what is the use of all the exemptions, indulgences, and privileges, for which, ever since the Union, they have so jealously been stickling? Their country continues relatively poor, *because* of them. The vigour of British opulence would propel its circulation to the extremities, would they but submit to the wholesome perspiration of uniform taxes.

Children are advised to catch birds by putting salt on their tails; such is exactly this recipe for catching herrings. We catch enow for the effectual demand of

our domestic population, and of the Mediterranean market. Whenever the average selling price rises, and it will always bear a regular proportion to that of other substitutable food, the proper bounty will be offered for extending our fisheries. If this bounty is not offered by the consumer, to extend them would be a public injury; it would divert capital from a more profitable to a less profitable employment. If this bounty is offered by the consumer, the fisheries will extend, without any interference of the state, until they become commensurate with the increased demand for their produce.

We are, however, far from thinking a tax on salt to be an expedient source of revenue: we wish that the excise on salt, as on leather, candles, and all other objects of very popular consumption, were continued for an additional tax on rent, or on windows. The relief to commerce and to the numerous classes would be great, and the new burden would press on sources which maintain the idle, or on the capital value of what cannot be too cheaply transferable.

ART. LXXIII. *An Enquiry into the present State of the Military Force of the British Empire, with a view to its Reorganization; addressed to the Right Hon. W. Pitt. By Lieut. Col. R. T. WILSON, K.M.T.* 8vo. pp. 106.

THE high reputation of sir R. T. Wilson will obtain, and deserve, additional eminence from this bold, but very necessary, Enquiry. If the continental nations are likely to desert the arts and habits of peace for military occupations, it is essential to the retinal of British power and independence also to have skilful armies. Industry will, and must, somewhat suffer by the attempt; for all warlike people are a little idle, and fear danger less than labour. But industry is chiefly busied in the collection of superfluities; whereas the art of self-defence is a necessary to national existence.

That military bodies become efficacious, in proportion as they approach standing armies is now generally agreed. Volunteers are less serviceable than militia, and militia than regulars. The soldiers, who are bound to obey their officer only once a week, or only a few months in the year, and who are at all other times at liberty to manage their own affairs their own way, without being in any respect accountable to him, can never be under the same awe in his presence, have the same disposition to ready

obedience, with those whose whole life and conduct are every day directed by him, and who every day even rise and go to bed, or at least retire to their quarters, according to his orders. In what is called discipline, or in the habit of ready obedience, a volunteer or a militia force must always be still more inferior to a standing army, than in the management and use of its arms. In modern war, this habit of ready and instant obedience is of much greater consequence than any superiority of physical strength or of moral zeal. The despotic mechanism of discipline is found to be more powerful in producing the effect of steady courage, than all the intellectual motives of the orators derived from the love of wives and children, or of the bible and salvation. Those citizen-soldiers, who, from connection, education, and stake in the country, might be supposed to feel most the ideal stimulus of heroism, if less subjected to discipline than the unwilling victims of a parish ballot, who have nothing to defend but the workhouse they were reared in, would be found inferior to the e for the purposes of military

conflict. Sir R. T. Wilson well accounts for this truth of experience.

"Active courage and resignation to inevitable death, are very different efforts of the mind. The most abject people will die with calmness, nay, apparent indifference. Nations have submitted to slavery, torture, and individual extirpation, but, nevertheless, dared not to rise upon the handful of their oppressors. The annals of the world teem with instances of even warlike nations being subjugated by small, but well disciplined, armies. The rebellion in Ireland is a remarkable proof that experience and confidence in officers was requisite, and the more recent events in India establish the fact, that immense numerical superiority and equal personal courage are unavailing against troops composed of the same nations, but officered by those whose capacity to command was not problematical.

"Many, unacquainted with the operations of war, presume that the use of the truly British weapon, 'the bayonet,' would compensate for this deficiency, and imagine that the inclination to engage in close action ensures the opportunity. Perhaps I may fail in correcting this opinion, but nevertheless the idea is altogether erroneous. An able and active enemy will, in an enclosed country, mock such an attempt, and in security mow down the hordes of assailants. The invention of gunpowder has facilitated the enterprise of invaders, by elongating the otherwise overhearing weight of numbers, and unless the French, despising the advantage of ground, and rashly confident in presumed superiority of skill, venture upon Salisbury plain, or some other particular open tract, it can only be after the most frightful loss (indeed too frightful for the best troops) that the intrepid survivors reach their ranks. But are the necessary qualities for this heroic determination, and indifference to sacrifice, so instantaneously acquired? Are previous habits, the comforts of life, and endearments of existence, from which they have been so recently separated, so soon forgotten? Does the mere investiture of a British uniform endow with all the splendid military virtues? Are the influence of a military life, a particular train of consequent reasoning upon the object and chances of the profession, the habitude of considering a premature death as preferable to disgrace, a cannon ball a better destiny than the ordinary terminations of life, the perpetual practice of obedience but imaginary advantages, without which the same results may be produced? Are snubmission in moments of difficulty, and patience under all privations, no longer to be considered as the consequences of discipline, or are we to believe that the British volunteers are favoured with praternatural powers to exhibit these phenomena in opposition to every acknowledged principle. Had an enemy landed in this country before the army

had received its reinforcements, a fatal proof to the contrary would assuredly have been manifested, and even now the errors of the establishment may only be corrected after a severe experience of their existence. The creation, in time of danger, of an amphibious force, partially partaking of the military character, but incessantly maintaining the nature, and appuying itself upon the rights of the citizen, is no more than an artifice to impose by a return of numbers; but is in fact a body affording no real protection to the state.

"When a government has formed a sufficient regular army to oppose the force which menaces to attack her, then the addition of an armed population will ensure a decided superiority, and materially contribute to shorten the contest, but until the regular army is completed, all parochial military establishments counteract the proposed object, and increase the difficulty of providing an efficient defence. Such an extension of the volunteer system is also ruinous, since a whole nation must march to repel an invasion. Nobles, gentry, manufacturers, artisans, peasants, must all leave their homes, their occupations, and their families, whereas a well regulated defensive force would probably prevent invasion, and at all events secure the empire from the uneasiness and inconveniences of this expensive, and, after all, non-military array.

After dismissing, by such theoretic reasoning, the volunteer system altogether, some proposals are made for improving the present establishment, if it must be retained, in the following terms.

"The volunteers of London may be properly regimented: there is no great fatigue in marching from any part of the city to Hyde Park; but when men are required to march ten miles to a regimental parade, which frequently occurs in the country corps (and even a greater distance), I should imagine that the greatest martinet would not require much attention to duty upon the ground of exercise; nor can these harassed men feel much zeal for instruction when they arrive at their journey's end.

"Many great evils arise also out of such a formation. Since rank was lavished with so profuse a grant, few gentlemen will condescend to take a regimental commission below the rank of field officer; whereas, if each great land proprietor, or gentleman of consideration in a county, would assemble his own tenantry and dependants within their respective parishes, he must be satisfied, if not feel a pride, in heading these men as their captain, and his connexions and friends would not imagine themselves degraded by holding, under such circumstances, an inferior commission: the men would readily seize every occasion to assemble; every one capable of bearing arms would take a mus-

quet, and a feudal attachment would, in a great degree, supersede the necessity for any martial control. But when country volunteers are regimented, the respect and affection for their own particular officers is absorbed in the enlargement of the establishment; whilst the commanding officer, or the adjutant, who is in most cases the efficient commandant, cannot possibly substitute an equal principle of action. Gentlemen finding themselves without any responsibility, neglect attendance, and gradually withdraw altogether."

For our own parts we should incline to the abolition of the militia system, rather than of the volunteer system. Militia men are removed from their homes far enough and long enough to be spoiled for domestic life and habits of industry, without being fitted for thorough soldiers. Why not substitute a stationary militia of volunteers to the ancient vagabond ill-devised establishment? Some convenient size of district, a hundred or wapentake for instance, might be compelled to train each its company by a weekly drill: the term of engagement might be limited, in peace to two, in war to three years. If a shilling were allowed for each attendance to the members of the trained band, and the privilege of attending limited to those under five and twenty, it is probable that this Sunday labour, this half a day's work, when nothing else can be earned, would supply us with a voluntary armed peasantry, of whom the idle would enlist, and the industrious be adequate to every demand for domestic defence, or public tranquillity.

The allusion of Sir R. T. Wilson to the present militia, and the critique of the army of reserve, are full of interesting remarks; but those which it is most important to heed without delay, and which do most honour to his judgment and humanity, respect the regular army. We can give place to a few of the more peculiar.

A hint is thrown out (at p. 50) that the garrisons in the West Indies might advantageously be fed with men collected from the southern coasts of the Mediterranean, and that Malta and Gibraltar would be convenient stowages for such recruits.

The practice of enlisting for life is justly reprehended (at p. 53), as libercidal, impolitic, and unkind; and the excessive frequency of corporal punish-

ment is noticed with admirable dexterity and delicacy.

"How many soldiers, whose prime of life has been passed in the service, and who have behaved with unexceptionable conduct, have been whipt eventually for an accidental indiscretion; an absence from tattoo-beating, or even a dirty shirt. Intoxication is an odious vice, and since the duke of York has been at the head of the army, officers have ceased to pride themselves upon the insensate capability of drinking; but nevertheless, flogging is too severe as a general punishment for what has been the practice of officers, and also most decidedly fails in correcting the disposition to drink. Cleanliness is a virtue, and highly essential for the health of the soldier; but surely there are a thousand ways of enforcing attention to dress, and producing a love of decent appearance, without having recourse to such rigour as corporal punishment. Absence from quarters is a great fault, and must be checked; but is there no allowance to be made for young men, and the temptations which may occur to seduce such an occasional neglect of duty; would not confinement for an evening or two afterwards be a sufficient mortification?"

And again,

"The sense of shame is the feeling which should be worked upon, unless the subject is incorrigibly depraved, and then he is unfit to enjoy the advantages of a soldier's situation, but should be sent to some station where he could do no mischief by the influence of his evil communication, and where he might be employed in constant laborious duties.

"Corporal punishment ought to be rare in the British service, that whenever inflicted, such an event should be considered as remarkable, and then the impression would be advantageous; but the eye is now so familiarized to such spectacles, that the sight is no longer sickening or disgusting, and consequently, as indifference gains ground, hope of improvement by example must recede. There is no maxim more true than that cruelty is generated in cowardice, and that humanity is inseparable from courage. The ingenuity of officers should be exercised to devise modes of mitigating the punishment, and yet maintaining discipline. If the heart be well disposed, a thousand different methods of treating offences will suggest themselves, but to prescribe positive penalties for breaches of duty is impossible, since no two cases are ever exactly similar.

*Qui fruitur poena ferus est, legumque videtur
Vindictam præstare sibi. Diis proximus
ille est*

*Quem ratio non ira movet; qui facta rependens
Consilio punire potest.*

"Unfortunately, many officers will not give themselves the trouble to consider how they can be merciful; and if a return was published of all regimental punishments within the last two years, the number would be as much a subject of astonishment as regret. I knew a colonel of Irish militia, happily now dead, who flogged in one day seventy of his men, and, I believe, punished several more the next morning; but notwithstanding this extensive correction, the regiment was by no means improved.

"Corporal punishments never yet reformed a corps, but they have totally ruined many a man who would have proved, under milder treatment, a meritorious soldier. They break the spirit without amending the disposition. Whilst the lash stripes the back, despair writhes round the heart, and the miserable culprit, viewing himself as fallen below the rank of his fellow species, can no longer attempt the recovery of his station in society. Can the brave man, and he endowed with any generosity of feeling, forget the mortifying vile condition in which he was exposed? Does not, therefore, the cat-o-nine-tails defeat the chief object of punishment? And is not a mode of punishment too severe, which for ever degrades and renders abject? Instead of upholding the character of the soldier as entitled to the respect of the community, this system renders him despicable in his own eyes, and the object of opprobrium in the state, or of mortifying commiseration.

"Military punishments more severe than the common penalties of civil law, are undoubtedly required, the soldier knows well the necessity, but when they exceed the bounds which a due regard to justice and mercy prescribes, they only deprave the mind, and operate as an encouragement to perseverance in misconduct. Pain will not reform; the discipline of the mind is far more

efficacious than the discipline of the body, and how much more satisfactory?

"It is a melancholy truth that punishments have considerably augmented, that ignorant and fatal notions of discipline have been introduced into the service, subduing all the amiable emotions of human nature. Gentlemen who justly boast the most liberal education in the world, have familiarized themselves to a degree of punishment which characterizes no other nation in Europe."

These forms of treatment, which are notorious to the vulgar, must operate as a great impediment to recruiting; the picket is a sort of punishment equally unadvisable. In the concluding chapter the pay of the army is investigated; it is stated not to have been augmented in proportion to the increased value of all objects of consumption. Surely no reduction of pay ought to take place during peace; there is an ingratitude in the practice: and no sales or purchases of commissions ought to be allowed; they keep down spirit, and give the *pas* to wealth in a competition, where wealth seldom deserves it. Payment by tontine is analogous to the spirit of military ambition. If, at the beginning of a war, a sum were funded as the property of each regiment, and the income of it divided in certain proportions among the survivors; recompence would bear some relation to risk, and the prizes in the lottery of war might be made to equal those of speculative industry otherwise directed.

This pamphlet deserves general attention, especially that of military men: it ought to draw on its author not merely the gratitude, but the recompence, of his country.

ART. LXXIV. *A Letter to Sir Robert Wilson, K. M. T. By an ENGLISHMAN.*
Svo. pp. 70.

SIR Robert Wilson's Enquiry treats of the volunteers, of the militia, and of the regulars. His answerer says (p. 25) that the regulations proposed by sir Robert relative to the volunteers differ little from those which have been adopted. Both parties say so little of the militia system, that it may be inferred the one thinks it has received, and the other that it has deserved, the death-blow. With respect to the regulars, the chief topic of difference respects the pay of the army. This writer thus argues:

"The pay of the army is a point, upon which no individual, and still less a party interested, should hazard an undigested opinion. Those who are guardians of the public purse, whether as legislators, or as directing the appropriation of national resources in the several executive departments, are best able to judge of the merits of this question. If there exists a real cause of complaint, it will not fail to receive the attention it deserves; since it cannot be denied, that the conferring of reward for public services, is amongst the virtues which eminently distinguish our national character. The extent of our military establishment, as already observed, necessarily increases the expence; and, together with

a desire of adhering to principles of remuneration, so far as they can be applied to the army, some regard must also be paid to other parts of the community, and to those especially, who, from the necessary increase of our force, are obliged to supply the vast expence with diminished means. And it must never be forgotten, that every man taken from labour and civil employment is a double privation to the country, inasmuch as his maintenance must be drawn out of that general stock, from the supply of which, at the same time, his exertions are withheld. It is, however, a consolatory reflection, to know that the great increase of national wealth has amply tended to alleviate the evil here complained of; and, taking them collectively, the officers in our army are certainly better able now to sustain the expence attending it, than at any former period of our history."

We are surprized to hear the assertion that officers are better able now, than at any former period of our history, to sustain the expence attending military employ. It is dangerous to the public

service that officers should principally be drawn from the richer classes of society, because it seldom happens that the young rich are exposed to those hardy exercises and severe privations, which form the best preparation for military life. The pay, therefore, ought always to secure a sufficient competition from among the secondary classes of the community. The French army, which is the best in Europe, has certainly not drawn the mass of its officers from the polished, but often enervated, families of exalted life. The Roman discipline declined in proportion as it grew genteel to hold a commission. The barbarians triumphed by conferring on the sturdy qualities of strength and daring those commanding situations, which culture aspires to reserve for college-tacticians. It is well to read Xenophon and Polybius, but it is possible to be a general without being a Hutchinsonson.

ART. LXXV. *Remarks on Sir R. Wilson's Enquiry, &c.* By a BRITISH YEOMAN. 8vo. pp. 39.

SIR Robert Wilson's Enquiry is too important for the merry tone in which it is here treated. It may be rational to say: Confide in your navy; the French cannot effect anywhere a landing in sufficient force to be formidable: but it cannot be rational to say, Confide in your volunteers, as at present disciplined and officered; they will beat an equal force of Frenchmen.

This Yorkshire gentleman assures us, from personal observation, that the volunteer system does not injure the recruiting service. To his personal observation we can only oppose our own: it respects a neighbourhood where allowances are made to the privates for coming to muster. These weekly pensions, and the gratuitous uniforms, evidently satisfy the boyish ambition of shop-lads and journeymen, who would else have been parading in the regulars. As we teach whist to prevent gambling among our children and dependents, so we encourage volunteering to prevent enlisting. The best method of facilitating the recruiting service, is to shorten all contracts of apprenticeship, and to confer on four or five years of servitude the municipal privileges of seven. This writer complains of the number of male

shopkeepers: they might no doubt be compelled to take out a costly licence; but we doubt if any sensible effect would be produced by the measure, these many shopkeepers being all necessary during the busy hours.

This Yorkshire yeoman is very indignant at the critique of sir Robert Wilson on the battle of Zama; a critique naturally convincing, and corroborated by the highest classical authorities. What is more probable than that artisans should have been hastily drilled, when Carthage was in danger; and that artisans, hastily and sparingly drilled, should be the least efficient part of the public force? Will the Yorkshire weavers, when compelled to take up "shafts for shuttles dipt in gore," shew themselves superior to the regular regiments of Highlanders? Surely the expectation would be preposterous.

The chief use of the volunteer system is to familiarize playing with gunpowder, and to render tolerable to the numerous classes a labour which gentlemen have eagerly incurred, whenever the hour shall arrive for unaffected alarm, and for the compulsory imposition of an omnipresent military despotism.

ART. LXXVI. *The Justice and Policy of a War with Spain demonstrated.* 8vo. pp. 46.

THIS author undertakes to prove the justice of a war with Spain. We will pick out one by one all the arguments we can find.

"The ship *Mary*, from London to Leghorn, with a cargo amounting to 30,000*l.* sailed in May 1802, and having encountered very tremendous weather, which rendered her so leaky as to make repairs necessary, entered the port of Ferrol; when she had remained there a few days, the master wished to clear out, but he was prevented, and afterwards the ship and cargo were confiscated; the reason for which proceeding was stated to be, that the treaty of Amiens had rendered all prior treaties with England of no force.

"The privateers which France sends out to commit depredations on our commerce, are, it is true, commissioned and armed in her own harbours; but no sooner are a few men got on board, than they usually sail to a Spanish port, where they complete their crews, and proceed to sea. Besides, these ships are allowed to have shelter in the ports, and often capture our vessels within the limits of Spain, and sometimes even in her very harbours; while, in all cases, the prizes they take are sure of condemnation and sale in her maritime towns; and even her prisons have been made receptacles for British sailors."

After this the author passes on to consider the policy of the war. Is the honour of the British nation thus to be dragged through the mire by holding out such flimsy pretences as our most valid grounds of war? It ought in the next place to be proved, that these maritime injuries, having been notified and remonstrated against by our ambassador at Madrid, were neither redressed nor desisted from. They hence constitute only a ground of diplomatic correspondence. At the end of the pamphlet occurs another argument for the seizure and detention of the Spanish frigates, which we will also extract.

"The detention of the Spanish ships stands justified on the principles laid down by Budeus, which are inserted by Barbeyrac, in his note on the 13th sect. of the sixth chapter of the eighth book of Puffendorff. The claim, says that eminent civilian, on account of which recourse is had to reprisals, ought to be very clear, and the matter in dispute of great consequence: for it would be no less imprudent than unjust to charge a foreign magistrate with connivance, or a malicious refusal to do justice in an affair

that is obscure, dubious, or of no importance, or without having decisive proofs of the bad faith of the sovereign to whom application has been made, or before every method has been used to obtain justice by gentle means, as for instance, by having fair compensation made.

"The moment the peace was signed, the royal treasury of Madrid became a debtor to the merchants of this country; from that time to the present hour government has been using the gentle means above recommended: as to what the effect has been, let British creditors answer. In these circumstances, what was the line of conduct to be pursued by Great Britain? When a grievance is complained of, which admits neither of excuse nor palliation, is negotiation to last for ever? Have we not gone lengths in forbearance which the weakness of the other party can alone justify?"

The policy of a war with Spain depends at present on its justice; because our main object being to restrict the encroachments of French ambition, by means of a confederation of the still independent European states, the prospect of such co-operation, whether military or diplomatic, (the latter would apparently suffice) must depend on conciliating the good-will of such states, through the public opinion of their politicians, and by the most pointed attention to their *common* interests. Every thing, therefore, which infringes on our cosmopolitical duty is really impatriotic. We are invoking aid on grounds of international obligation, by which it is not less important that *we*, than that the French should be compelled to abide.

Independently of what may be called the moral impolicy of a war with Spain, it has gross and obvious geographical impolicy. The French by the seizure of Hanover rendered it probable that Westphalia would become the seat of war. The deliverance of Holland is our own main interest in the contest, because the northern aggrandisement of France is alone dangerous to us. Both parties therefore tend to concentrate their antagonism in that arena. Now the necessity of attacking or defending Spain or Portugal, is to us a far more remote and inconvenient diversion than to the French. It is a difficulty created in our own wrong. We shall have to send troops to Lisbon, when we ought to send them to Bremen.

ART. LXXVII. *A brief Appeal to the Honour and Conscience of the Nation upon the Necessity of an immediate Restitution of the Spanish Plate-Ships. By the Author of Cursory Remarks.* 8vo. pp. 39.

THIS striking appeal is worthy of the author of *Why do we go to War?* It is claimed by the author of *Cursory Remarks*: it recalls certain paragraphs in the *Morning Chronicle*, which the public are taught to ascribe to Mr. Metheun. Whoever the author may be, he possesses a high-toned purity of moral sentiment, a pathetic vehemence of expression, a force of argument, and a sincerity of manner, formed in the principled school of the Demostheneses and Foxes, not in the sophistical academies of the Ciceros and Burkes. We shall take no extracts from a work, which ought not only to be read entire, but to be purchased for preservation; yet, notwithstanding our deference of admiration for the author, we shall make some critical remarks on the points in discussion.

We admit entirely that to have detached so small a naval force as rendered any resistance of the part of the Spanish commander essential to the honour of his flag, was a high crime against humanity; which marks the ministry as guided by inconsiderate, improvident, ignorant men, who are not aware of the probable consequences of their actions.

But the act of detention is not without apology, although the manner is. During the antijacobin war, the Spanish court sequestered all the British debts in that country, and received their amount into the public treasury from the Spanish merchants. At the peace it was agreed that this sequestered property should not be confiscated, but restored to the rightful owner, the British creditor. The process of defining and ascertaining the British claims has been gone through; but whenever the Spanish treasury has been in cash, and desirous of issuing these payments, Bonaparte has found means to levy his tribute in preference, and the British creditor has repeatedly been put off. Procrastination, when the date of payment has been agreed, is understood, throughout the mercantile world, to be symptomatic of insolvency; and to justify the *attachment*, as lawyers call it, of the debtor's property, in whatever hands it can be met with.

Analogous to the process of attach-

ment in private life, is the process of reprisal here recurred to: and, however confidently this appealer appeals to his importable library of the law of nations, we are decidedly of opinion that it is a recognized process; and that the seizure of the plate-ships was an orderly pursuit of redress.

Martens, the Gottingen professor, published his *Précis du Droit des Gens*, while he was a subject of our own king. During the conferences of Rastadt, his writings were appealed to as an authority, both by the French and the German negotiators. He unites therefore in an unusual degree the general suffrage of diplomatic men. A few extracts will satisfy our readers, that he admits the right of self-compensation, when regular satisfaction is withheld.

"§ 255. *Représailles.* Mais lorsqu'une nation a manqué à ses obligations parfaites en blessant nos droits primitifs, ou ceux que nous avons acquis par occupation, ou par des conventions expresses, ou tacites, le droit des gens nous autorise à la forcer de nous donner la satisfaction qui nous est due, et à cette fin nous permet de manquer de notre côté à des obligations d'ailleurs parfaites, en usant de *représailles* * soit par le refus de satisfaire à ce qui lui est dû de notre part, soit par des violences.

"§ 257. *Des griefs qui autorisent aux représailles.* Chaque état étant autorisé à protéger ses sujets contre les lésions des étrangers, et d'un autre côté toute état étant responsable s'il manque à son obligation d'administrer aux étrangers une justice aussi prompte et aussi impartiale qu'à ses propres sujets, ce ne sont pas les lésions seules qui ont immédiatement et primitivement lieu de nation à nation, mais celles même qui ont été commises par les sujets de l'autre, qui peuvent autoriser à des représailles, lorsqu'il conste que la satisfaction demandée à l'état a été ou refusée, ou traitée en longueur d'une manière indue.

"§ 259. Le genre le plus usité des représailles c'est la *saïe* de personnes, ou de biens, reconstrés, soit dans notre territoire, ou en pleine mer, soit dans la territoire de la puissance contre laquelle on use de ce moyen.

" § 260. Toute représaille exercée *sans permission* est taxée et punie de brigandage ou de piraterie. Il est rare qu'un état accorde de telles lettres de représailles, en tems de paix. *Cependant il y a des exemples de telles lettres.* En 1778, en France, dans Codes des Prises; tome ii. p. 657.

" § 268. Les personnes et les biens des sujets *pouvant, même en tems de paix, servir d'objets de représailles*, l'ennemi serait aussi autorisé à la rigueur de saisir ces biens au moment de la rupture."

If the newest authorities acknowledged by living hostile diplomatists do not satisfy the appellant, he may look backward. The opinion of Vattel, that reprisal may not be decreed in favour of a third power, implies the right in one's own case. Barbeyrac, in his notes on Bynkershoek (c. xxii. s. 5.) Puffendorf (lib. v. c. xi. s. 5.) and Grotius (lib. iii. c. 2.) plainly support this right of retention, and self-indemnification. It is the more to be confided in, as it is confirmed by the spirit of the civil law. Now the law of nations, fundamentally and in its origin, was a string of inferences from the analogy of the civil or Roman law: which was formerly accepted throughout Europe. The modern variations of the law of nations have chiefly resulted from the application of local, domestic

principles of legislation to international policy.

If the plan of reasoning here advanced be acceded to, it will follow, that the captors of the Spanish plate-ships have no right to an atom of their prize; but are to be rewarded on the same principle as police-officers who execute an attachment. It will follow, that the merchants, who have made good their claims upon the Spanish government, have a right to bring actions in the court of Admiralty (or whatever other jurisdiction undertakes the guardianship of this trust-money) for their proportionate shares of the deposit. It will follow, that the governmental property of Spain must at once, and without deduction, be distributed, as far as it will go, among such claimant merchants. And it will follow, that the private property of Spanish individuals, found on board these plate-ships, may legitimately be sequestered by the British government, subject to an eventual distribution, analogous to what the Spanish government may hereafter make of the private British property sequestered in Spain.

This bestowal will in our opinion be no less honourable to British justice, and be less disgraceful to the executive power, than the restitution proposed with an eloquence so generous by the author of the appeal.

ART. LXXVIII. *Reflections on the Commerce of the Mediterranean.* By JOHN JACKSON, Esq. F. S. A. 8vo. pp. 220.

THIS book deserves praise; but admits not of analysis. It is a collection of facts of detail, concerning the commercial and statistical condition of the Mediterranean sea-ports, especially the more southern and barbarous. It will be read with advantage by the manufacturer, the merchant, and the statist. As a specimen of the rational and specific spirit of remark which pervades these instructive pages, the following section may suffice:—

On the economy of loading a ship with heavy goods for a foreign voyage.

" In shipping brimstone, barilla, and all other heavy cargoes, there is one very material point which should be always carefully attended to; that is, the manner of stowing the ship's cargo, which is sometimes shamefully neglected. The ship is then very uneasy at sea, when the wear and tear in the sails, and in her standing and running rigging, are almost incredible, and very often endanger the ship and all her crew. To

avoid all these misfortunes and expences, it will be necessary to raise the cargo with that sort of dunnage that will not give way. It may be taken for a general rule amongst all sorts of shipping, *the higher the centre of gravity is raised, the ship will be easier in all her motions at sea.*

" This great and general principle, in which all shipping are very materially interested, is not so universally understood nor practised as it ought to be. The most material part will be to point out the most advantageous method of stowing so large a proportion of a ship's hold as may be necessary for the dunnage of these heavy cargoes. The present custom is to cut a large quantity of brushwood and faggots, and spread them in the ship's hold, which soon fills up a large space: the brimstone is then laid upon it, and as the weight increases, it is pressed down the more, till it sinks lower than could be at first imagined. When the cargo is on board, it is too late to be altered, and the ship will be very uneasy at sea: and it is not an uncommon thing for a ship to return into port to take out a great deal of her cargo, be-

fore she can proceed upon her voyage. There are many instances where the ship's dunnage for a cargo of barilla or brimstone has not been properly attended to, that after loading upon the coast, the ship has been so very burthensome to herself, that they have even found the greatest difficulty to get into port. By this sort of dunnage the most experienced masters of ships are often deceived, besides, by the ship's returning into port to take out part of her cargo, they lose a great deal of freight, and are put to an immense expence, which might all have been avoided, had the cargo been properly stowed, and the ship might have carried it with the greatest ease. In Palermo, Messina, and all the principal ports, there are generally plenty of good oak pipe-staves to be purchased very reasonably; they will always allow a handsome freight to the ships, and are always in demand in England: dunnage of this kind cannot shrink much, and it will always keep the ship's hold clean. By dunnaging the ship with brushwood, the leaves soon decay through the dampness of the ship, and rot the ship's ceiling; and the small particles of barilla or brimstone, falling down amongst it, are generally lost; the barilla is lost inevitably.

"Should there be any want of oak staves, which is not very probable, there is always plenty of wood, which at first costs but very little, and is of some use in this country. Cork-wood is always in great abundance, and would be very useful amongst our turners and block-makers.

"In shipping cargoes of brimstone, barilla, and other articles upon the coast, there should always be a person on the part of the ship, to attend the scales, &c. who is well acquainted with the language, which, if properly attended to, including loss and waste, the ship will deliver in England—one ton for every 19 Sicilian cantar.

"The exports from Sicily, exclusive of the articles already mentioned, are silk, wine, brandy, tarter, raisins, figs, currants, sweet almonds, bitter almonds, small nuts, pistachios, lemons, oranges, lemon juice, essence of lemon, essence of bergamot, marble, salt, soap, maana, cantharides, shumac, liquorice paste, linseed, linseed oil, olive oil, locusts, eggs, goat and kid skins, rabbit skins, rabbit wool, anchovies, tunny fish, wheat, barley, beans, kidney-beans, callavances, argols, &c. &c.

"Imports into Sicily—Baccaleo, tanned bullocks' hides, tanned calf skins, tin in sheets and bars, bar iron, plate iron, lead in pigs

and sheets, pepper, pimento, spices of all sorts, sugars of all sorts, indigo, cochineal, herrings, dye woods of all sorts, pilchards, Manchester goods, hardware, earthen-ware, copper, coffee, cocoa, pitch and tar, silk and cotton hose, rum, alum, copperas, Irish linens.

"The imports into the island of Sicily are very considerable; they have very few manufactures of their own, and they must, in consequence, import very largely, particularly wearing apparel, and the consumption of some articles is very great; there is one very great advantage to the merchant, he is sure to get return cargoes for any number of shipping, and he may frequently barter his goods for his ship's return cargoes, to advantage."

In addition to the articles here enumerated, it would surely be possible to obtain from Sicily citrate of lime. A great use is now made in our cotton manufactures of the concrete citric acid. It is prepared by squeezing lemons, flinging lime or chalk into the expressed juice, pouring off the mucilage, and detaching, by means of the sulphuric acid, this lime or chalk from the citric acid with which it has become united. The waste which lemons incur from decay during importation, and the injury which lemon-juice incurs from fermentation and adulteration, render these articles very expensive to our chemists: but if the lime or chalk were to be saturated in Sicily with the acid of lemon, and so forwarded to our manufacturers, it could hardly suffer any damage. The subsequent delicate process of separating the chalk from the citric acid cannot well be trusted to the coarse superintendence of the foreign merchant.

Whithersoever we wish to send goods, it is important thence to contrive articles of importation: else our ships incur a loss of back-freight; and the exchange between the two countries tends to a par, which is continually opposing fresh obstacles to our supplying that market any longer. Exportation and importation are equally profitable; and the nearer they approach equality, the stronger their tendency to progressive increase.

ART. LXXIX. *A concise Statement of the Question regarding the Abolition of the Slave Trade.* 8vo. pp. 103.

THIS pamphlet deserves perusal; for it condenses in an instructive and convincing form the facts and arguments long since scattered over the whole surface of British society by the

friends to the abolition of the slave-trade; and it collects from scarce and foreign sources many additional particulars.

The following summary of the argu-

ment will perhaps be the most useful passage to detach :

“ But the reader of the foregoing pages is intreated to consider, whether the advocates of the abolition lie under any necessity of proving that the traffic is beneficial to no one class of the community, in order to make out their case against its continuance. If they have proved its radical iniquity in the amplest sense of the word—if they have shewn that those actually engaged in it might find various innocent methods of employing their capital, with much more safety to themselves, and far greater benefit to the country—if they have demonstrated that the trade is not in the smallest degree necessary for maintaining the West Indian colonies in their present state of splendid opulence, and, of consequence, that no injury can result from its abolition to the wealth already acquired by the planters : is it not a most extravagant demand to require that they should admit the propriety of supporting such a commerce, merely because some men have built upon the hopes of its continuance, their expectations of acquiring or increasing their fortunes? Surely it is abundantly sufficient to have proved that the termination of by far the most criminal traffic which men ever carried on, will be attended with no injury to interests already in existence, although it should be admitted that the prospects of a few individuals may be disappointed by the change.

“ But we are told that those persons will be injured who have purchased plantations, with the view of extending their cultivation. They, however (as Mr. Brougham remarks*), “ are only subjected to the want of what they might otherwise have gained, or at the utmost to a trifling inconvenience. They still possess an equivalent for their purchase-money. If they are not satisfied with the slow accumulation by means of natural increase, they may sell again, and remove their stock to another channel. They cannot now fulfil their expectations of acquiring a rapid fortune by clearing the land, because the price of negroes will rise, or rather, for some years, there will be no possibility of purchasing slaves. But this is no real or absolute loss which can justify their demands of an equivalent. Suppose that the British cabinet were disposed to annul the Methuen treaty ; would it be necessary first to consult all those merchants who, on the faith of it, had removed to Portugal, or settled a correspondence with that country, or vested their stock in French wines, or bought wools to supply the market of Lisbon? Or, suppose that the East Indian monopoly were abolished, would the holders of India stock have a claim for indemnification ; or would the capitalists, who had laid out their money in shares of East India vessels, or in loans to captains and traders, have a right to

demand compensation? But these cases are much more favourable to such claims than the one which we are considering. Suppose that a number of capitalists have vested their stock in the three per cents. at the end of a long war, from the full confidence that the value of the funded property will in a few months rise twenty or thirty per cent. ; if the national honour is insulted, must all those stockholders be indemnified for their probable disappointment, before a war can be proclaimed? And can any stain be so deep on the honour and the character of the country, as supporting of a traffic founded in treachery and blood? Can any measure attended with partial loss or disappointment, be in its essence more just and necessary than the immediate wiping out of so foul a pollution? Can any policy be more contemptible than that which would refuse its sanction to such a measure, for fear of disappointing those men who had arranged their plans with the hopes of fattening upon the plunder of the public character and virtue?”

The stock which is gradually accumulated in the mother country, always finds new channels of employment, although the population increases much more slowly than the slave population of the colonies will increase, after the new importations are stopped. How then should the augmented wealth of colonial proprietors fail to obtain employment, when the field both of the colonies and the mother country—the colonial commerce, and all the foreign trade of Europe, are open to it?”

A considerable white slave-trade was carried on, along both coasts of the British channel, under the Roman emperors. In the *Anglia Sacra* (vol. ii. p. 258), in the life of St. Wulstan, curious particulars are given of the collection and purchase of handsome girls and boys. Chieftains sold their captives, lords their vassals, and the free gambled away their liberty. This trade extended into the Baltic, and continued, as Fischer in his *History of Commerce* (chap. vii.) has shown, not only after the establishment of christianity by Constantine, but after the subversion of the Roman empire. The Venetians and Genoese came in Charlemagne's time, and bought Saxon slaves, whom they sold among the Turks and Saracens.

At Venice the first attempt was made for the abolition of the white slave-trade. The following notice occurs in *Chronico Rerum Italicarum*, Dandul. ad. a. 878. page 186. Quo tempore mercatores Veneti lucri cupidi a piratis et latrunculis mancipia comparabant, et transfretantes de

* *Cul. Policy*, vol. ii. page 498

eis commercium faciebant. Cui manifesto facinori Duces obviare volentes pie decreverunt, nequis de mancipiis commercium faciat, vel in navibus recipiat. So that the first blow at the white slave-trade was struck by prohibiting the reception of slave-cargoes. We do not find that Venetian commerce, or Saracenic agriculture, suffered by the change.

We do find that the slave-coast began from that period to disbarbarize.

To the theoretical and presumptive reasonings of this informed author may be added, therefore, the verdict of experience. Abolition is practicable, for it has been effected: it is safe, for it has been effected without inconvenience: it is useful, for the date of gothic civilization begins with its enactment.

ART. LXXX. *The Traders' and Manufacturers' Compendium*, by JOSHUA MONTEFIORE, Esq. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 750.

OF the Commercial Dictionary, lately published by this industrious writer, a long and commendatory account was given in our second volume, p. 691. This Compendium is an abridgment of it; but it is now, by the partial suppression of gazetteer articles, more adapted for those who carry on the inland, than the foreign trade; and it contains some new matter which had before been overlooked. Neither work is wholly a substitute for the other; both will scatter comprehensive information and precise instruction, legal, geographical, and technological.

The following list of the livery-companies of London, their fines, and dates of incorporation, will not be uninteresting to the literary world.

Precedency.	Names of the Companies.	Date of Charter.	Livery Fines.
1	Mercers	1393	2 13 4
2	Grocers	1345	21 0 0
3	Drapers	1439	25 0 0
4	Fishmongers	1433	25 0 0
5	Goldsmiths	1180	21 0 0
6	Skinners	1322	15 0 0
7	Merchant Taylors	1299	31 10 0
8	Haberdashers	1447	25 0 0
9	Salters	1394	20 0 0
10	Ironmongers	1462	30 12 0
11	Vintners	1437	28 17 6
12	Cloth-workers	1482	30 9 0
13	Dyers	1472	21 0 0
14	Brewers	1438	7 13 4
15	Leather-sellers	1382	20 0 0
16	Pewterers	1474	20 0 0
17	Barbers	1480	10 15 6
18	Cutlers	1417	10 15 0
19	Bakers	1155	15 15 0
20	Tallow-chandlers	1462	15 0 0
21	Wax-chandlers	1483	5 0 0
22	Armourers	1422	26 5 0
23	Girdlers	1449	10 18 0
24	Butchers	1605	2 0 0
25	Sadlers	1190	15 15 0
26	Carpenters	1344	26 5 0

Precedency.	Names of the Companies.	Date of Charter.	Livery Fines.
27	Cordwainers	1410	20 0 0
28	Painters	1582	15 4 0
29	Curriers	1367	9 13 0
30	Masons	1410	5 0 0
31	Plumbers	1611	10 5 0
32	Innholders	1515	10 10 0
33	Founders	1614	8 7 6
34	Poulterers	1503	20 0 0
35	Cooks	1480	10 7 6
36	Coopers	1501	15 0 0
37	Bricklayers	1567	20 7 6
38	Bowyers	1620	8 0 0
39	Fletchers	by prescription	21 0 0
40	Blacksmiths	1471	8 15 0
41	Joiners	1570	8 0 0
42	Weavers	1184	10 12 0
43	Plasterers	1501	6 0 0
44	Scriveners	1616	5 0 0
45	Fruiterers	1605	10 15 0
46	Stationers	1557	21 3 0
47	Embroiderers	1561	10 5 0
48	Upholders	1627	8 8 0
49	Musicians	1604	2 0 0
50	Turners	1604	8 0 0
51	Glaziers	1637	3 0 0
52	Farriers	1673	5 12 6
53	Paviours	by prescription	0 0 0
54	Loriners, or Bit-makers	1488	10 0 0
55	Apothecaries	1606	21 0 0
56	Shipwrights	1605	*
57	Spectacle-makers	1630	*
58	Glovers	1638	5 13 4
59	Comb-makers	1636	*
60	Felt-makers	1604	5 0 0
61	Frame-work-knitters	1633	10 0 0
62	Needle-makers	1656	6 19 0
63	Clock-makers	1632	*
64	Gardeners	1616	*
65	Tin-plate-workers	1670	*
66	Wheelwrights	1670	15 15 0
67	Distillers	1638	13 6 8
68	Hatband-makers	1638	*
69	Patten-makers	1670	6 0 0
70	Glass-sellers	1664	5 0 0
71	Coach and coach-harness-makers	1677	10 0 0
72	Parish-clerks	1611	*
73	Gold & silver wire-drawers	1628	15 7 6

Precedency.	Names of the Companies.	Date of Charter.	Livery Fines.
74	Long bow-string-makers	by pres.	•
75	Fan-makers	1709	•
76	Tobacco-pipe-makers	663	•
77	Carmen	•	•
78	Tackle-porters	1606	•
79	Ticket-porters	1646	•
80	Watermen & lightermen †	1700	•

The duration of apprenticeships in this country is excessive : five years ought to

confer all the privileges of servitude : our youth are withdrawn too soon from school, and labour too long gratuitously.

We trust that this useful work will be a mean of drawing attention to many other of those laws concerning trade, which inflict unnecessary restraints. Such are the regulations which forbid tanners to be curriers, to be exporters of leather, or to be shoe-makers ; and which forbid any persons but tanners from buying rough hides, &c. Many improvements in the arts are resisted by this pedantic interference of the state in the processes of various manufactures.

ART. LXXXI. *Reports of the Society for Bettering the Condition of the Poor. VOL. IV.* 8vo. pp. 300.

THE three preceding volumes of these Reports were examined by us (vol. i. p. 419) in a manner which must have been impressive ; for it drew on the reviewer much private correspondence. The peculiar principle advanced was this : that *the moral virtues of the poor follow in the regular proportion of their habitual earnings*. Consequently, to enrich the poor is the first duty ; and to let them, as much as possible, cater for themselves, the next.

We have now to examine a fourth volume of the communications from this Society for bettering the Condition of the Poor : it is less interesting than the former parts, probably because the subject is so much exhausted. We object decidedly to the introductory letter. In all associations of beneficence, party-spirit should be silent. Sects and factions should unite for the purpose of doing good, and suspend their strife before the altar of charity. The cornucopia of benevolence showers its blessings on all alike ; and shall it not be jointly shaken by hands at other times opposed ? But here we find, in the name and under the sanction of a considerable association, the most unmerited incense burnt (p. 39) to Mr. Pitt and Mr. Addington : to Mr. Pitt, under whose administration, and partly by whose taxes on objects of popular consumption, that immense increase of poor rate was rendered necessary, which demonstrates the equally gigantic strides of misery ; and to Mr. Addington, under whose administration was enacted the recent corn-bill, a law which in six months has domesticated more

suffering throughout all the cottages of Great Britain, than the industry even of British humanity can atone in six years. Let these men have their appropriate praise, the one for his stately eloquence and financial exertion, the other for his pacificatory spirit ; but let them not find flatterers here ; lest it be suspected that the eleemosynary virtues are sometimes inculcated as a hint, and practised as an example, to ministers.

The introductory letter dwells on other points which the writer thinks of pressing importance, and principally on *the abuse of the Sabbath*. The prevailing method of spending the Sunday in this country is certainly very objectionable.

Like a truly industrious nation, we endeavour to make rest from labour more irksome than toil itself : and by the gloomy denunciations of a mystical superstition, to convert leisure into misery. The progress of ascetic fanaticism is deplorable : reason and cheerfulness sicken at its presence : the tongue whines an unintelligible jargon : the imagination is haunted by starting fiends and fires of hell : and these puritanic sectaries, as a remedy for the pains of mind, which their indiscreet teachers wander to inflict, are seen to seek in dram drinking a refuge from the devil. Not only their private, their public morality is debauched : whole bodies of volunteers have been persuaded to withdraw from Sunday drills, as if a special interposition of Providence would resist sabbatical invasion. We thank Mr. Bernard for drawing the public attention to the widely prevalent abuse of a day, which is so

* No information could be procured.

† Under the controul of the lord mayor, and court of aldermen.

much consecrated to fashioning the character of the poor.

The observations on the Rothsay cotton-mills may deserve notice.

"Such is the account with which I have been favoured by, Messrs. Bannatine and Buchanan of Glasgow. It might be an object worthy the attention of the humane, to enquire whether some mode of spinning the higher numbers of the mule-yarn could not be devised, in a lower temperature, and in a freer circulation of air, than is commonly practised: and whether it might not be practicable for weavers also to work to advantage in more airy shops. Were all the cotton mills in the kingdom to adhere to a reasonable length of working hours, and to have the children properly educated, such measures, we should think, would conduce much to the health and morals of the people, without being injurious to the manufacturer, or prejudicial to his fair profits: the benefits of the limitation of work to limited hours during the day,—of a proper respite during meal times,—and of attention to cleanliness and morals,—being more than compensated by the superior health, energy, and conduct, of the persons employed.

"There does unquestionably exist" (to use Mr. Bannatine's words) "a very onerous duty upon the proprietors of great works, that the proportion of population, necessarily thrown under their charge at a very early period of life, shall not be disqualified for the subsequent and more important part, they will have to perform in society."—The plan of giving lessons during the working hours of the day, instead of confining the children in the evenings, is borrowed from Mr. Birkbeck, of Settle, in Yorkshire. It is indeed an important improvement. The children taken thus, singly, for eight or ten minutes in rotation, are much better taught; and their instruction comes to them under the appearance from labour; and is therefore more willingly received. Mr. Bannatine, the owner of the mill, is confident that the quantity of work is not, upon the whole, diminished* by this mode of teaching; and he thinks that the trifling expense it occasions,

is abundantly made up to him by its influence on the morals and conduct of his people.—For the idea of inclosing the common cards in a frame, so as to prevent the flying of the card-dust, which is deemed injurious to the lungs, the public is indebted to Mr. Buchanan, one of the gentlemen who has supplied me with information about the Rothsay mills.

"A small annual contribution is made by the workmen towards forming a common library; which has had a beneficial effect on the manners of all the persons employed, by supplying amusement for their leisure hours. Some of the inhabitants of Rothsay have joined them, and they have now a well-selected library of above six hundred volumes. The marquis of Bute approves of it, and has been a contributor to the collection."

There is novelty and merit in the institution of a charitable bank at Tottenham for the savings of the poor.

"For the purpose of providing a safe and convenient place of deposit for the savings of labourers, servants, and other poor persons, a charitable establishment has been lately formed at Tottenham, in the county of Middlesex. It is guaranteed by six trustees, who are gentlemen of fortune and responsibility, most of them possessing considerable landed property. This renders it as safe and certain as institutions of this kind can be, and insures it from that fluctuation of value, to which the public funds are liable. The books are kept by a lady, and never opened but on the first Monday in every month, either for receipts or payments. Any sum is received above one shilling; and five per cent. is given for every twenty shillings that lies twelve calendar months; every person so depositing money being at liberty to recal it, any day the books are opened: but no business is transacted at any other time.

"The money collected, is divided equally between six trustees. For every additional hundred pounds, a new trustee is to be chosen; so that a trustee can only hold his proportion of 100*l*. None but the labouring classes are admitted to this benefit; and there is no restriction as to place of residence.

"When the reader has been informed by those who are applying for the repeal of the late act for the regulation of cotton mills, that unless owners of cotton mills can work their apprentices night and day, it will amount to a surrender of all their profits,—that is, that they will not be able to make their fortunes with sufficient rapidity,—he will be surprised that Mr. Bannatine should (in these observations, which all come from him) have expressed himself so perfectly satisfied with a moderate and limited degree of labour, regulated almost to precision according to the late act. These examples, however, are not confined to Scotland.—We have the pleasure of informing the reader that, in several parts of England, there are cotton mills, which have been for some time worked in conformity to the principles of the act of parliament; and that by a report, which we have just received, it appears that the foremen who superintend these mills, and have an interest in the quantity of work done, (though they submitted to the restrictions at first with reluctance,) do now declare with great satisfaction, that the abridgement of labour is fully compensated by the continued good health of the children."

OBSERVATIONS.

"These few simple rules are all that have hitherto been found necessary for the establishment of this charity, the design of which is both original and useful. To those who have applied themselves to that branch of political economy, which relates to increasing the comforts, and improving the morals of the inferior classes of society, it must be obvious that every endeavour to encourage and enable them to provide for their own wants, rather than to rely upon the gratuitous gifts of the rich, are of great advantage to the whole community.

"It is not sufficient to stimulate the poor to industry, unless they can be persuaded to adopt habits of frugality. This is evinced amongst many different kinds of artisans and labourers, who earn large wages, but do not in general possess any better resources in the day of calamity than those who do not gain above half as much money. The season of plenty should then provide for the season of want, and the gains of summer be laid by for the rigours of winter. But it must be obvious, how difficult it is for even the sober labourer to save up his money, when it is at hand to supply the wants that occur in his family; for those of intemperate habits, ready money is a very strong temptation to the indulgence of those pernicious propensities.

"Many would try to make a little hoard for sickness or old age, but they know not where to place it without danger or inconvenience. They do not understand how to put money in, or to take it out of the bank; nor will it answer for small sums, either in point of trouble or of loss of time. The same causes frequently occasion thoughtless servants to spend all their wages in youth, and in consequence to pass their old age in a workhouse; a sad reverse from the indul-

gence of a gentleman's family, to which they have been habituated. Many instances indeed have occurred, that for want of a place of security for their money, the poor have lost their hard earned savings, by lending it to some artful or distressed person, who has persuaded them, it will be safe in his hands.

"The success of the little bank for children, connected with the Tottenham Female Benefit Club, mentioned in a former part of the Reports,* encouraged the present design; and it may be worth remarking, that the bank was opened by an orphan girl of fourteen, who placed two pounds in it, which she had earned in very small sums, and saved in the benefit club."

Another sort of charitable bank is in use on the continent under the name of *Mont de Piété*, in which money is lent to the poor, on pledges, at a much lower rate of interest than the pawn-brokers exact. This plan has the effect of bringing under the inspection of the magistrate the more distressed classes of the people. By the slower or quicker increase of deposits, he gets a gauge of want, and a barometer of distress.

The various accounts from the cotton-mills tend to excite the suspicion, that no contracts of lasting apprenticeship ought to be tolerated; and that the seven years' slaveries in use under our laws should annually expire.

The danger to be apprehended from this, and similar associations, is, that, when the subscriptions fall short of its wants, it will seek to go into alliance with the state, and make a job of its past industry.

* See vol. iii. No. 84.

CHAPTER IV.

ANCIENT CLASSICS.

THE publications of the late year in this department of literature, considerably exceed, both in number and importance, those which we had occasion to notice in our last Review. The first place in the class of editors is due to Mr. Northmore, who has published an edition of Tryphiodorus, with ample illustrations, and with a text as correct as the means which we possess for ascertaining it will allow. An edition of Thucydides has been printed in an elegant form at Edinburgh, and is to be followed by a volume of annotations. The Memorabilia of Xenophon have appeared from the university-press at Oxford, in an edition undertaken by Mr. Benwell, but left incomplete by his death. The remainder is supplied from other sources.

Mr. Taylor has at length accomplished the very laborious undertaking of a complete translation of the Works of Plato, illustrated with original notes, and copious extracts from the ancient scholia and commentaries, many of them hitherto unpublished. Mr. Bridgman, a disciple of the former, follows with a humbler work, in the translation of a few obscure fragments of Greek philosophy and mysticism. A new translation of Juvenal is also laid before the public by Mr. Marsh.

Dr. Hill, professor of humanity at Edinburgh, in his synonymes of the Latin tongue, has very ably illustrated an important and difficult subject in the doctrine of language. Mr. Gell has added to the pleasure with which we peruse the most splendid poem of antiquity, by an elegant work, in which the scenery of the Trojan plain is delineated with beauty and accuracy, and the country shewn to correspond in a remarkable degree with the descriptions contained in the Iliad.

Some useful school books also occur among the publications of the late year.

EDITIONS.

ART. I. Τρυφιοδώρου Ἰλίου ἀλώσεως, versione Latina, plurimis Observationibus, duobus indicibus, et variis excursibus, illustrata, a THOMA NORTHMORE, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 230.

AN edition of this work was published by Mr. Northmore, in the year 1791, which met with a considerable share of public approbation, both at home and abroad. The present publication is enlarged by the addition of many new observations, and will doubtless add to the reputation gained by the editor's former work.

The subject of this short poem of Tryphiodorus is the capture of Troy, and it therefore coincides, in a considerable degree, with the second book of

Virgil's *Æneid*. That immortal work has however nothing to fear from the rivalry. Though Tryphiodorus writes in the noblest language which has ever been employed to express human ideas, and Greek, even in the mouth of Tryphiodorus, (as Gibbon observes with respect to one of the Byzantine writers), will often be beautiful, yet the powers of the poet himself appear to us to be of a very inferior order. Like many other writers, he has been highly extolled by some, and as greatly depreciated by

others. Mr. Northmore is inclined to take a middle station between these two opinions. Of the two, however, we are disposed to think that the severest sentence which has been passed respecting him, is nearer to the truth than the most favourable.

Respecting the author himself little is known with certainty. A copious and learned dissertation on the subject of this writer and his works, is prefixed to Mr. Merrick's English translation of his poem. We are told that he was an Egyptian, but in what age he flourished is doubtful. The titles of several of his works (though the present poem alone is now extant) have been transmitted to us, of which that ridiculous performance, the lipogrammatic Odyssey, will immediately recur to the memory of every reader of the Spectator. The accounts which have been given of this work are, however, not altogether consistent; some stating that, from the twenty-four books of which the poem consisted, each of the letters was banished in its turn; and others, at least Eustathius, that the letter Sigma alone was banished from all the books. Either of these accounts leaves the work charged with a sufficient degree of absurdity.

Though the precise æra at which this poet flourished is unknown, yet it is evident from his style, if there were no other evidence, that he wrote in the lowest ages of Greek poetry. His diction resembles that of Musæus, Coluthus, Quintus Calaber, and particularly Nonnus, writers who form the last, and, in every sense, the lowest school of the Grecian heroic song, and with whom it cannot be doubted that Tryphiodorus is to be classed.

We have stated our opinion respecting the merits of this writer. We think that it cannot be better justified, than by contrasting a passage of *the poet*, as the ancients emphatically used the term, with one in which Tryphiodorus has chosen to imitate him, and thereby to expose the meanness of his own genius.

Αλλ' ὅτι πολυμυθίας ἀναίχθουν Ὀδυσσεύς,
Στάσειν, νῆαί δ' ἰδεσθαι, κατὰ χροῖος ὀμματα πηξάας,
Σκῆπτρον δ' οὐτ' ὀπίσω, οὐτὶ πρόσθεν, ἔνυμφα,
Αλλ' ἀσπίδος ἔχουσιν, ἀνδρῶν φῶτι τοίκας·
Φαίνοι καὶ χαλκόν τε τιν' ἔρμηναι, ἄφρονά θ' αὐτῶς·
Αλλ' ὅτι ὅν εἰσιν ὅσα τε μεγάλα ἰς ἀνθρώποις ἴσι,
Καὶ ἐπὶ νηυσὶν τοίκοντα χυμυρίζουσι.
Ὅσα αἰ ἐπὶ τῷ Ὀδυσσῇ γ' ἐρῖσιν βέροτο ἄλλοι.

Il. iii. 216.

This is a most noble picture, and has been admired in all ages. But in the hands of Tryphiodorus it becomes little better than a caricature.

Αὐτὰρ ὁ δαίμονι νῶον βούλοισιν ἔλισσιν,
Πρῶτα μιν ἱστῆαι κινεόφρονι φῶτι τοίκας,
Ὀμματος ἀσπίδοισιν βολῆν ἐπὶ ἡμῶν ἑρῖσας·
Ἄφρον δ' αἰνῶν ἐπὶ νῆας ἀνοίξας,
Δαίμον ἀνέβροτῃσιν, καὶ περὶ ὅτι σπῆγναι,
Ἐξέχων μέγα χιῶμα μελίστατος νηϊτοῖα.

114.

How is all the beauty of Homer's description lost in this tumid parody! What an absurd confusion of ideas does the last line present, "a torrent of honey-dropping snow!"

Yet with this opinion respecting the merits of Tryphiodorus, we are very far from thinking that Mr. Northmore has undertaken an office unserviceable to the cause of literature, in becoming his editor. The meanest of the Greek poets have their use. They afford an instructive school of criticism, and they may serve to illustrate better writers.

It has been the fate of several of these writers to be transmitted to us in a very corrupt state. The correction of their numerous errors, frequently very obvious, habituates the mind to the exercise of criticism, an art which, like all others, is to be attained by practice. Quintus Calaber affords a good illustration of this observation. Five successive verses seldom occur in this author, which are free from corruption. These errors must in different places be naturally productive of every degree of difficulty from the lowest to the highest, and the correction of them, though not a very pleasing task, cannot fail of proving a very useful one to the student of Greek literature. Every classical scholar is acquainted with the skill which Rhodemannus has displayed in this province.

The writers of the lower ages of Greece are also very often useful for the illustration or emendation of better authors. This is true with respect to the writers both of prose and poetry; and no critic has perhaps so well understood, or so ably illustrated, this fact, as Rhunkenius. "Vix quisquam post heroica illa tempora ad scribendum accessit, quin se totum ad aliquem antiquiorum, qui omnium consensu ingenii ac doctrinæ principatum tenerent, exprimendum imitandumque daret. Quemcunque vero sibi delegisset, ejus non solum voces, formulas, complexionesque verborum,

Y 4

sed sententias etiam et bene dicta acerrimo consectabatur studio, in succumque, quod aiunt, et sanguinem vertebant." Pref. Lex. Tim. xx. Thus Nonnus has also, by the same great critic, been frequently applied to the illustration of Callimachus. Ep. crit. ii.

Mr. Northmore appears to have had two objects in view, in the publication of this work: to present as complete and accurate an edition as possible of Tryphiodorus, and to make his book a repository for many useful and curious remarks on the subject of Greek poetry and grammar. We shall proceed to give an account of his edition in both these points of view.

The manuscripts of Tryphiodorus are not numerous, nor do we know that any are existing in this country. The earliest edition is that published by Aldus, without date, along with Quintus Calaber and Coluthus. This edition has been assigned to the year 1521; but Renaudot argues, on probable grounds, that it existed so early as 1504. It was succeeded, during the sixteenth century, by editions published at Basle, Leipsic, and Paris; but the most important edition, previous to Merrick's, appears to be that of Frischlinus, printed at Frankfurt in 1588. Merrick's edition appeared in 1741, and is enriched with valuable notes by the editor, and some important corrections of the text, supplied by a manuscript formerly in possession of the celebrated Fabricius, and afterwards in that of his son-in-law, H. S. Reimarus. By means of this manuscript some whole lines were restored, which were wanting in the preceding editions. A still more important service was conferred on Tryphiodorus by an Italian scholar, Bandini, who in the year 1765 published an edition of this author at Florence, materially improved by the assistance of two valuable manuscripts, preserved in the Medicean library of that city. These MSS. he distinguished by the signatures A and B.

This last edition is the principal basis of that of Mr. Northmore, who has enjoyed no opportunity of collating any fresh manuscripts. As the Tryphiodorus of Merrick is in common circulation in this country, and that of Bandini very rare, we shall endeavour, by a comparison of Mr. Northmore's edition with the former of these works, to give our readers some idea of the restorations of the text which have been effected

since the labours of the last English editor.

Several entire verses are now added, which do not appear even in Merrick's edition. These amount to ten in the course of the poem, and are the followings:

Αἵματι δακρυσας ἐχυθε πατριος Αἰδοῦ

verse 28 in Mr. Northmore's edition, to be inserted after 27 in Merrick.

In place of the corrupt and monstrous verse in Merrick's edition,

Αἰδοῖσι πορφυροῖσι λυκοῖσιν ἀναγκαῖοι χαλινῶ,

we have now the two following verses,

Αἰδοῖσι πορφυροῖσι περιξέειπον ἱμάντι,
Καὶ σκολιῶν ἰλίκισσι ἀναγκαῖοι χαλινῶ.

96, 97. ed. North.

Εὐρυπύλος τ' Εὐαίμωνιδης, ἀγαθὸς τε Λιόντιος

176 North. post. 173. Merr.

Πικρὰ δὲ πίνουσιν, οὐχ ὕψι θε' ἀναγκῆς

196 North. p. 192 Merr.

Ὀφθαλμοὶ ποδιόσιντες ἐλαδῶν ἐκτος ἱστίος

203, p. 198, Merr.

Φύγην ἀγγιλιούσα, καὶ ἰλαμένη εἰς ἄλα ποίησ'

212, p. 206, Merr.

Ὀρμηὶ καὶ ἀντιπαρεῖον ἐντοφάνου Τενταῖος

217, p. 210, Merr.

Ἀμμι δ' Ἀθηναῖν ἐρυσσιπάλιν πηριμονοῖ,
Δαίδαλιον ἐπιδούσα λαβεῖν ἀναθήμα καὶ αὐτῇ

302, 3, p. 294, Merr.

Ἡρώστῳ δ' ὑπὸ κριν ἀνύχομενοι χολὸν Ἡρῆς.

685, p. 675. Merr.

The insertion of these verses is authenticated by the valuable Florence manuscript, A, much the best of those which have been hitherto collated. We see no reason to suspect the genuineness of any of these verses, and they are in several instances necessary to the completion of the sense. The last of them is perhaps the least wanted. We are inclined to think the word *ποδιόσιντες*, 203, corrupt.

Independently on these additions, the various readings of the two English editions are very numerous. Of 691 verses of which the poem consists, upwards of an hundred appear in the present edition differently read from that of Mr. Merrick, and in many the variations are very important. Our limits will not allow us to enumerate the whole of them, and this is the less necessary, as they do not now appear before the public for the first time. Some of those which most deserve notice will occur in the course of the following observations.

γ. 28.—This verse is among the addi-

tional lines which we have already enumerated. We repeat the mention of it here, on account of an ingenious conjecture of Mr. Wakefield's, which Mr. Northmore has very justly received into the text.

"23. Αἰῶνι, etc. Hunc versum vehementer desideratum servavit A. nisi quod το Αἰῶν acutimini Wakefieldiano debeat, manuscripto exhibente ἄνι. Hanc optimam conjecturam, quam in textum inducere non dubitavimus, sic egregie confirmat ὁ μακαρίτης. 'Deinde Æther est Jupiter, ut patet a versu Virgilii.

'Tum Pater omnipotens secundus imbribus Æther—
secundus Georg. II. 325.

* et ab Eclog. VII. 60,

'Jupiter et lieto descendet plurimus imbrei.

'Jam vero παρρηῖος Αἰῶν est Æther, pater ejus (Sarpedonis scilicet) qui lacrymas sanguineas super ejus fato fudit, si idoneo testi in hac re fides adhibenda sit, II. II. 458.

"Ὁς ἱσταν' ἐνδ' ἀνέθης πατὴρ ἀνδρῶν τι θεῶν τε αἰματόεσσαις δι' ψιᾶδες κατ' ἔχων ἱραζε πᾶσι φίλον τιμῶν, τὸν οἱ Πατρηὶος ἱμελλοφθίσων ἐν Τροίῃ ἱριζόμεναι, πάλῃδι πάτρης."

Sil. Crit. IV. p. 111.

"Certè fides est adhibenda, nec minus alteri testi, scil. Nonno, qui ipsa verba habet, p. 974. v. 4. Παρρηῖος Αἰῶν, et 894. 4. 1182. 28. 1306. 9. Voce Αἰῶν pro Jupiter sæpe utuntur et Nonnus et alii. Non. 552. 15. et hinc corrigendus est error, similis huic Nostri, μακάριος Αἰῶν, 410. 9. ubi nunc legitur ἀνι. et ubi Scaliger acutè conjecerat ἄνι. Αἰθέρως Ζεὺς habet Musæus, v. 8. et Ovidius, Ibis, 72 ubi v. adnot.

Ipsæ meas Æther accipe summe preces.

Cf. Schol. ad Il. O. 19. ubi pro ἄνιρος lege μέσος γῆς καὶ ἀνέριος. Edit. Barnes."

V. 59.—The word καταβαίνει may be translated in its usual signification, by considering δουρα as the nominative, τεμνεται as the passive, and by supposing the sentence to be parenthetical. We do not however consider this as necessary, as very many instances occur in the Greek authors, of verbs, usually neuter, assuming a transitive signification. Markland, in a passage referred to by Mr. Northmore, ad Iph. Taur. 742, mentions the future βήσω, there used in a transitive sense, as an exemplification of this observation. We believe, however, that this future, and the aorist derived from it, very rarely have any other than a transitive signification. The word καταβαίνει appears to be used transitively by Pindar, Pyth. viii. 111.

V. 119.—Το κρημα, the common reading in this passage, and authorized by the manuscripts, we prefer χρημα, the conjecture of Merrick, supported by Ruhnkenius, both as in itself a better reading, and as deriving much probability from the verse of Callimachus (Hym. ad Jov. 92), from which the ex-

pression seems to be borrowed. Mr. Northmore accedes to the reading λαιτμα, given by Bandini, without mention of the manuscript.

V. 221.—Κρηπτοι επι Τροάσσι δολον και πηματα κενδων. Mr. Northmore offers a very probable conjectural emendation of this passage: "vix aliud mihi frigidius esse videtur quam tautologia illa κρηπτοι κενδων, et non possum quin locum emendare, reponendo τευχων. This conjecture is well supported by Mr. Cogan, from Theocr. i, 50, Ap. Rhod. iii. 578, with the scholiast upon the former of these passages.

V. 443.—Mr. Northmore mentions a conjecture of Mr. Cogan, μαρινομενοι πυρ for μαριταμενοι, an emendation to which we accede, as adding spirit to the passage. The verb μαριταμαι seems always to imply the idea of combat in terms somewhat approaching to equality, not that of triumphant uncontested victory. The expression μαριταμενοι ανηλων, quoted by Mr. Northmore, is right, the warring winds, contending with each other; but that of fighting fire is scarcely correct. The "bickering flame" of Milton is almost equivalent to coruscus, though with some accession of force, and this is probably the original signification of the term.

V. 505.—The distinctions between φονου πται and φονου πται, expressions which are certainly not perfectly synonymous, we rather think to be these: That which φονου πται gives indications of a murderous tendency, or of murder committed, which the spectator may discover; that which φονου πται is proceeding with a direct tendency, whether discoverable or not, to an act of murder; the former seeming along with the agent to imply the obscure notice of an observer, the latter simply to respect the agent himself; the former is applicable either to the general tendency, or to a past or future act, the latter only to an approaching act.

V. 547.—We are not satisfied with the reading ανουσαι. From ανουσαι (MS. A.) Mr. Northmore formerly conjectured, in the Attic form, ανουσαι or ανουσαι. Should we read ανουσαι?

V. 638,—affords a curious specimen of a corrupt reading in the common editions, corrected by the inspection of valuable MSS. (A et B.) Yet several ancient editions, long ago presented nearly the same reading with that of these MSS.

From this short account it will appear that much has been done by late editors, for the restoration of the text of Tryphiodorus; we are of opinion, however, that several passages still remain corrupt.

Mr. Northmore has often successfully illustrated his author by comparison with the poets of his own school, in whose writings he appears to be well versed.

In the remainder of this article our limits will permit us to notice only a few of the grammatical disquisitions, which are introduced in the course of this work. Observations of this nature frequently occur in the notes; a few, which required to be treated at greater length, have been reserved for five excursus, which form an appendix to the annotations.

The first excursus relates to the term *παλαβοϋ* or *καλαυβοϋ*, an old word, one of the *ἀπαξ λεγόμενα* of Homer, Il. xxiii. 845. This word does not occur in Tryphiodorus. We cannot help thinking the etymology of it, which is proposed with diffidence by Mr. Northmore, too forced and remote to be depended upon.

The second excursus is a disquisition on the measure of the words *Παλιδης*, *Ατρειδης*, &c. These and similar words are considered by Dawes as quadrisyllabic, with the insertion of the Digamma, *Παλιδιδης*, *Ατρειδιδης*, &c. Misc. crit. 172. The analogy of the formation of the cases in Greek substantives renders this observation not altogether destitute of probability; it appears however to us too uncertain to be insisted on. In further confirmation of this remark, it is alleged by Dawes, that the position of these words in Homer always admits of their scansion as quadrisyllables, though the laws of the verse would permit them to be placed in situations, in which they could only be considered as trisyllabic. This argument, however, is of little force, since it will be found on examination that Homer, in most instances, disposes any word, consisting of three long syllables, in such a manner as to begin a foot. There is no doubt that in all subsequent ages these words were pronounced as trisyllables, as appears by the practice of the tragic writers, and by some express testimonies. Mr. Northmore coincides with the opinion of Dawes respecting the pronunciation of these words. In a note on this excursus, he remarks that the Digamma, even in the

time of Homer, was in some words becoming obsolete.

The third excursus is employed in the consideration of the final N. With respect to the Attic writers, Mr. Northmore's opinion coincides with the rule, which is explained by professor Porson (ad Orest. 64) so clearly as scarcely to admit of controversy. With the Homeric writers he supposes the case to be different. The letter N, he observes, appears to have been of very frequent use in the earlier periods of the Greek language. Into the question, whether this peculiarity was derived from the Chinese tongue, we shall not attempt to enter, as we are ignorant of that language, and know not from history of any connection which the two nations can be supposed to have had with each other. The progress of refinement in the Ionic dialect Mr. Northmore supposes, in many instances, to have tended to the exclusion of this letter; that it is therefore to be banished in Homer, wherever it is unnecessary to the construction of the verse; and the power of the cæsure is so great, as not to require the assistance of this fulcrum for the purpose of sustaining a short syllable which falls in that position. In support of this observation it might be added, that in the Ionic dialect, in the time of Herodotus (if credit may be paid to the manuscripts), the paragogic N appears to have become so obsolete, as scarcely to have been employed even to avoid a hiatus. We are, however, on this subject disposed to adhere to the common doctrine. There appears to us as much solicitude in the prosody of Homer to avoid throwing too much weight on the cæsural pause, as there is to avoid the hiatus. The final N was confessedly employed to avoid the latter of these faults, we believe it therefore to have been employed to prevent the former. Whether the cæsural pause is capable, without any other aid, of sustaining a short final vowel, is a matter of experiment; and we believe that the decisive instances of this power in Homer are very few. It is to be observed on this subject that consonants, which easily admit of reduplication or prolongation of sound, (the liquids for instance, and the letter δ), are capable of exerting some force in lengthening the preceding vowel.

The next excursus is occupied in the discussion of the rule laid down by Dawes

respecting the distinction of the subjunctive and optative moods, after the words *ἢν ὅτις*, &c. This distinction (which is maintained in its utmost extent by Mr. N.) appears to us to be clear, and well ascertained, if not universally prevalent; and, it is remarkable, that it should not have been clearly understood by Heyne. Many of the exceptions are doubtless owing to the errors of transcribers, and others are rather apparent than real.

The last excursus is employed in the consideration of the admissible hiatus after a short syllable in the middle of the third foot of an hexameter, which was first pointed out by Mr. Wakefield (*Noct. carc.* 32), and which, we presume, will, in future, be considered as sufficiently established. As we have already given a statement of this subject (*Vol. 1*), we shall not, on this occasion, repeat what we then observed.

Mr. Northmore has displayed in this publication, an elegant taste, a spirit of accurate investigation, a familiar acquaintance with the Greek language, an extensive knowledge of its authors, and of the works and observations of modern critics. We congratulate him on the proficiency which he has made in these studies, without the motives which have prompted the exertions of many other scholars; not meaning, at the same time, to insinuate that the pleasures of literature are not, in themselves, amply sufficient to compensate any labour which may be exerted in the acquisition of an ability to enjoy them. We should be happy to see his laudable example more frequently followed by other English scholars, many of whom are highly distinguished for literary attainment, while the effects of their knowledge scarcely pass beyond the narrow circle of their friends.

ART. II. *Thucydides, Græce et Latine. Accedunt Indices ex editione Wassii et Dukeri.* Vol. 6, 8vo. Edinburgh.

THIS is a very elegant, and as we can say from experience, a very accurate edition of one of the most valuable of the Greek authors. The work is introduced by a short preface, to which the initials P. E. are annexed. The editor there states, that, at the request of a bookseller, whose intention it is to publish the principal Greek historians in a similar form, he engaged in the superintendence of the present edition. There are many errors, he remarks, in the common edition of this author, which may be corrected, *currente calamo*, with little expense of labour, and without much praise of genius. The collations of manuscripts, in the editions of Hudson and Duker, present a great number of various readings, of which, those editors, themselves, have made little use, having printed their works from the second edition of Stephanus. "*Atqui Stephanus, uti solitus erat, multa de suo, partim bene, partim male, nulla fere editionum veterum codicumve scriptorum habita ratione, inexit.*" The present editor, therefore, resolved to make the Aldine edition the basis of his own, changing the reading, where required by the sense, or by the authority of manuscripts.

In the passages of this edition, which we have collated with Duker, the changes

of reading are not numerous, but usually just. Its most striking peculiarity, is the restoration (without regard to the MSS. which are, indeed, in this case, of no authority) of the Attic forms in many words, as the pluperfect tenses of the active voice, plurals of nouns, ending in *as*, &c. That the ancient Athenian orthography was in many respects different from that now prevalent in the manuscripts and editions of the Attic writers is undoubted (*Pierson Moer*, 173), and is sufficiently attested by the grammarians. Some corrupt passages of the Attic poets have also been well restored by an attention to those forms. In the restoration of them from conjecture, care should, however, be taken not to proceed a step without the support of the strongest probability.

A volume of annotations and various readings is promised at some future period. We reserve a fuller account of this edition (which we again recommend as elegant, commodious, and accurate), till the appearance of the additional volume. To the first volume is prefixed a *Notitia literaria*, extracted from Harles's edition of Fabricius; to the last are annexed two useful indices from the edition of Duker.

ART. III. *M. Tullii Ciceronis de Officiis libri tres, ex recensione Jo. Mich, et Jas. Frid. Heusingerorum. Patrum majoris. 8vo.*

THIS edition of the Offices of Cicero is abridged by Conrad Heusinger, from a larger critical edition of the same work by his father and uncle. The present English copy is only a re-impression of that which was printed in Germany, in 1783. We recommend it as a book ex-

cellently adapted for its purpose. The notes display much learning and acuteness, and particularly an intimate acquaintance with the structure and rules of the Latin language. This volume is neatly and correctly printed.

ART. IV. *Xenophontis Memorabilium, Libri iv. Usque ad lib. iii. cap. vi. interp. nova donavit, notis illustravit, et varr. lectt. auxit GULIELMUS BENWELL, M. A. Coll. SS. Trinitatis nuper socius. Textus quod defuit, cum notis et variis lectionibus, e Schneidero aliisque desumptum est. Oxonii Typis academicis. 8vo. pp. 690.*

THIS most valuable treatise of Xenophon has long been regarded as an excellent work to be placed in the hands of youth, engaged in the study of the Greek language. The general propriety of the morals, the pleasing manner in which they are inculcated, the elegance and purity of the style, peculiarly fit it for this purpose. It is highly probable also, that it is the most faithful representation extant of the Socratic method of dialogue. We are glad, therefore, to see reiterated editions of a work in which so many circumstances of recommendation are combined.

This edition was begun by the late Mr. Benwell, a fellow of Trinity college, Oxford, and appears to have been corrected by him as far as the sixth chapter of the third book, when it was interrupted by his death. The remainder of the edition, with a collection of various readings and annotations, though much less copious than in the preceding part, is taken from Schneider, and other editors.

Several editions of this treatise have appeared in our own country, though a considerable time has elapsed since the latest of them. Among these, that of Edwards contains a copious collection of various readings, from some Florentine, Roman, and Parisian MSS. which seem to form its principal merit. Some editions of great value have also appeared in Germany, particularly those of Ernesti, and several succeeding editors.

It appears to have been the plan of Mr. Benwell, in the present work, to collect all the various readings, which are extant, in different editions, or have been communicated to the public from manuscripts, and to form as pure a text as possible by the comparison of them, and, to reduce into one compilation, all

the valuable remarks of preceding editors, adding likewise his own judgment on many passages. The critical apparatus of that part of the edition which was completed by himself is, therefore, very ample, and we are happy to observe, that it has been collected and employed with skill and advantage.

A dissertation respecting the original work, and plan and object of the author in the composition of it, is prefixed by Mr. Benwell. The first part is employed in proving, in opposition to Edwards, what is immediately obvious, on inspecting the contents of the work itself, that no very scrupulous or systematic arrangement has been observed in the construction of it. (In a passage of this part of the preface (p. iii.) for Virgilianum, should be read Ovidianum.) The object of Xenophon, Mr. B. with great probability, and in conformity to the opinion of some of the ancients, supposes to have been, not that of presenting a complete and formal syllabus of Socratic doctrines, but of defending the memory of his master, against the slanders of his enemies and persecutors, by relating many of his authentic discourses, inculcating the principles of piety, of respect for the established religion of his country, of obedience to the laws of the state, of industry in the acquisition of all useful knowledge, of temperance, and of virtuous conduct in all the relations of life.

The title of the work is next discussed. It is generally cited by the ancients under the title of ἀπομνημονεύματα alone. It is doubted whether it should be thus expressed, or more fully ἀπομνημονεύματα Σωκράτους. The memorable sayings and deeds of whom? Surely we should expect this to be mentioned in the title of a work. That the ancients refer to it by

the former appellation, does not militate against this supposition, as such a mode of abbreviation is easily admissible in citation.

Some more important questions respecting the life of Xenophon, and the date of the composition of the present work, are next considered, on which we shall not enlarge, further than to observe—that the birth of Xenophon is, with probability, and in conformity to the opinion of Casaubon, assigned to about the year 430 before Christ (which, if true, overthrows the credit of the story, another account rather suspicious, which is related by Strabo, that the life of Xenophon was saved by Socrates, at the battle of Delium)—and that his memorabilia of Socrates were probably composed during his retirement at Scillus, about twelve years after the death of that philosopher, that is, about the year 388 before Christ.

The remainder of this preface is occupied in disproving the authenticity of certain epistles, which were published from the Vatican library, by Leo Allatius, and printed at Paris in the year 1637, purporting to be the epistles of Socrates, and several of his followers, among others of Xenophon. These had already been shown to be glaringly inconsistent with chronology and history, and therefore spurious, by bishop Pearson, in his *Vindiciæ epp. S. Ignat.* and by Dr. Bentley (who, at the time, was ignorant of the bishop's observations), in the dissertations appended to his examination of Pbalaris. It is therefore surprising, that they should be cited as authorities by Valckenar (not ad tit. *Xen. mem.*) One or two fresh instances of inconsistency in these epistles, are added by Mr. B. to those which had been before collected by Porson and Bentley, and some passages are pointed out in which the forger appears to have had recourse to the *Memorabilia* for his materials.

We shall now give a brief account of some parts of the edition itself. We have before remarked, that Mr. B. appears to have accumulated all the remaining authorities for the constitution of the text, and he has generally used his advantages with judgment.

P. 19. 1, 2, 12.—The words *καὶ βιωτοτρος* at the conclusion of this section (wanting in a valuable MS. and in the translation of Bessario), appear to us suspicious, and to deserve at least the note of reprehension which has been

affixed to them by some former editors.

I. 2, 56.—The emendation of Ernesti, *καλῆνοι* for *καλῆναι*, which certainly adds elegance to the sentence, is received into the text.

I. 4, 8.—The words *σπουτα γὰρ, καὶ ἀποκρινόμεναι*, condemned by Ruhnkenius, and wanting in Bessario, but defended by Mr. B. have, to us, every appearance of interpolation. They interrupt the tenor of the sentence, which proceeds most naturally without them. *Συ δε σάυτον φρονιμον τι δικαιο εχης, αλλοθι δε αιδαμον, &c.*

I. 4, 18.—The remark respecting the signification of *μονον* is just, but we do not think the conjecture of *μονη* in any degree requisite.

I. 4, 18.—We should, by all means, destroy *αυτους*, omitted by a MS. as superfluous, and detracting from the energy of the sentence.

III. 1, 10.—For *τι ου ου σπουδαται*, is well read, *τι ου; σπουδαται, &c.*

III. 1, 11.—In place of a reading evidently corrupt, *εκαστη των τακτων*, is substituted, by a very probable emendation, *εκαστη των ταξιων*. Zeunnius had received *ταγματων* from Stobæus, to which, however, *ταξιων* seems preferable.

III. 3, 14.—In this difficult passage we regard the conjecture of Hindenburgius as most probable, *δυσχεα αν*, for *δυσχεαται*, considering *τουτο* as the nominative, agreeing with *ισπικον*. To this conjecture, we do not think the change of numbers in the subsequent part of the sentence, *ει νομισται*, an objection of much weight.

III. 4, 5.—The emendation of Valckenær, *εξευσεκη τι*, for *εξευρισσεται*, is received into the text.

III. 8.—From two MSS. and Stobæus, a good reading is inserted in place of a very faulty reading of the old editions.

III. 6, 11.—The reading of MS. Vat. 1, is with Schneider, received into the text, *κλιπτιοθαι* for *και απτιοθαι*, which had been before ingeniously conjectured by Valckenær.

We insert the following annotation on one of the most difficult passages of Xenophon, entire, as it will, both in itself, interest our readers, and afford a good specimen of the manner in which this part of the work is executed.

"Sect. 26. *ὁποροῖζόμενοι*] Quomodo *ὁποροῖσιν* sit in *Καριῇ* pro *Ἰβήρῃ*, dubitari potest. Cl. Reinshius negat hunc esse *ὁποροῖσιν*, quo inclinant etiam Viri Cl. Ruhnkenius et Valckenarius ap. *Pierium* ad *Mem.* p. 381. quorum ille *ὁποροῖσιν* transponit ad *ἐλκε*; hic delet et e mar-

gine, in quo primæ sententiæ adscriptum fuerit, in textum alieno loco irrepsisse putat. Neutra *upias* nos delectat: non illa, quia Voluptas stulte factura erat, si *Εὐδαιμονίας* nomen sibi per *ἁνοσιγισμὸν* tribui diceret: non hæc, quod antiquitas lectionis satis firmatur *Suida* et *Etymologi* testimoniis, qui *διανοίας* interpretantur. Sane vulgo *ἁνοσιγισμὸς* est de rebus tristibus ac deterioribus, quarum tristitia aut seditas mitigatur verbi bonitate; nec hoc testimoniis indiget. At *ἁνοσιγισμὸς* etiam dictum in contrario, ut *res bona verbo torqueretur ad invidiam, contemptum*, &c. Bonus, ut opinor, auctor est *Aristot.* *Rhet.* iii. qui *ἁνοσιγισμὸν* dicit, *ἃς διατίθεται καὶ τὸ κατὸν καὶ τὸ ἀγαθόν* &c. ubi videndus *P. Victorius* p. m. 569. Similiter ironia, quæ vulgo utitur verbo bono ut intelligatur contrarium, etiam malo utitur, ut intelligatur contrarium. *Aquila* de Figuris n. 7. *Toupius* autem *Animadv.* ad *Suid.* (p. 524. ed. Lip.) addit *μὴ*. Stulta utique Voluptas sit, si hoc dicat ipsa. *Ern.* Cum infantibus dum colloquimur, rerum omnium nomina forma diminutiva efferre solemus, veluti *ἰανθίδιον*, *παισίδιον* et similia, ut recte animadvertit *Timæus* in *Glossis Platoniciis*. Hæc est prima fere verbi notio. Forte morem etiam eum, quem servamus in loquendo cum infantibus, ut sermonem eorum balbutiendo et literas duriores evitando imitemur, Græci dixerunt *ἁνοσιγισμὸν*. Funt hæc omnia, ut infantibus blandiamur. Si quis igitur pater pueri sui nævum aut aliquod corporis vitium honestiore nomine aut similitudine appellatum occultaverit, hoc idem Græce *ἁνοσιγισμὸν* dicunt. Item si pueri puellave amatæ nævum aliquem aut vitium honesto vocabulo significando abscondere studemus; quod inter amicos ut faciamus, etiam suadet *Horatius* *Serm.* l. iii. 43. Cf. *P. ato* de Republ. V. cujus locum expressit *Lucretius* IV. 1154. et *Plutarchus* de Discrimine Adulatoris sect. 139. et 146, *Schneid.* Locum hunc omnium fere, qui apud *Xenoph.*

obviam sunt, vexatissimum, propositis virorum doctor. observatt. in medio relinquendum duxi. Sane verbum *ἁνοσιγισμὸς* in locis omnibus, qui usquam citantur, significat *rem deteriore boniore nomine appellare*, et vereor ut sensum contrarium, nempe *diatitit, obtricare*, capere possit. Nam locus ille *Aristotelis*, quem citavit *Ernestus*, non nisi de nominibus diminutivis intelligendus est, ut constat ab exemplis, quæ ipse philosophus mox adducit, sc. *ἄλλῃ μὲν χερσίν, χερσιδάριον ἄλλῃ δ' ἱματίῳ, ἱματιδάριον ἄλλῃ δὲ λοιδορίας, λοιδοριμάντιον, καὶ νοσημάντιον*. Hæc monuit *Cl. Rubenkens* ad *Timæi Lex.* *Plat.* in voc. ubi de duplici *ἁνοσιγισμῷ*, altero in verbis, altero in sententia, luculentissime disseruit. Vid. ed. post. Lugd. Bat. 1789. Eidem viro doctissimo una cum *Valkenari* et *Toupi* locus *Xenoph.* de mendo suspectus est. Cum *Valkenari* autem verbum *ἁνοσιγισμὸν* e textu ejiciendum esse censet eruditus *Briannus* in criticis observationibus in *Edwards.* Ed. *Xen. Monthly Rev.* qui arbitrat locum corruptum esse ante *Suidam* et *Etymologici* Mag. auctorem. Præter scriptores, qui supra memorantur, adeat lector *Thom. Mag.* et *Heych.* in v.

This edition of the *Memorabilia*, may be considered as the most useful of those which have yet appeared. It contains a compendium of former editions, as well as many useful observations from the editor himself. Like many other productions of the Oxford press, it is printed in a very elegant and accurate manner. A new Latin version is added by Mr. Benwell, and an Index Græcitatibus concludes the work.

TRANSLATIONS.

ART. V. *The Satires of Decimus Junius Juvenalis, translated into English Verse.* By the Rev. WILLIAM HEATH MARSH, A. M. 8vo. pp. 238.

TWO previous translations of this great poet (those of Rhodes and Gifford) have within a short space of time appeared before the English public. A third is now offered to their attention.

"In venturing to appear before the tribunal of the public, as a translator of Juvenal, in which character I have been so recently anticipated, I judge it necessary to state, that I had never seen the rival version of Mr. Gifford till my own was entirely completed. Truth requires of me this avowal, that the present publication may not be imputed to improper motives, by which I was never actuated. For though I have not the presumption to suppose that I possess the power to injure an author of such established reputation, yet I would not be unjustly suspected of this attempt; since the intention is the same whether the hostile spear be launched with the firm vigour of Achilles, or feebly thrown by the palsied hand of Priam. I can have nowish, nor is it expected from me, to enter into a comparison of the respective me-

rits of these translations, any farther than to state, that there appears (with the exception of a few accidental coincidences of no importance) a sufficient difference in the general manner between Mr. Gifford's version and mine, to plead my excuse in hazarding the present publication."

From the perusal of this publication, we cannot doubt that Mr. Marsh is a scholar of an elegant and classical taste. Many individual passages of his translation are well rendered; yet as a whole we feel it to be deficient in that energy which should characterize the translator of Juvenal. The passages which Mr. Marsh appears to us to be best qualified for translating, are the beautiful poetical reflections and descriptions which are occasionally interspersed with the splendid declamation and powerful invective of the great satirist; he has been less successful in translating into his version the rapid and commanding eloquence of the

original. The want of eminent success in the translation of Juvenal is indeed no disgraceful failure; we know few authors to whom it is so difficult to render justice.

Mr. Marsh seems to have aimed at closeness of translation. Few modern versions therefore, when compared with the originals, are probably comprized within so small a number of lines. Yet to this solicitude Mr. Marsh appears to us to have sometimes sacrificed perspicuity, and sometimes spirit.

The following passage is the introduction of the tenth satire.

"Search thro' th' extended world from east
to west,

How few with real happiness are bless'd;
How few the cloud of error can remove,
With judgment this reject, or that approve.
For when does Reason guide our hopes or fears?

What plan, at first successful, but appears
Pregnant with evil, as we still proceed,
And wakes repentance for th' accomplished
deed?

Consenting gods have oft destruction brought,
And ruin'd thousands by the gifts they sought.
In every state we anxiously pursue,
And still mistake fictitious bliss for true.

What numbers boasting the resistless force
Of eloquence, arrested in their course,
Are doom'd to perish? Milo mourn'd his end,
Proud of his strength, who strove tough oaks
to rend.

But most their wretched destiny bemoan,
Whom sordid avarice enslaves alone;
At whose heap'd coffers others' riches fail,
As yields the dolphin to the British whale.

"When cruel Nero Rome's dread sceptre
sway'd,

Fierce bands of soldiers frequent visits paid
To wealthy nobles, guarding ev'ry door;
But safe from such intruders dwelt the poor.

"Tho' small thy treasure, and deep shades
of night

Conceal thy movements, trembling with af-
fright

Would ev'ry breeze assail thy startled ear,
And dancing shadows petrify with fear;
While the blithe beggar dreads no midnight
foes,

But tunes his simple carol as he goes.

"Yet still we weary heaven with this re-
quest,

"Increase our wealth, ye gods! above the
rest."

But poison lurks not in the homely cup:
From earthen ware securely we may sup:
Then must we justly fear, when gen'rous
wine

Sparkles in gold, where flaming rubies shine."

For the sake of those readers who may
be desirous of comparing the works of

Mr. Gifford and Mr. Marsh, we have
selected the following extract, the cor-
respondent passage to which we have
quoted from the translation of the for-
mer gentleman, in the first volume of this
Review.

"But think'st thou, those escape, nor rue
the deed,

Whom fell remorse devours, who hourly
bleed

Beneath such scorpion-stings as mock con-
troul,

Where wounded conscience harrows up the
soul?

Severer torments must the wretch pursue,
Than Radamanthus, or Cæditiüs knew,
Who, haunted day and night, can find no
rest,

But bears th'upbraiding witness in his breast.

"The Pythian oracle gave this reply
To Glaucus, wav'ring if he should deny
His trust, and by an oath the fraud defend—
"Desist; dread punishment thy doubts shall
end."

For he inquir'd how best he might proceed,
And if Apollo would advise the deed.

Thus honest, not from love of truth, but fear
Of ill, he found this sentence, tho' severe,
Too true; himself, babes, family, and all,
Tho' noble, perish'd in one common fall.

This fate attends the first assaults of sin;
For he, who deeply meditates within
On guilt, already has his crime begun.

"But what if really finish'd? what if done?"

Perpetual horror must the villain feel,
Perpetual dread; disgusted with each meal,
No relish know, while he pretends to eat,
And spills the goblets treasure at his feet.

Fine rich old Alban wine offends his taste;
With better still the sumptuous board is
grac'd;

Yet such harsh wrinkles o'er his temples
low'r,

As tho' this luscious beverage were sour.
Should care at night allow some short repose,

And sleep to rest his quiv'ring limbs compose,
The temple, and the violated shrine

Stalk by in dreams, and threaten wrath di-
vine;

And, worst of all, while bath'd in sweat he lies,
The dreadful image glares before his eyes,

Of monstrous height, surpassing human
mould,

And bids the palid wretch the whole sad
truth unfold.

"Yes, these are they who fear the light-
ning's blast,

Who shiver ere the first faint peal be past;
Nor judge these bolts by casual tempests
driv'n,

But dread th' avenging ministers of heav'n.
Escap'd this danger, with new grief perplex'd,

They fear, because deferred, still more the
next.

But should a fever fire each throbbing vein,
And sleep be banish'd by excess of pain;

They think this dreadful scourge by heav'n
was sent,

That they too justly suffer punishment;
That with diseases gods inflict the blow,
And hurl those weapons at inankind below.
To sacrifice a lamb, or to appease
Their Lares by a crested cock, and ease
Thus hope to gain, alas! they never dare.
What feels the sick'ning sinner but despair?
What victim does not more deserve to live?
What to the bad consistency can give?
Dauntless at first, they sin without controul;
Then conscience murmurs, and alarms the
soul:

But nature soon, incapable of change,
Recurr to her old habits, and will range
The same polluted course. Who ever found
That vice could be restrain'd in any bound?
When did the cheek, that once forgot to glow
With innocence, its second crimson know?
Whom ever did a single crime suffice?"

In a few passages, Mr. Marsh appears
not to have given the exact sense of his
original, for instance

—————"I should be loath
To credit this, tho' sanctioned by an oath."
Page 52.

This passage is addressed to the para-
site of the fifth satire; and the poet tells
him, that if he can submit to such dis-
grace, he should be unwilling to admit
his testimony, though sanctioned by an
oath.

"Hence, when we supplicate the gods, is
plain,
Their gifts are oft pernicious, always vain."
Page 144.

A sentiment is here attributed to the
poet, though we are persuaded very un-
intentionally, which almost touches on
impiety. The purport of the poet's re-
mark is this, that the objects of petitions
are often either superfluous or perni-
cious, for the sake of which it is custo-
mary to offer adoration to the gods. Ru-
perti proposes in this passage to read
"mos" for "fas;" we think however
that in this connection fas may bear the
same sense; the received practice of

men, which they regard as justifiable
and consistent with piety.

"Pity again—a different danger hear,
Tho' scenes like these demand the frequent
tear;
A dreadful trial this, tho' fully known
To many, as by votive habits shown."
Page 178.

We take this opportunity of observing,
that in all the editions of Juvenal which
we have seen, this passage appears to us
to be rendered unintelligible by the want
of a proper punctuation. The poet first
relates the unusual part of the disaster of
his friend, that the ship in which he
sailed should be involved in flames by
the stroke of an electric meteor in the
midst of a tempest. After this danger
he describes the usual concomitant cir-
cumstances of a storm, the agitation of
the ship, the terror of the mariners, &c.
"Now ensues another kind of danger;
hear, and again exercise your pity,
though what I am going to relate is a
dreadful indeed, but usual circumstance
of such calamities."

—————"Quoniam sint cætera, sortis,
Ejusdem pars dira quidem, sed cognita
multis."—xii. 25.

The common punctuation is the fol-
lowing,

—————"Quoniam sint cætera sortis
Ejusdem: pars dira quidem, sed cognita
multis."

In the best editions of some of the
best authors are passages which, as they
now stand, are unintelligible, but require
only a better punctuation to render them
plain. Thus in the following passage of
Livy: *Omne inde tempus suspensus. ita
tenuit animos usque ad lucem alteram,
ut identidem jam in urbem futuris vide-
retur impetus primo adventu, quo acces-
serant ad urbem, (v. 99) where we
should most probably read——— fu-
turis. videretur impetus; primò, adventu,
&c.——— deinde,——— tum,——— pos-
tremò.*

ART. VI. *Translations from the Greek, viz. Aristotle's Synopsis of the Virtues and Vices, the Similitudes of Demophilus, the golden Sentences of Democritus, and the pythagoric Symbols, with the Explanations of Jamblicus. By W. BRIDGEMAN, F. L. S. To which are added the pythagoric Sentences of Demophilus. By Mr. THOMAS TAYLOR. 8vo. pp. 135.*

THE originals of these pieces are, a
tract entitled a Synopsis of the Virtues
and Vices, printed with the works of
Aristotle; two collections of apophthegms

bearing the names of Demophilus and
Democrates, extant in Gale's Collection
of Opuscula; and some obscure, fanciful
and mystic sayings, called Pythagoris

symbols, preserved and illustrated by Jamblichus in his *Protrepticon*, annexed to the edition of his life of Pythagoras, printed at Heidelberg in 1598, in *Officinâ Commelinâ*. These pieces are but of little value; the translation, in those passages in which we have compared it with the originals, in general does sufficient justice to them.

The following is a Pythagoric symbol, with its comment.

SYMBOL 25.

“Behold not yourself in a mirror by the light of a lamp.

EXPLANATION.

“This symbol advises us in a more Pythagoric manner to philosophize, not betaking ourselves to the imaginations belonging to the senses, which produce indeed a certain light about our apprehensions of things; but this light resembles that of a lamp, and is neither natural nor true. It admonishes us,

therefore, rather to betake ourselves to scientific conceptions about intellectual objects, from which a most splendid and stable purity is produced about the eye of the soul, resulting from intellectual conceptions and intelligibles, and the contemplation about these, and not from corporeal and sensible natures. For we have frequently shown that these are in a continual flux and mutation, and do not in any manner subsist stably and similar to themselves, so as to sustain a firm and scientific apprehension and knowledge in the same manner as the intellectual vision.”

A singular bibliographical and geographical error is committed in the preface (page xiii.) where a work is said to be published at *Comelin*, the name of a printer being converted into that of a place. To these translations by Mr. Bridgeman are annexed the Pythagoric sentences of Demophilus by Mr. Thomas Taylor.

ART. VII. *The Works of Plato, viz. his fifty-five Dialogues and twelve Epistles; translated from the Greek: nine of the Dialogues by the late FLOYER SYDENHAM, and the Remainder by THOMAS TAYLOR, with copious Notes.* 4to. 5 vols.

GREECE is a country which must continue through all ages to command the admiration of mankind. Though scarcely surpassing in extent of territory the single provinces of many modern kingdoms, the exploits of its inhabitants still remain the theme of our celebration and applause, and, what constitutes a more powerful and interesting claim upon our notice, its literature is in a great degree the parent of our own. That Greece was not absolutely the birth-place of the sciences, is indeed highly probable. All beyond is however lost in conjecture and uncertainty; and from whatever country Greece may have received the seeds of knowledge, the culture and produce is her own, of which Europe, to this day, receives the beneficial effects.

The Roman literature, in most of its departments, is little more than a translation of the Greek.

“Græcia capta ferum cepit victorem, et artes

Intulit agresti Latio;”

nor was a Roman able to give much better advice to his countrymen, than

“Exemplaria Græca
Nocturnâ versate manu, versate diurnâ.”

Even the fierce Saracens, issuing from their unknown wilds upon an astonished world, after they had obtained a short

Ann. Rev. Vol. III.

settlement in climates happier than their own, felt the charms of philosophy, if not of the muses, and translated into their barbarous idiom many of those works of Grecian science, the value of which the degenerate posterity of illustrious ancestors was scarcely able to appreciate or improve. Through the corrupted channels of Arabic translation, the nations of the west received the first influx of returning knowledge, till at length the fountains themselves became happily accessible.

The first race of scholars was employed in translating into Latin those works of the Grecian masters, which in their original languages were yet accessible only to the few. As modern dialects were improved by culture, and advanced in estimation, translations into these tongues from both the learned languages became frequent, and were of great importance in their effects, both as contributing to the diffusion of knowledge, and the communication of elegance, copiousness, and precision of style.

Though these reasons for translation from the languages of the Greeks and Romans have in a great measure ceased to operate (the elements of Euclid being almost the only work of their science which still retains its authority, and modern languages seeming to have re-

ceived nearly the whole of that improvement which they are capable of deriving from the imitation of the ancient), yet such is still the importance of the ancient literature and history, that it cannot but be desirable that every valuable work in which they are recorded, should have its representative in those languages of modern Europe, which are most cultivated, and which possess the most extensive circulation. An Italian printer once formed the project of collecting as many translations of the Greek and Roman historians as were extant in his time, and of procuring translations of the rest, many of which he published under the whimsical title of *Collana Greca* and *Collana Latina*. A similar principle might properly be extended to the other departments of learning.

In conformity with these ideas, it was with pleasure that we saw announced for publication a translation of the entire works of Plato. The intrinsic merit of this writer must be acknowledged to be great. Amidst the wildness of many of his speculations, he abounds with enlarged and ingenious conceptions, and the beauties of his style are of the highest order: *ille non intelligendi solum, sed etiam dicendi gravissimus auctor et magister Plato*, says the great Roman orator. In the former of these characters, he stands at the head of a long line of philosophers, who have often perhaps corrupted the dictates of their master; in the latter, he is the archetype of many subsequent Greek writers, who abound in imitations of his style, and plagiarisms of his expressions. "*Ex illis heroibus, quatuor inprimis posterior ætas et admirata est, et ad imitationem vocavit, Homerum, Thucydidem, Platonem, et Demosthenem. — Quo magis autem Plato ceteros ingenio, scriptorumque multitudine vicit, eo plures nactus est imitatores.*" Ruhnken. præf. Tim. xxi.

Some may perhaps be disposed to consider it as singularly fortunate for the fame of Plato, that the translation of his works into English has been undertaken by a professed admirer of his doctrines, who has devoted a great part of a laborious life to the investigation of them, and who is almost the only individual of a degenerate age, as he must consider it, who retains the true Platonic enthusiasm. How far this circumstance has operated favourably on the present translation, we are however doubtful, since Mr. Taylor appears rather to have derived his philosophical ideas from the later Platonists, than from

Plato himself, bending, and sometimes, we fear, forcing, as is no uncommon case, the words of the master to an agreement with the interpretations and hypotheses of the scholars. Another circumstance which does not augur very favourably for his accuracy, is the frequency of the censures which he bestows upon the verbalists, in which class of scholars Ruhnkenius himself is placed. We must however allow Mr. Taylor to be a most industrious student, and as such, his work is deserving of our respectful attention.

This arduous undertaking appears to have been conducted under the auspices of the duke of Norfolk, who has thus set an example of munificence in literary patronage, (we do not mean that patronage which should foster indolence, but that which may enable honourable industry to carry useful projects into execution,) well worthy the imitation of the rich and great. Mr. Taylor therefore prefixes to his work a dedication of it to that nobleman, in which he gratefully acknowledges the patronage bestowed by him on the first English translation of Plato, to exceed that which was granted by the Medicean family, the Mæcenates of their day, to the labours of Ficinus, the first translator of Plato into Latin.

The first extract which we shall lay before our readers, is a curious passage in the second book of the Republic, which perhaps contains the earliest statement extant of the doctrine of the division of labour.

"A city, then, said I, as I imagine, takes its rise from this, that none of us happens to be self-sufficient, but is indigent of many things: or, do you imagine there is any other origin of building a city? None other, said he. Thus, then, one taking in one person for one indigence, and another for another; as they stand in need of many things, they assemble into one habitation, many companions, and assistants; and to this joint-habitation we give the name city, do we not? Certainly. And they mutually exchange with one another, each judging that, if he either gives or takes in exchange, it will be for his advantage. Certainly. Come then, said I, let us, in our discourse, make a city from the beginning. And, it seems, our indigence has made it. Why not? But the first and greatest of wants is the preparation of food, in order to subsist and live. By all means. The second is of lodging. The third of clothing; and such like. It is so. But come, said I, how shall the city be able to make so great a provision? Shall not one be a husbandman, another a mason, some other a weaver? or shall we add to them a shoemaker or some other of those who ni-

nister to the necessities of the body? Certainly. So that the most indigent city might consist of four or five men? It seems so. But what now? must each of those do his work for them all in common? As, the husbandman, being one, shall he prepare food for four; and consume quadruple time, and labour, in preparing food, and sharing it with others? or, neglecting them, shall he for himself alone make the fourth part of this food, in the fourth part of the time? and, of the other three parts of time, shall he employ one in the preparation of a house, the other in that of clothing, the other of shoes, and not give himself trouble in sharing with others, but do his own affairs by himself?

"Adimantus said, And probably, Socrates, this way is more easy than the other. No, certainly, said I; it were absurd. For, whilst you are speaking, I consider that we are born not perfectly resembling one another, but differing in disposition; one being fitted for doing one thing, and another for doing another: does it not seem so to you? It does. But, what now? Whether will a man do better, if, being one, he works in many arts, or in one? When in one, said he. But this I imagine is also plain; that if one miss the season of any work, it is ruined. That is plain. For, I imagine, the work will not wait upon the leisure of the workman; but of necessity the workman must attend close upon the work, and not in the way of a by-job. Of necessity. And hence it appears, that more will be done, and better, and with greater ease, when every one does but one thing, according to their genius, and in proper season, and freed from other things. Most certainly, said he. But we need certainly, Adimantus, more citizens than four, for those provisions we mentioned: for the husbandman, it would seem, will not make a plough for himself, if it is to be handsome; nor yet a spade, nor other instruments of agriculture: as little will the mason; for he, likewise, needs many things: and in the same way, the weaver and the shoemaker also. Is it not so? True. Joiners, then, and smiths, and other such workmen, being admitted into our little city, make it throng. Certainly. But it would be no very great matter, neither, if we did not give them neighbours likewise, and shepherds, and those other herdsmen; in order that both the husbandmen may have oxen for ploughing, and that the masons, with the help of the husbandmen, may use the cattle for their carriages: and that the weavers likewise, and the shoemakers, may have hides and wool. Nor yet, said he, would it be a very small city, having all these. But, said I, it is almost impossible to set down such a city in any such place as that it shall need no importations. It is impossible. It will then certainly want others still, who may import from another state what it needs. It will want them. And surely this service would be empty, if it carry out nothing which these

want, from whom they import what they need themselves. It goes out empty in such a case, does it not? To me it seems so. But the city ought not only to make what is sufficient for itself; but such things, and so much also, as may answer for those things which they need. It ought. Our city, then, certainly wants a great many more husbandmen and other workmen? A great many more. And other servants besides, to import and export the several things; and these are merchants, are they not? Yes. We shall then want merchants likewise? Yes, indeed. And if the merchandize is by sea, it will want many others; such as are skilful in sea affairs. Many others truly. But what as to the city within itself? How will they exchange with one another the things which they have each of them worked; and for the sake of which, making a community, they have built a city? It is plain, said he, in selling and buying. Hence we must have a forum, and money, as a symbol, for the sake of exchange. Certainly.

"If now the husbandman, or any other workman, bring any of his work to the forum, but come not at the same time with those who want to make exchange with him, must he not, desisting from his work, sit idly in the forum? By no means, said he. But there are some who, observing this, set themselves to this service; and, in well-regulated cities, they are mostly such as are weakest in their body, and unfit to do any other work. There they are to attend about the forum, to give money in exchange for such things as any may want to sell; and things in exchange for money to such as want to buy. This indigence, said I, procures our city a race of shopkeepers; for, do not we call shopkeepers, those who, fixed in the forum, serve both in selling and buying? but such as travel to other cities we call merchants. Certainly.

"There are still, as I imagine, certain other ministers, who, though unfit to serve the public in things which require understanding, have yet strength of body sufficient for labour, who, selling the use of their strength, and calling the reward of it hire, are called, as I imagine, hirelings: Are they not? Yes, indeed. Hirelings then are, it seems, the complement of the city? It seems so. Has our city now, Adimantus, already so increased upon us as to be complete? Perhaps."

The following is the translation of the concluding passage of the *Phædo*, exhibiting the interesting description of the death of one of the most remarkable men who have adorned the annals of Pagan philosophy.

"But for the sake of these particulars which we have related, we should undertake every thing, Simmias, that we may participate of virtue and prudence in the present

life. For the reward is beautiful, and the hope mighty. To affirm, indeed, that these things subsist exactly as I have described them, is not the province of a man endowed with intellect. But to assert that either these or certain particulars of this kind take place, with respect to our souls and their habitations—since our soul appears to be immortal—this is, I think, both becoming, and deserves to be hazarded by him who believes in its reality. For the danger is beautiful; and it is necessary to allure ourselves with things of this kind, as with enchantments: and, on this account, I produced the fable which you have just now heard me relate. But for the sake of these, it is proper that the man should be confident about his soul, who in the present life bidding farewell to those pleasures which regard the body and its ornaments, as thing foreign from his nature, has earnestly applied himself to discipline, as a thing of far greater consequence; and who having adorned his soul not with a foreign but its own proper ornament, viz. with temperance and justice, fortitude, liberty, and truth, expects a migration to Hades, as one who is ready to depart, whenever he shall be called upon by fate. You, therefore, (says he) Simmias and Cebes, and the rest who are here assembled, will each depart in some period of time posterior to the present; but

“ Me now calling, Fate demands :
(as some tragic poet would say) and it is almost time that I should betake myself to the bath. For it appears to me better to wash myself before I drink the poison, and not to trouble the women with washing my dead body.

“ When, therefore, he had thus spoken,—Be it so, Socrates (says Crito) : but what orders do you leave to these who are present, or to myself, or respecting your children, or any thing else, in the execution of which we can particularly oblige you? None such as are new (says he) Crito, but that which I have always said to you : that if you take care of yourselves, you will always perform in whatsoever you do that which is acceptable to myself, to my family, and to your own selves, though you should not promise me any thing at present. But if you neglect yourselves, and are unwilling to live according to what has been now and formerly said, as vestiges of direction in your course, you will accomplish nothing, though you should now promise many things, and in a very vehement manner. We shall take care, therefore (says Crito), to act as you desire. But how would you be buried? Just as you please (says he), if you can but catch me, and I do not elude your pursuit. And at the same time gently laughing, and addressing himself to us, I cannot persuade Crito (says he) my friends, that I am that Socrates who now disputes with you, and methodizes every part of the discourse; but he thinks that I am he whom he will shortly behold dead, and asks how I ought to be buried. But all that long discourse

which some time since I addressed to you, in which I asserted that after I had drunk the poison, I should no longer remain with you, but should depart to certain felicities of the blessed, this I seem to have declared to him in vain, though it was undertaken to console both you and myself. Promise, therefore, (says he) for me to Crito, just the contrary of what he promised to my judges. For he promised that I should not run away; but do you engage that when I die I shall not stay with you, but shall depart and entirely leave you; that Crito may more easily bear this separation, and may not be afflicted when he sees my body either burnt or buried, as if I suffered some dreadful misfortune; and that he may not say at my interment, that Socrates is laid out, or is carried out, or is buried. For be well assured of this (says he) excellent Crito, that when we do not speak in a becoming manner, we are not only culpable with respect to our speech, but likewise affect our souls with a certain evil. But it is proper to be confident, and to say that my body will be buried, and in such a manner as is pleasing to you, and which you think is most agreeable to our laws.

“ When he had thus spoken, he rose, and went into a certain room, that he might wash himself, and Crito followed him: but he ordered us to wait for him. We waited, therefore, accordingly, discoursing over and reviewing among ourselves what had been said; and sometimes speaking about his death, how great a calamity it would be to us; and sincerely thinking that we, like those who are deprived of their father, should pass the rest of our life in the condition of orphans. But when he had washed himself, his sons were brought to him (for he had two little ones, and one considerably advanced in age) and the women belonging to his family likewise came in to him: but when he had spoken to them before Crito, and had left them such injunctions as he thought proper, he ordered the boys and women to depart: and he himself returned to us. And it was now near the setting of the sun: for he had been absent a long time in the bathing-room. But when he came in from washing, he sat down; and did not speak much afterwards. For then the servant of the eleven magistrates came in, and standing near him, I do not perceive that in you, Socrates, says he, which I have taken notice of in others; I mean that they are angry with me, and curse me, when, being compelled by the magistrates, I announce to them that they must drink the poison. But, on the contrary, I have found you at the present time to be the most generous, mild, and the best of all the men that ever came into this place: and, therefore, I am well convinced that you are not angry with me, but with the authors of your present condition. You know those whom I allude to. Now, therefore, (for you know what I came to tell you) farewell, and endeavour to bear this

necessity as easily as possible. And at the same time bursting into tears, and turning himself away, he departed. But Socrates looking after him, And thou too (says he) farewell; and we shall take care to act as you advise. And at the same time turning to us, How courteous (says he) is the behaviour of that man! During the whole time of my abode here, he has visited and often conversed with me, and proved himself to be the best of men; and now how generously he weeps on my account! But let us obey him, Crito, and let some one bring the poison, if it is bruised; but if not, let the man whose business it is bruise it himself. But Socrates (says Crito) I think that the sun still hangs over the mountains, and is not yet set. And at the same time I have known others who have drunk the poison very late, after it was announced to them; who have supped, and drunk abundantly; and who have enjoyed the objects of their love. Therefore, do not be in such haste, for there is yet time enough. Upon this Socrates replied, Such men, Crito, act with great propriety in the manner you have described (for they think to derive some advantage by so doing), and I also with great propriety shall not act in this manner. For I do not think I shall gain any thing by drinking it later, except becoming ridiculous to myself through desiring to live, and being sparing of life when nothing of it any longer remains. Go, then (says he) be persuaded, and comply with my request.

"Then Crito, hearing this, gave the sign to the boy that stood near him. And the boy departing, and having staid for some time, came, bringing with him the person that was to administer the poison, and who brought it properly prepared in a cup. But Socrates, beholding the man—It is well, my friend (says he); but what is proper to do with it? for you are knowing in these affairs. You have nothing else to do (says he) but when you have drunk it to walk about, till a heaviness takes place in your legs; and afterwards lie down; this is the manner in which you should act. And at the same time he extended the cup to Socrates. But Socrates received it from him, and indeed, Echecrates, with great cheerfulness; neither trembling, nor suffering any alteration for the worse in his colour or countenance: but, as he was accustomed to do, beholding the man with a bull-like aspect, What say you (says he) respecting this potion? Is it lawful to make a libation of it, or not? We only bruise (says he), Socrates, as much as we think sufficient for the purpose. I understand you, (says he); but it is certainly both lawful and proper to pray to the gods, that my departure from hence thither may be attended with prosperous fortune; which I entreat them to grant may be the case. And at the same time ending his discourse, he drank the poison with exceeding facility and alacrity. And thus far, indeed, the greater part of us were tolerably well able to refrain from weeping: but when

we saw him drinking, and that he had drunk it, we could no longer restrain our tears. But from me, indeed, notwithstanding the violence which I employed in checking them, they flowed abundantly; so that, covering myself with my mantle, I deplored my misfortune. I did not indeed weep for him, but for my own fortune; considering what an associate I should be deprived of. But Crito, who was not able to restrain his tears, was compelled to rise before me. And Apollodorus, who during the whole time prior to this had not ceased from weeping, then wept aloud with great bitterness; so that he infected all who were present, except Socrates. But Socrates, upon seeing this, exclaimed—What are you doing, excellent men? For, indeed, I principally sent away the women, lest they should produce a disturbance of this kind. For I have heard that it is proper to die joyfully, and with propitious omens. Be quiet, therefore, and summon fortitude to your assistance. When we heard this we blushed, and restrained our tears. But he, when he found during his walking that his legs felt heavy, and had told us so, laid himself down in a supine position. For the man had ordered him so to do. And at the same time he who gave him the poison, touching him at intervals, considered his feet and legs, and, after he had vehemently pressed his foot, he asked him if he felt it. But Socrates answered he did not. And after this he again pressed his thighs: and thus ascending with his hand, he shewed us that he was cold and stiff. And Socrates also touched himself, and said, that when the poison reached his heart, he should then leave us. But now his lower belly was almost cold; when uncovering himself (for he was covered) he said (which were his last words), Crito, we owe a cock to Asclepius. Discharge this debt, therefore, for me, and do not neglect it. It shall be done (says Crito); but consider whether you have any other commands. To this enquiry of Crito he made no reply; but shortly after moved himself, and the man covered him. And Socrates fixed his eyes; which when Crito perceived, he closed his mouth and eyes. This, Echecrates, was the end of our associate; a man, as it appears to me, the best of those whom we were acquainted with at that time, and, besides this, the most prudent and just."

Fidelity is the first requisite of a translator. For the purpose of estimating the merit of Mr. Taylor's performance, in this respect, we have formed a close comparison of the translation of the *Phædo* with the original; which dialogue we have selected, not from any knowledge that the version of it is executed with a greater or less degree of accuracy than that of the rest, but because it is one of the most popular and interesting of Pla-

to's works. The result of this examination we shall here lay before our readers.

P. 255. "And, indeed, in the former part of my life, I considered that this dream persuaded and exhorted me respecting what I should do, in the same manner as those in the races are exhorted; for, by persuading me to exercise music, it signified that I should labour in philosophy, which is the greatest music."

The original of this passage stands thus:

Και γὰρ ἐν γὰρ τῷ προσδεν χρόνῳ, ὅπερ ἐπράττον, τούτο ὑπελαμβάνον αὐτοὶ καὶ παρακινεῖσθαι τε καὶ ἐπικινεῖν, ὡς περ οἱ τοῖς θεοῖσι διακινουμένοι· καὶ ἐμοὶ οὕτω τὸ ἐνυπνιον, ὅπερ ἐπράττον, τούτο ἐπικινεῖν, μουσικὴν ποιεῖν, ὡς φιλοσοφίας μὲν οὐσῆς μεγίστης μουσικῆς, ἐμοὶ δὲ τούτο πρᾶττοντος. Phæd. 164. ed. Forst.

A literal translation of these lines is the following, by which it will appear how far, in this instance, Mr. Taylor has deviated from accuracy. "And formerly, indeed, I suppose that it persuaded and exhorted me to persevere in that in which I was already engaged, like the spectators, who give continued exhortations to those who are engaged in the race; that thus the vision prompted me to that in which I was already employed, the exercise of music, philosophy being the chief music, and my exertions being already engaged in it." The reader need not be reminded of the extensive sense in which the word music was employed by the ancient Greeks.

P. 261. "Though perhaps it may seem wonderful to you, that it would be better for those men to die, in whom it would be unholy to benefit themselves by suicide, and who ought to expect some other as a benefactor on this occasion. 'Οἷς δὲ βελτίον τεθναίνει, θάνατον ἰσως σοὶ φαίνεται, εἰ τούτοις τοῖς ἀνθρώποις μᾶλλον αὐτοὺς ἑαυτοὺς εὖ ποιεῖν, ἀλλ' ἄλλον δὲ περιμένειν εὐεργετην. 166. The meaning of this very plain sentence is the following: "But with respect to those to whom death would be advantageous, it perhaps appears wonderful to you, that it should be an act of impiety in such men, to confer that benefit on themselves; and that it is their duty to await another benefactor."

P. 262. "For such a one will by no means think that he shall be better taken care of when he becomes free." In the original, "for he will not think that he shall be able to take better care of himself," &c.

P. 263. "But let us first consider what that is which it appears to me Crito some time since was desirous of saying:" more accurately, "which Crito appears to me to have been for some time desirous of saying."

Ibid. "For he says, that those who dispute become too much heated, and that nothing of this kind ought to be introduced with the poison, since those who do not observe this caution are sometimes obliged to drink the poison twice or thrice. δεῖν δὲ οὐδὲν τοιοῦτον προσφέρειν τῷ φαρμάκῳ. That it is not right to bring such a state of body to the poison."

P. 264. Not actively, "have concealed from others," but, "have not been observed by others."

269. "For all wars arise through the possession of wealth;" properly, "on account of the possession of wealth," or for the purpose of acquiring it.

271. "For if they are on all sides enemies to the body,"—"for if they are in every respect," &c.

273. "Such virtue does not merit to be called even a shadowy description—

μη σκιαγραφία τις ἢ τοιαυτὴ ἀρετὴ. Consider whether such virtue be not merely a shadowy outline." *οὐκ* is understood. Bos, Ellips. Græc. 281.

P. 276. "But whether or not my exertions will be properly directed, and whether I shall accomplish any thing when I arrive thither, I shall clearly know, very shortly, if divinity pleases, as it appears to me." This sentence is translated with singular inaccuracy. The original is, καὶ δεοῦ ὡς προϋπομνηθῆναι, καὶ τι νηυσάμεν, ἐκεῖσε ἐλθόντες τὸ σαφὲς εἰσομεῖσθαι, ἐὰν θεὸς ἐθέλῃ, ὀλίγον ὕστερον, ὡς ἐμοὶ δοκεῖ.

187. But whether my exertions have been properly directed, and whether I have accomplished any thing, I shall clearly know very shortly, when I arrive thither, if divinity pleases, as it appears to me."

P. 280. "But just as if there should be such a thing as falling asleep, without recurring to a vigilant state, generated from a sleepy condition, you know that

all things would at length exhibit the delusions of Endymion, and would nowhere present themselves to the view, because every thing else would suffer the same as happened to him, viz. would be laid asleep. *ληρον τον Ενδυμιωνα αποδειξει.* would make the sleep of Endymion appear but a trifle."

P. 285. "Must we not therefore confess, that when any one, on beholding some particular thing, understands that he wishes this which I now perceive to be such as something else is; but that it is deficient, and falls short of its perfection?"—This sentence is totally inaccurate.—

Ουκουν ομολογουμεν, οταν τις τι ιδων, εννοησῃ οτι βουλευεται μεν, τουτο ο νυν εγω ορω, ειναι οισι αλλο τι των οντων, ενδε δε, κ. τ. λ. Must we not therefore confess, when any one observing an object, perceives that it wishes (for instance, the visible object now present to my eyes) to become such as something else; namely, some one of the real essences, but falls short, &c." Plato is here speaking of the appetency of sensible objects to their archetypes, or ideas, without a power of attaining the same perfection of being.

Ibid. "It is necessary, therefore, that we must previously have known *equal itself* before that time, in which, from first seeing equal things, we understood that we desired all these to be such as *equal itself*, but that they had a defective subsistence." Similarly inaccurate. "It is necessary, therefore, that we must have had a knowledge of equality itself before that time, when first seeing equal objects, we perceived that all these things have an appetency to be such as the equal, but possess an inferior subsistence."

P. 287. "But when did our souls receive this science? for they did not receive them from those from whom we are born men." *ου γαρ δε αφ' ου γεγοναμεν ανθρωποι.* plainly, "not since the period when we were born men."

P. 288. "But you and Simmias appear to me still more earnestly to discuss this assertion in a very pleasant manner, &c. *δοκεις συ τε και Σιμμιαις ηδως αν και τουτον διαπραγματευσασθαι τον λογον ετι μαλλον.* You and Simmias appear to me to be desirous of discussing this reasoning more closely."

P. 289. "But from whence," says he, "O Socrates, can a man acquire

skill in such enchantment?" "Where, O Socrates, shall we find a skilful enchanter of this nature?"

P. 291. "To which species therefore of things, *formerly and now spoken of*, does the soul appear to you to be more similar and allied? *και εκ των προσθεν, και εκ των νυν λεγομενων.* Both from the arguments before, and those which are now alleged."

P. 299. "For it cannot, in any respect, be possible that the lyre should subsist when the chords are burst, and the chords themselves are of a mortal nature; but the harmony which is connate and allied to that which is divine and immortal, will become extinct, and perish, prior to the mortal nature itself.

ουδεμια γαρ μηχανη αν ετε, την μεν λυραν ετι ειναι, διεσπρωγμενη των χορδων, και τας χορδας, διατετειδεις ουσας την δε αρμονιαν απολωλεναι, την του θεου τε και αθανατου ομοση τε και ζυγηνη, προτεραν του θνητου απολωμενη.

230. For it is impossible that the lyre, and the chords, which are of a mortal nature, should still continue to subsist, though the chords are broken; but that the harmony, which is connatural, and of kindred birth to that which is divine and immortal, should perish before the mortal part."

P. 302. "But no one should say, that this death and dissolution of the body, which also introduces destruction to the soul, can be known." This sentence should have been connected with the preceding, and have proceeded thus: "and should say, that no one can distinguish that death and dissolution of the body, which brings destruction to the soul." The philosopher is speaking of a possible hypothesis respecting the nature of the soul, which should suppose it to transmigrate from one body to another, surviving their successive dissolutions; but at last to expire with some one of the different frames with which it is connected, though that death of the body which communicates destruction to the soul, cannot be distinguished from others.

P. 304. "As in the river Euripus." We know not why the Euripus is denominated a river. It would be as proper to speak of the river Hellespont.

In p. 315 occurs a singular inaccuracy, from which Mr. Taylor would appear, in that passage, to have translated

from the Latin version, without consulting the Greek original. The Greek is unambiguously *δευτερον πλουν*; the Latin ambiguously, *cursum secundum*, which Mr. Taylor has rendered "a prosperous voyage." The word *πλεω*, standing alone, sometimes appears to have the signification of a prosperous voyage, as in Thucydides, III. 3.; but from the connection of the present passage, *δευτερος πλεω* is evidently a second voyage.

P. 320. "For then, my friend, we spoke concerning things which possess contraries, calling the contraries by the appellation of the things in which they reside; but now we speak of things which receive their denomination from the contraries residing in them. *τοτε μιν γαρ, ωφιλε, περι των εχοντων τα εναντια ελεγομεν, επονομαζοντες αυτα τη εκεινων επωνυμια. νυν δε περι εκεινων αυτων, ων ενοντων εχει την επωνυμιαν τα ονομαζομενα.* For then, my friend, we were speaking concerning those things which possess contraries, calling them by the name of those essences; but now respecting those essences themselves, from the residence of which in them, the things denominated possess their title." This passage will be intelligible only to those who recollect the Platonic doctrine of ideas.

P. 329. "The dregs of this pure earth."—"The dregs of this pure æther."

Such are some of the inaccuracies of this translation of the *Phædo*, which we presume may be considered as a fair specimen of the work. These it was our duty to point out, though the office was far from being agreeable. We mean not to call in question Mr. Taylor's knowledge of Greek, or his merit as a scholar; we are convinced that a great fund of Greek words is imprinted on his memory, that he has read and transcribed much Greek, and that he is a most industrious student. But he has, in this instance, undertaken a long and difficult work, which he has perhaps executed amidst inconveniences, and with too much haste. It is not therefore surprising, that inaccuracies and imperfections should occur. We are also sorry that the suspicion excited in our mind, by the frequent expressions of contempt which he applies to verbal criticism, should be confirmed by the experiment; and that he should appear, notwithstanding considerable knowledge and talents, to have

adopted a hasty and inaccurate method of reading, incident to those, the foundations of whose knowledge are not deeply laid in grammatical learning, and which exposes them to continual mistake, even in passages the most easy and obvious. On this subject we will avail ourselves of the words of Valckenaër: "Ad ea nemini patet aditus, nisi qui prima linguæ Græcæ rudimenta—puer tenaci memoriâ combiberit, adeo ut nullo tempore ea sibi elabi patiatur. Hæc qui puer neglexerit, aut adolescentior, vir factus in scriptoribus Græcis legendis versatissimus ubique locorum hæret, sæpe pedem offendit ad minimos scrupulos, et in parvis graviter labitur. Si desideramus nucleum, cortex frangendus est, et cum aliqua amaritudine perumpendus. Studium linguarum in universum in ipsis primordiis, triste est et ingratum, sed, primis difficultatibus improbo et ardore nobili perruptis, postea, ubi sanctissima antiquitatis monumenta versare licet, cumulatissime beamur." Valckenaër obs. ad origg. Græc. p. 27,

After having made these observations, it would be injustice not to add, that the general train of Plato's doctrines and reasonings is fairly represented in Mr. Taylor's translation; and that it is only in the occasional occurrence of an unfortunate sentence, that the gross inaccuracies which we have remarked, occur; and which, where the passage is of any importance, may generally be detected, by being unintelligible. We may therefore justly recommend his work as, on the whole, a safe book of reference for the English reader.

The duty of a translator, next in importance to that of fidelity to his original, is attention to a certain degree of precision and elegance in the use of the language into which he translates. The difference in the structure and idioms of languages renders a literal, and at the same time elegant translation from one into the other, a circumstance totally impossible. The vocabulary of no language possesses words answerable to the whole compass of ideas: every tongue has therefore terms peculiar to itself, which cannot be expressed, except by periphrases, in any other; the acceptance of words is limited by custom, and the structure and arrangement of sentences and periods is dependent on the principles of the language, and, in some degree, on an attention to the harmony of its sounds. As the translator labours for the use of

those whose language he employs, it is an error not to bestow as much attention on the elegance and ease of that language, as faithfulness to the spirit of his author will admit; at the same time, we readily acknowledge that it is a greater error to sacrifice to a scrupulous solicitude for elegance, the meaning and manner of the original, of which it is the object of the version to present an image. Of the latter of these faults we wholly acquit Mr. Taylor; from the former of them he does not, in our opinion, stand entirely exempt. In this respect, the versions of Mr. Sydenham appear to us to be far preferable to those of the present translator; and, as they form a part of these volumes, we shall transcribe a passage from the translation of the second Alcibiades, for the purpose of comparison.

"Soc. Did not then the poet, whom I cited in the beginning of this argument, know somewhat more than we do, in supplicating Jupiter to avert from us what is evil, even though we prayed for it?

"Alc. Indeed I think so.

"Soc. The Lacedæmonians, therefore, O Alcibiades! admiring and imitating this of the poet, or whether they had of themselves considered the subject in the same manner as he did, every one of them in private, and all of them in public, make a prayer similar to his; for they beseech the gods to grant them such good things as, at the same time, are beautiful; and nothing more were they ever heard to pray for. Accordingly; no people have hitherto been more prosperous than they: and if it has happened to them not to prosper in all things, it was not because they prayed amiss, but because the gods, I presume, have it in their choice, either to grant a man that for which he prays, or to send him the reverse. I have a mind to relate to you somewhat else on this subject, what I once heard from certain elderly men;—that, in the differences between the Athenians and the Lacedæmonians, it so fell out, that whenever they came to a battle, whether by land or by sea, our city was always unsuccessful, and was never able to get one victory:—that the Athenians therefore, uneasy at these mis-carriages, and at a loss for some contrivance to put an end to their pressing evils, held a council, and came to this conclusion,—that their best way would be to send to Ammon, and consult him what they should do; and, at the same time, to ask him this question farther—on what account the gods always give victory to the Spartans, their enemies, rather than to them; though of all the Grecians, we, said they, bring them the greatest number of sacrifices, and those the fairest in their kinds; and though we, beyond all other people, have decorated their temples with the pre-

sents that are hung up in them, and, in honour of the gods, have made yearly processions, the most solemn, and the most costly, and have paid them a greater tribute in money than all the rest of the Grecians put together; whilst the Lacedæmonians, they said, never regard any of these things; but, on the contrary, worship the gods in so slighting a manner, as to make their sacrifices commonly of beasts full of blemishes; and, in all other instances, fall far short of us, said they, in honouring the gods; at the same time, that the riches they are masters of are not less than ours. When the ambassadors had thus spoken, and had inquired of the oracle what they should do to find an end of their present misfortunes, the prophet made no other answer than this; (for without doubt the god did not permit him): sending for the Athenian ambassadors, he spake to them these words:—Thus saith Ammon; he saith, that he prefers the pious addresses of the Lacedæmonians to all the sacrifices of the Grecians.—These words, and no more, spake the prophet. Now it seems to me that, by pious addresses, the god means only that prayer of theirs; and it is indeed much more excellent than the prayers of any other people. For the rest of the Grecians, when they have either led up to the altar oxen with their horns gilded, or brought rich offerings and presents to hang up in the temples, pray for whatever they happen to desire, whether it be really good or evil. The gods therefore, when they hear their impious addresses, accept not of their costly processions, sacrifices, and presents; so that much caution and consideration seem to me requisite on this subject; what is fit to be spoken to the gods, and what is not. You will also find in Homer sentiments similar to those I have been expressing; for he tells us that the Trojans, on a certain night, taking up their quarters without the city walls,

In honour of the blest immortals, slew
Unblemished hecatombs:—

and that the smoke from these sacrifices was, by the winds, wafted up into heaven:

Sweet odorous smoke; yet by the gods
Rejected, and the sav'ry taste refused.

For strong aversion in their holy minds
Was rooted, against Troy's devoted towers,
Against th' injurious might of Troy's proud
king,

And 'gainst the Trojan people, who withheld

Helen, unjustly, from her wedded lord.

"It was of no advantage therefore, it seems, to them to sacrifice, or to offer presents, to the gods whom they had made their enemies. For the divine nature, I presume, is not of such a kind as to be seduced by presents, like those whose trade it is to make the most of their money, and who care not by what means they are enriched. Besides, we plead very foolishly, in our expostulations with the

gods, if we think to get the better of the Lacedæmonians by such arguments; for it would be a sad thing indeed, if the gods regarded our presents and our sacrifices, and not the disposition of the soul, when a religious and just man addressed them. Nay, in my opinion, they have much more regard to this, than they have to those pompous processions and costly sacrifices. For nothing hinders, but that any, whether private persons or civil states, let them have sinned against the gods, and against men, ever so greatly, may be well able to pay the gods such a tribute yearly. But they, not being to be bribed, disdain all that outward worship, as saith the divine oracle, and as also saith the prophet of the gods. It seems, therefore, that justice and prudence are honoured, above all things, by the gods, and by men too, such as have good sense and understanding. Now the prudent and the just are no other persons than such as know what behaviour and what speech is proper to be used in our intercourse, whether with gods or with men. But I should be glad to hear from you, what your thoughts are on this subject."

In our extracts, we have hitherto contented ourselves with passages of common sense, level to the apprehension, and congenial to the sentiments, of all mankind. Our readers will, however, perhaps expect to be treated with some of the sublimer doctrines delivered in the academic groves: and, for their gratification, we present them with a passage from the Parmenides; a dialogue which contains the essence of platonic wisdom, than which treatise, says one of the greatest masters of ancient literature, *nihil facile abstrusius reperias*.

"But since we assert that we speak truly, it is likewise necessary to assert that we speak of things which exist. It is necessary. *The one*, therefore, *which is not*, as it appears, is; for if it is not, while not being, but remits something of being in order to not being, it will immediately become being. Entirely so. It ought, therefore, to have, as the bond of not to be, to be that which is not, if it is about not to be; just as being ought to have as a bond not to be that which is not, that it may be perfectly that which is. For thus, in a most eminent degree, being will be, and non-being will not be: being participating of essence, in order that it may be being; but of non-essence, in order that it may obtain to be non-being, if it is about perfectly to be; but non-being participating of non-essence, in order that it may not be that which is not being, but participating of essence, in order that it may obtain to be non-being, if it is to be perfectly that which is not. Most truly so. Since, therefore, non-being is present with being, and being with non-being, is it not necessary that the one also, since it is not, should partake of

being, in order that it may not be? It is necessary. Essence, therefore, will appear with the one, if it is not. So it seems. And non-essence, since it is not.—How should it not? Can anything, therefore, which is affected in a certain manner, be not so affected when not changed from this habit?—It cannot. Every thing, therefore, signifies a certain mutation, which is affected, and again not affected, in some particular manner. How should it not? Is mutation a motion, or what else do we call it?—It is a motion. But has not the one appeared to be both being and non-being?—Certainly. It has appeared, therefore, to be thus and not thus affected. It has. *The one*, therefore, which is non-being appears to be moved, since it possesses a mutation from being into non-being. It appears so. But if it be no where among beings, as it is not in consequence of not being, it cannot pass elsewhere. For how can it?—It will not, therefore, be moved by transition. It will not. Neither will it revolve in same; for it will never touch same, since same is being. But it is impossible that non-being can reside in any being. Impossible. *The one*, therefore, which is not, cannot revolve in that in which it is not. It cannot. Neither will the one be altered from itself, either into being or non-being; for our discourse would no longer be concerning the one, if it was altered from itself, but concerning something different from this one. Right. But if it is neither altered, nor revolves in same, nor suffers transition, is there any way in which it can be moved? How should there? But that which is immoveable must necessarily be at rest, and that which is at rest must abide or stand still. It is necessary. *The one which is not*, therefore, as it appears, both abides and is moved. It appears so. But if it be moved, there is a great necessity that it should be altered; for, so far as any thing is moved, it is no longer affected in the same manner as before, but differently. There is so. *The one*, therefore, since it is moved, is also altered. Certainly. But as again it is in no respect moved, it will be in no respect altered. It will not. So far, therefore, as the one which is not is moved, it is altered; but so far as it is not moved it is not altered. Certainly not. *The one*, therefore, which is not, is both altered and not altered. It appears so. But is it not necessary that when any thing is altered it should become different from what it was before, and should suffer a dissolution of its former habit; but that a nature which is not altered, should neither be generated nor dissolved?—It is necessary. *The one*, therefore, which is not, through being altered, will be generated and dissolved; but, at the same time, from its not suffering alteration, will not be subject to either generation or corruption. And thus the one which is not will be generated and dissolved, and will neither be generated nor dissolved. It will not."

In the execution of his translation,

Mr. Taylor professes to have availed himself of all the aids which were placed within his power, among which he enumerates the few translations of detached dialogues, which have hitherto made their appearance in English, and various editions of select parts of the works of Plato.

The principal object of the translator, in this arduous undertaking, has been, as he informs us, to unfold all the abstruse and sublime dogmas of Plato, as they are found dispersed in his works. For this purpose, the different dialogues are preceded by explanatory introductions, and accompanied with copious illustrative notes, professing to comprise the substance of nearly all the existing Greek MS. commentaries on the philosophy of Plato, and a considerable portion of such as are already published. These have been compiled from a great variety of sources, with a degree of labour and patience deserving of our admiration, whatever we think of the object of their application. "In accomplishing this," says Mr. Taylor, "I have presented the reader, in my notes, with nearly the substance in English of all the following manuscript Greek commentaries and scholia on Plato, viz. ; of the commentaries of Proclus on the Parmenides and first Alcibiades, and of his Scholia on the Cratylus; of the Scholia of Olympiodorus on the Phædo, Gorgias, and Philebus; and of Hermias on the Phædrus. To these are added very copious extracts from the manuscript of Damascius, *περὶ ἀρχῶν*, and from the published works of Proclus on the Timæus, Republic, and Theology, of Plato. Of the four first of these manuscripts, three of which are folio volumes, I have complete copies taken with my own hand; and, of the copious extracts from the others, those from Olympiodorus on the Gorgias were taken by me from the copy preserved in the British Museum; those from the same philosopher on the Philebus, and those from Hermias on the Phædrus, and Damascius *περὶ ἀρχῶν*,

from the copies in the Bodleian library."

But what shall we say of the man, who, in the nineteenth century, after the labours of Bacon, Locke, and Newton, becomes a convert to the platonic systems of physics, metaphysics, and theology? We shall not imitate the contemptuous expressions which he is unfortunately too apt to apply, without the exception of the most illustrious names, to all those who differ from him, that is, in the present state of things, to all mankind; but shall only express our regret, that talents and industry, which, if properly directed, might have been productive of extensive benefit, have been diverted into those regions of airy speculation, in which their most vigorous exertions serve only to estrange them to the furthest distance from subjects of truth and reality.

To those readers who are altogether unacquainted with the extant works of Plato, it may not be improper to observe, that they consist of fifty-five dialogues, and twelve epistles, on various subjects of physics, metaphysics, morality, civil polity, and theology, the genuineness of far the greater part of which has never been called in question. They have been formed by different writers into different arrangements, and distinguished by quaint titles, according to the mode of argument which they adopt, as gymnastic, maieutic, peirastic, aporetic, endeictic, anatreptic. Their merit is that of vigorous conceptions, and lively efforts of imagination, conveyed in a style, flowing, harmonious, and majestic; their too frequent defect, that of wild speculation, supported by no basis of experiment, and confirmed by no test of truth, sporting with argument, and setting reason at defiance.

We shall take our leave of Mr. Taylor, expressing our warm admiration of his diligence, if not our approbation of the object of his labours; he has merited the character of one of the most industrious, we regret that we cannot add, of the most useful, of modern scholars.

CRITICISM.

ART. VIII. *The Synonymes of the Latin Language, alphabetically arranged; with Critical Dissertations upon the Force of its Prepositions, both in a simple and compounded State.* By JOHN HILL, LL.D. Professor of Humanity in the University, and Fellow of the Royal Society, of Edinburgh. 4to. pp. 800.

THE remark which is made by one of the ancient critics, respecting the difficulty which attends the attainment of his art, may be properly applied to the

subject of the present work, *ἡ τῶν λόγων κρείσσις πολλὰν ἴσθιν ἀπαιτεῖται τελευταίου ἐπιγνῶντα*. Long. sect. vi. To distinguish the nice shades of difference by which

words of kindred meaning are discriminated; to seize with precision, and display with clearness, the fugitive idea which communicates to terms their peculiar signification; is one of the last fruits of skill, acquired by long experience and the habit of accurate investigation. The difficulty of this task, in no case inconsiderable, is much increased, when the language which is the subject of examination has ceased to be in oral use, and the precise import of its terms is only to be collected from careful reading, and the laborious comparison of scattered passages in which its words occur.

This task, Dr. Hill, in the work before us, has undertaken to execute in behalf of the Latin language. The important subject upon which he treats, is by no means new in grammar. In Greek, the work of Ammonius, an ancient grammarian, somewhat similar in design, is still preserved—*De adfinium Vocabularum Differentiâ*. In Latin, many useful hints, relative to the subject, occur in several of the Roman authors, especially Cicero, and particularly in some parts of his *Tusculan Questions*. Several of the Latin grammarians have touched occasionally on this subject, as Nonius, Donatus, Charisius, Asconius, &c. In the remaining parts of Varro's work are some important passages of this purport. Some fragments of the Latin writers, treating on this branch of grammar, are brought together in Gothofred's collection, in the article entitled, *Veterum Grammaticorum de Proprietate et Differentiis Latini Sermonis Libelli*, p. 1827. Nor has it been left untouched by modern critics, as Vella, Popma, and others. The work which seems in this department of literature to have acquired the highest reputation, is that of Girard on the French Synonymes; and the example has been followed, though with less success, in most of the polished European nations.

It is a curious subject of enquiry, whether in the strict import of the term, any words are found in the same language which are perfectly synonymous. Dr. Hill admits their existence. "Some words occur," says he, "in the different languages, so strictly equivalent, that their meaning is not to be distinguished." This appears more likely to be the case in a compound language, like the English, formed by the union of heterogeneous parts, than in one of more simple, uniform, and original structure. Yet it appears to us, that in every language

there is a constant tendency to the diminution of the number of such terms. In the employment of words, much depends, not only on etymology, but on subsequent accidental association and arbitrary usage. The subtleties of thought are infinite; and in a refined language, terms are gradually accommodated to them.

The strict meaning of the word synonymous, is indeed that given by Johnson, and already alluded to, "expressing the same thing by different words." But it has been found convenient to extend the term from this narrow acceptance, to express a much more important idea; the correspondence of words in some general signification, while they are distinguished by particular differences. Such is the sense in which the word is employed by Dr. Hill.

The plan adopted by the author in the investigation of the terms compared, may be most properly described in his own words.

"In stating the power of the different terms brought together, he had adopted, of himself, the plan of Monsieur D'Alembert, and has been uniformly guided by an expression of the point, in which they all agree. Reversing afterwards the synthetic method, by which this point was at first apprehended, he has tried to shew by a variety of examples of classical authority, how each of the terms, collated, holds of that general definition, to which they all refer as a standard.

"The truth of every thing advanced is to be tried by its consistency with the instances produced. Those instances may, to some, appear more numerous than needful. They who think so should consider, that the full force of terms, in a sentence separated from the passage to which it belongs, is not equally clear to every reader, and that mere skill in the language does not always unfold it. To a real philologist, besides, repeated proofs of what is true can never be disagreeable. What, to the eye of some readers, was obscure in the first instance, may be luminous in the second; and assertions, which, in respect to one combination, appeared doubtful, may, in another, prove themselves to be solid, and force conviction.

"To fix the original force of each term, and then to trace the intermediate links, which unite this with its most remote, is an operation often difficult, and sometimes impracticable. In the age in which the radical idea was laid hold of, no series had perhaps begun. From the simple train, seen imperfectly, and only at its commencement, involuntary deviations may have taken place. Shades of meaning, originally distinct, thus elude the sight; and the issue of a chase becomes unsatisfactory, in which the pursuer has exhibited both perseverance and skill.

"With this, which may be regarded as an unavoidable cause of difficulty, in the definition of terms, another, seemingly accidental, unites its force. Between their literal and their metaphorical senses there may have existed a struggle, in which the former has been destroyed. The metaphor, in such cases, must be driven from the place it has preposterously assumed, and the effects of that blunder extinguished, which has been sanctioned by the authority of use."

As a specimen of the manner in which the work is executed we have selected the following article:

"*Humidus, Uvidus, Madidas*, agree in denoting the quality of wetness, but differ, as to the manner in which it is generated and retained. *Humidus* implies, that the object, which it specifies, not only contains moisture, but is fitted to supply the waste of it, whether by evaporation or otherwise. It comes from "*humor*," and that from "*humus*," and regards the ground, as furnishing a constant supply to those springs which break forth at different parts of its surface. "*Præmisso Cecina ut occulta saltuum scrutaretur, pontesque et aggeres, humido paludum, et fallacibus campis imponeret.*"—*Tac. Ann. 1. 61.* *Humidus*, then, in its primitive sense, refers to a subject as formed by the hand of nature, and possessed of a quality which, when absent, cannot be imparted, and, when present, cannot be destroyed.

"The definition given by *Servius* of *humidus*, seems to have been very properly rejected by *Ausonius Popma*, whose remarks "*de differentiis verborum*" are often both ingenious and solid. "*Humidum*," says *Servius*, "*quod extrinsecus habet aliquod humoris*;"—*In Virg. Ec. 10. 20.* To this *Popma* refuses to assent. "*Cui non adsentior. Humidum enim proprie est quod in profundo continet humiditatem, ut terra.*"—*Lib. 2. 133.*

"*Humidus* is transferred from the subject to which, from its etymology, it appears to have been originally applied, to others that strongly resemble it. Thus, *Virgil* speaks of the "*humida nox*," and means by it, that dampness which prevails in the air, next the surface of the earth, from the constant falling of the dew in the course of the night. It is transferred by *Ovid* to the clouds, and by *Vitruvius* to those winds which ordinarily produce rain.

"—— *cadit Eurus, et humida surgunt Nubila.*——

Virg. Æn. 8. 198.

"*Auster et reliqui (venti) qui a solis cursu sunt humidissimi.*"—*Vitruv. 8. 21.* In both those applications of the word, there is a reference to a supply of the waste, and, of course, to the long continuance of the fall expected.

"*Humidus* is occasionally applied to bodies impregnated with moisture, which they receive from others that generated it. *Cicero*

speaks thus of a bed bedewed with tears,

"*qui jacet in lecto humido,*

"*Ejulatu, questu, gemitu, fremitibus,*

"*Resonando, multum flebiles voces refert.*

Cic. Q. Tusc. 9. 2. 38.

"The wood of a tree, too, when vegetating, may be styled *humidus*, on account of the communicated moisture which supports it. Nay, *Cicero*, in one instance, applies the term to wood that is green and newly cut. "*Ignem ex lignis viridibus atque humidis in loco angusto fieri jussit.*"—*Cic. in Ver. 2. 45.*

"*Uvidus* agrees with "*humidus*," in supposing that the substance, to which it is applied, contains moisture, but does not suggest the means of supplying the waste, from whatever cause it arises. The definition given by *Servius* of this term, is more accurate and satisfactory than that given of "*humidus*." It were better at the same time, not to derive "*uva*" from "*uvidus*," but to consider the shortest of the two words as the root. "*Uvidum est,*" says he, "*quod intrinsecus habet aliquod humoris, unde uvæ dicuntur.*"—*In Virg. Ec. 10. 20.*

"*Arboribus redeunt detonsæ frigore frondes*

"*Uvidaque in gravido palmite gemma tumet*

Ovid. Fast. 4. 235.

"The term *uvidus* is applied to the earth as well as "*humidus*," but the quality suggested by it is different. Thus, *Columella* says, "*Nisi præpingui et uvida terra.*"—*Lib. 7. c. 3.* By *uvida*, he does not mean the poor soil, that is swampy, and generates water, which it exmits at its surface, but such as, though moist, is rich and loamy.

"*Uvidus* is transferred from those vegetable substances, to which it is originally applicable, to others which strongly resemble them, by imbibing and retaining a quantity of moisture.

"—— *me tabula sacer*

"*Votiva paries indicat uvida*

"*Suspendisse potenti*

"*Vestimenta maris deo.*

Hor. Car. 1. 5. 14.

The mariner's clothes, hung up in the temple of Neptune, are here supposed to have been soaked in the sea, and, like the grape, to contain a quantity of moisture, which would either free itself by evaporation, or might be easily wrung from them.

"*Uvidus hiberna venit de glande Menalcas.*

Virg. Ec. 10.

"*Longas O utinam, Dux bone ferias*

"*Præstes Hesperie, dicimus integra*

"*Sicci mane die; dicimus uvidi,*

"*Cum sol oceano subest.*

Hor. Car. 4. 5. 37.

"In the last of the above examples, it appears, that *uvidus* differs from "*humidus*," in being applied to mind, as well as matter, and in suggesting the notion of drunkenness. This application seems to be founded on the kind of drink which produces the intoxication,

The amplificative adjective "*vinosus*" denotes the quality of being a lover of wine; and *uvidus*, as taken in the passage last quoted, denotes having drunk it plentifully, and feeling its effects.

"*Madidus* differs from "*humidus*" and "*uvidus*," in expressing moisture that is not contained in the substance specified, but which is adventitious, and affects its surface. It agrees, also, with the last term, in supposing it void of the capacity of supplying the waste of moisture, in whatever way that waste may be effected. It applies to the extrinsic or superficial wetness of a substance, whether this is produced by a natural or an artificial cause. In the primitive and literal applications of "*humidus*" and "*uvidus*," they denote subjects furnished by the hand of nature with the attributes they respectively denote. Thus, moisture is naturally inherent in humid ground and in a ripe grape. Dryness, again, is the natural state of that, which, being accidentally wet, is then said to be *madidus*.

"— nam dum se continet Auster

"Dum sedet, et siccet madidas in carcere pennas,

"Contemnunt mediam temeraria lina Charibdin. Juv. Sat. 5. 98.

"Sed ille scripsit ad Balbum, illum fasciculum epistolarum totum sibi aqua madidum rethitum esse."—Cic. ad Quint. Frat. 2. 14. This packet was so much wetted, from an accidental cause, that Cicero tells us the letter addressed to him was not legible. A superficial wetting would produce this effect. It is not necessary to suppose, that the "*fasciculus*" would be drenched like the "*vestis uvida*" before mentioned; which, from the porousness of the materials, had absorbed a quantity of water, and retained it as the skin of the grape does its juice.

"*Madidus* agrees with "*uvidus*," in being applied to persons as well as to things, and in suggesting the idea of drunkenness. He, who was said "*madere vino*," was understood to be "*vino rigatus*;" that is, bedewed with wine.

"Faciam ut sit madidus sobrius."

Plaut. Amph. 3. 4. 18.

The wit of the comic poet here rests upon his apprehension, that *madidus* refers to an external or superficial wetting in its primitive sense.

"While *madidus* agrees with "*uvidus*," in the respect just mentioned, it differs from it, in denoting proficiency in science and in letters.

"Si quis Cecropiæ madidus Latæque Minervæ

"Aribus, et vera simplicitate bonus.

Mart. 1. 40.

"Non ille quanquam Socraticis madet

"Sermonibus te negliget horridus.

"Narratur et prisci Catonis,

"Sæpe mero caluisse virtus.

Hor. Car. 3. 21. 9.

"The critics have very properly explained *madidas* and *madere*, in the above and other

such passages, by means of the term "*imbutus*." Both the adjective and the verb refer to a vessel tintured in respect to colour, taste, or smell, by a fluid, with which it was wet when made to contain it."

Dr. Hill has very properly and candidly remarked, "that to catch the circumstance on which minute differences rest, must try the ingenuity of the discerning, and may often leave room for diversity of opinion. He presumes only to assist the philosophic enquirer upon points of deep research; and as he is far from supposing himself superior to errors, so he shall be ever ready to avow and to correct them." He will not, therefore, consider us as requiring apology, if, on a few passages which have occurred to us, we express a difference of sentiment, without confidence, or tenacity of our opinion.

P. 13. The genealogy of the significations of the word *condere*, appears to us not to be accurately traced. The primitive meaning Dr. Hill seems to consider as that of hiding, by the intervention of certain objects, with which that which is concealed is not necessarily connected. "From an apprehended analogy between the manner in which a writer and a builder collect and arrange their materials, and the selection and application of those things which are fittest for hiding a particular object, the verb *condere* is transferred to productions both in learning and architecture." To us the primitive meaning of this verb, according to its etymology, appears to be merely that of putting in apposition: the two significations of hiding and building are therefore collaterals; by the former being intended apposition for the purpose of concealment; by the latter, for that of construction. From the sense of building, the word is figuratively transferred to works of literature, as wholly formed by the aggregation of their subordinate parts—"to build the lofty rhyme."—Milt.

"When the completion," says Dr. Hill, "implied in *condere*, is referred to animal life, it suggests the end, or extinction of it. Thus Seneca tells us, that Alexander fell a sacrifice to his intemperance: '*Alexandrum intemperantia bibendi, et ille Herculeus scyphus condidit.*' Ep. 83. ad fin." *Condere*, in this sense, we consider as only an elliptical expression for *humo condere*; in the passage of Seneca we should, therefore, translate the word *condidit*, "sent to his grave." We do not, however, confident-

ly differ from the explanation given by Dr. H.

P. 388. "Fugax, Fugitivus, agree in denoting a run-away, but differ in respect to the principle upon which the person so called acts. Both come from "fugere;" and the first supposes that the person flying, is stimulated by fear, and flies from what he apprehends to be immediate danger."—"Fugitivus differs from fugax, in supposing that the flier quits the place he occupied, in consequence of some deliberate purpose, and not from the impulse of fear." We should rather distinguish these words by saying, that fugax, like other adjectives of the same termination, respects the disposition to flight; fugitivus the act of flight. Fugax is, primarily, disposed to flight; as applied to inanimate objects, quick, transient; to those which are animate, fearful, cowardly. As the act springs from the disposition, they may be easily, and even elegantly, confounded and united: thus Virgil, "fugax aufertur habenis."

P. 342. Dr. Hill rightly distinguishes *facetus* and *urbanus*. He adds, "it should seem, however, that the pure writers always ascribe a certain politeness to the wit implied in *facetus*." The use of the word by Horace, Sat. i. 2. 26. seems to contradict this remark.

P. 552. "Officium, from "ob" and "facio," denotes what we are bound to do to those with whom we have intercourse in life, and is applied also to what we owe to ourselves. It should seem that the verb *officere*, which afterwards signified to retard or injure, originally meant the same with "efficere," to effect or accomplish. *Officere* thus meant the energy of the agent, doing what came in his way, and failing in the discharge of nothing that was assigned him." The best explanation which we have seen of the origin of this term, is that given by Heusinger, "*Officium nominatur, neque aut ἀντιφασιν, quasi minime officiat, i. e. nocuat; neque ab efficiendo, ut veteres putabant; neque ex opificio contrahitur; sed ab obficere est, quod significat apte, accommodate, decenter facere; ut occasio, quæ opportune accedit, ut obedio, oblecto, obsequor, obtempero, aliaque simplicium verborum actionem commodam, et ad aliquid attemperatam, expriment.* Hinc fit, ut *officium* sæpe pro beneficio dicatur."

P. 766. The word *stringo* is compared with *ligo* and *vincio*. The sense of this word does not appear to us to be

very clearly developed. The confusion with which it has been treated by the grammarians, is noticed by Mr. Wakefield, in his commentary on Lucretius. Nonius Marcellus, 712, explains it by *percutere, nudare vel exercere, rārefacere, excindere, decerpere, radere, vulnerare*. In its primary signification, it seems to indicate the motion of one body over the surface of another; hence, *stringere gladium*, to draw the sword, i. e. to effect its separation from the scabbard, by the superficial motion of one body against the other; *stringere remos*, Virg. to strip the bark from branches, for the purpose of being converted into oars; *stringere frondes*;

"*Percutiensque levem modo natis aëra pennis*
"*Stringebat summas ales miserabilis undas.*
Ov. Met. xi. 732.

Stringo is also applied to the mind:

"*Atque animum strinxit patriæ pictatis*
imago,
glanced upon his mind."

Stringo is also made to imply the injury of one body, or the abrasion of some of its parts, by the motion of another over it.

"*Stringentem ripas pleno quem flumine cernis.*" Virg. Æn. viii. 63.

Stringere appears here equivalent to *mordere*.

"*Sed quæ sunt rerum primordia, nulla potest vis*
Stringere." Lucret. i. 487.

Stringo hence signifies to wound by a superficial stroke.

"*Strinxerat hunc hasta.*"—Virg. Æn. ix. 577.

When *stringere* signifies to bind, it implies confinement by the forcible application of one body round the circumference of another; *manu stringere*, to grasp.

Stringere seems, in some writers, to convey the idea of a sudden, powerful, but indeterminate effect, like that produced by the glance of a body in rapid motion, for instance, a flash of lightning; as in the passage quoted by Dr. Hill, from Statius:

"*Non talis niveos strinxit Lavinia vultus,*
Cum, Turno spectante, rubet."

Sylv. i. 2. 244.

where *strinxit* seems to imply the sudden and violent suffusion of the cheeks with blushes. The expression "*gelidai stringor aquai*" is used by Lucretius (iii. 694) to describe the sudden shooting sensation of pain communicated to the teeth by cold water.

With the comparisons of synonymous words, are intermixed, according to alphabetical order, critical dissertations on the force of the prepositions, in a simple and compounded state. "Along with the synonymes of the Latin language, (says Dr. Hill) an attempt has been made to explain its prepositions, in the order in which they occur in the arrangement. If these, the most subtle of the parts of speech, require deep attention in a simple state, much more do they require it when compounded." In this last capacity they modify the term to which they are prefixed, with all the variety of power belonging to each of them when apart. Their primary relations holding as to matter in space, must be made by analogy to explain relations, from which the idea of space is excluded. Without analyzing prepositions, synonymes can never be understood, as the force of the contrasted term often rests upon that given or withheld by what is made to coalesce with it."

The following is part of the dissertation on the force of the preposition *ob*.

"It appears that *ob* may be translated as follows:

"1. Straight upon, or directly towards. The correlative object is, in this use, understood to be moving in a line, in which, if its motion continues, it must strike the governed.

"2. Before or opposite to. This use appears chiefly when the preposition is connected with objects of sight. The eye and the thing seen are then said to be what the French call *vis-a-vis*.

"3. On account of, and by means of. The purpose formed, and the means used, to give regulated motion to a quiescent body, are transferred to the influence of cause, and the production of effect, in general.

"4. In lieu, or as the price of. The correlative object is understood to move, and to come instead of the governed, if it quits its place.

"5. Around. The encircling object is understood to meet the eye upon every point of the substance it covers.

In composition, *ob* discovers the first power ascribed to it but rarely; and that power, it appears, is seldom seen in the simple preposition. Cicero, we found, quotes an old poet, who says, "*obvertere sua ora ob os*." Festus likewise quotes the following passage from Ennius:

"*Acheruntem obibo, ubi mortis thesauri objacent.*

"In the word "*obstetrix*," the preposition seems to carry the second power ascribed to it, and to signify "*before*." By some critics, it is taken as equal to "*ad*," but it more properly refers to the station of the accoucheur, when assistance is necessary.

"*Peperit sine obstetricis opera, et sine doloribus.* Plaut. Cistell. 1. 2. 22.

"In the case of "*obstare*," the root of "*obstetrix*," as in that of "*obesse*" and "*officere*," the preposition imparts to the roots the idea of being cumbersome and injurious. The object governed by the verb, is then understood to be in the way of the correlative, and to stop its motion sooner than was intended. "*Cur mihi te offers, ac meis commodis officis et obstas?*"—Cic. pro Rosc. Amer. 37. a.

"*Hoc mihi quid prodest, si tibi lector obest?* Ovid. Trist. i. 66.

"*Eos metuo, mihi ne obsint, neve obstant uspiam.* Plaut. Mit. 4. 2. 6.

"In the figurative use of "*obligare*," the preposition discovers the fourth power ascribed to it, which is "*in lieu of*." "*Rediit nihilo opulentior, ut qui prope labefacta jam fide, omnia præda fratri obligavit.*"—Sueton. Vespas. 4. "*Rem suam pignori obligare.*"—Sæv. Diges. 20. 4. Leg. Ult. In those two examples, the simple verb shews the security of the pawn, as bound down for the behoof of the creditor, and the preposition states it as lying in his way. It does not appear that, in the literal sense of this verb, the preposition shews its last mentioned power, and it can then be always translated either around what is circular, or before what would make its way through an aperture in a surface. In the case of a fractured limb, the bandage must encircle it; but, in the case of an ordinary wound, all that is needed is to stop the effusion of blood, by an application fixed in any way.

"*Medicus ait se obligasse crus fractum Æsculapio,*

"*Apollini autem brachium.*

Plaut. Men. 5. 3. 9.

"*Esculapius, qui specillum invenisse, primusque vulnus dicitur obligavisse.*" Cic. de Nat. Deor. 71. a. "*Ut collocet in cubili, ut vulnus obliget.*" Cic. Q. Tusc. 183. a."

There are a few other passages on which we had intended to offer some animadversions, but we shall here conclude with expressing our acknowledgments to Dr. Hill for his meritorious performance of a difficult and important service. Ingenuity, accuracy, and learning, are, on the whole, conspicuous in the execution of his work. We recommend it particularly to the attention of the rising race of scholars. The habit of such investigations is a most important exercise of the intellectual faculties, and is absolutely necessary to those who wish to acquire any accurate knowledge of the principles of language.

This volume is printed in a very elegant manner, and its accuracy is not inferior to its beauty.

SCHOOL BOOKS.

ART. IX. *Delectus Græcarum Sententiarum, cum Notis Grammaticis tum Philologicis, in usum tironum accommodatis.* 8vo. pp. 111.

THE preface to this work (which has reached a second edition) is signed by Mr. St. John Priest. The first part of it consists of a collection of Greek sentences, in imitation of Dr. Valpy's Latin delectus, gradually proceeding from the simplest structure, to the most complicated forms compatible with a work of elementary instruction. The sentences are well selected "from Euripides, Sophocles, Isocrates, Ælian, and Xenophon, some from the fragments of Me-

ander, and one or two from Thucydides." The second part consists of notes containing full and able grammatical analyses of the preceding sentences, in which we observe that particular attention is paid to the structure of the irregular verbs, which are illustrated, as they occur, by very perspicuous schemes. In these notes many very useful observations are introduced, and the whole work we think well adapted to answer the purpose which the author has in view.

ART. X. *A concise Introduction to the Latin Language, compiled from ancient and modern Writers of approved Authority, for the Use of the middle Forms in Grammar Schools.* By the Rev. GEORGE WHITAKER, A. M. 8vo. pp. 156.

THIS little work nearly resembles in plan the grammar for common use, consisting of schemes of the parts of speech, accompanied with English observations; the rules of genders, and the formation of the parts of verbs, in Latin verse; a syntax and prosody also in Latin, followed by a verbal translation into Eng-

lish. We have observed little either of peculiar merit or defect, except that the author has justly inserted the future perfect tense in the indicative mood. This book is accurately printed, and will sufficiently answer the purposes of an introductory grammar.

ART. XI. *Vocabulary, intended as an Introduction to the Study of the Synonymes of the Latin Language.* By JOHN HILL, LL. D. et Lit. Hum. P. Edinburgh. 1804.

THIS is an abstract of the larger work of the learned professor, which we have already reviewed. It contains all the words illustrated in that work, with concise definitions of each, and one clear example of its use. It would perhaps have been an improvement, and would have added little to the size of the work, if references had been made at the end of

every word (as is the case in many instances) to its synonymous terms. This book may certainly be placed with benefit in the hands of young persons, as tending to give them clear ideas of the signification of the leading terms of the Latin language, and thus to habituate them, at an early period, to accuracy in weighing the force of words.

ANCIENT TOPOGRAPHY.

ART. XII. *The Topography of Troy, and its Vicinity, illustrated and explained by Drawings and Descriptions. Dedicated by Permission to her Grace the Duchess of Devonshire.* By W. GELL, Esq. of Jesus College, M. A. F. A. S. Fol. pp. 124. 45 Plates.

THE war of Troy is the principal event which we are able to discern in the obscure annals of Greece, preceding the establishment of the Olympiads. The date of it is so remote from the commencement of accurate history among the Greeks, it approaches so nearly to the age of mythology, and the accounts which we have received of it are intermingled with so much apparent fiction, that wholly to separate the truth from the fable would doubtless be an impracticable attempt.

Yet to deny on this account the existence of an event of such magnitude, the subject of the clear and undeviating tradition of a whole nation, an æra of their chronology, and the theme of their most popular poems, appears to us as unreasonable a speculation, as any which paradoxical ingenuity has ever been induced to maintain. Poets are not in the earliest ages of literary history, inventors; they adopt and embellish the traditions of their age; and na-

tional tradition on great subjects invariably derives its origin from truth. Notwithstanding the respect therefore which is due to an eminent literary character, by whom the paradoxical opinion of the non-existence of the Trojan war has been advanced, we must still consider it as an incontestible event, and to attempt a laboured defence of it, we should consider as not less superfluous than to assert the genuineness of the classic writers in opposition to the reveries of Hardouin.

The situation of the Trojan territory is not more a subject of dispute, than the existence of the events which have rendered it celebrated. A projecting tract of country, intersected by a mountainous chain, situated in the north-western angle of the Lesser Asia, has uniformly, from the earliest ages, retained the name of the Troad. This country has of late years been repeatedly visited by intelligent and inquisitive travellers, and the result of their researches has been to give an unequivocal testimony in favour of the topographical accuracy of the writer of the *Iliad*. The light which has been thrown by their labour on that poem is important, not perhaps as confirming the certainty of the events which it records, but by that illustration which it communicates to a delightful work, by rendering its scenery more impressive and distinct, and by giving its descriptions a stronger possession of the mind, when they are considered as, in a great degree, copies of truth and nature.

The publication which we are now called to review, is a work of great splendour of execution, and apparently of no less accuracy and fidelity of representation. The author, Mr. Gell, was engaged in the journey, of which it is the result, in the year 1801. Having resided at Mitylene, in the adjacent island of Lesbos, during the month of November in that year, he proceeded, in company with two other English gentlemen, in his intended expedition to the Troad. Their course was first directed to the island of Tenedos, which is described as a bare rough rock, not more than three miles long, rising toward the north-east into a round hill, under which, upon the canal between the island and the main land, is the little port and the town. "Tenedos is infested by an innumerable race of dogs, of a light brown colour, who attack strangers immediately on landing, but they are easily driven off by stones." The channel

which separates Tenedos from the coast of Asia, is about five miles in breadth. The travellers soon landed on the sandy shore of the Troad, and by the assistance of a villager with whom they met, proceeded to the village of Ghicle, where they remained during the night. Here they received their first view of the objects connected with the Trojan plain, in the distant sight of the tumulus of Udjek, visible from an adjoining hill. The next morning was spent in examining the ruins of Alexandria Troas, situated near the sea-coast, about five miles to the south of Ghicle. This city was distinguished by the peculiar favour of Alexander and his successors. Yet few remains of Grecian antiquity appear to be discoverable in it. The inscriptions and buildings are chiefly Roman. It is mentioned by Strabo as a Roman colony. Having returned to Ghicle to dinner, Mr. Gell and his companions proceeded on their route to the plain of Troy, which they entered through a defile, conducting to Bounarbashi. Bounarbashi is a Turkish village, situated at the foot of a considerable hill, and is the presumed situation of ancient Troy. It consists of about five and twenty houses, with a neat mosque, and a large house, the residence of the Aga, who is the principal person of the place. Here an extensive and interesting scene was presented to the view. A plain, bounded by elevations on the east and west, and by the channel of the Hellespont on the north, tends from the hill of Bounarbashi in a northerly direction, and is intersected by two rivers, flowing in circuitous courses, and uniting a little before their passage into the sea. The coast of Europe was visible beyond the Hellespont, where the fleet of the captain pacha, which had just returned from the Egyptian expedition, was descried at anchor. After some time spent in the delineation of the hill of Bounarbashi, and the interesting objects which it affords, the travellers descended along the plain, suffering nothing in the topography of the country to escape them, which could give any illustration to the poem to which it is indebted for its celebrity. In passing the ford of the Simois in carts drawn by oxen, "I was in danger," says Mr. Gell, "of losing the fruits of my journey, for the water rising above the wheels of the cart, I was compelled to stand up with my papers to secure them from injury. Unfortu-

nately the oxen became unruly, and in my endeavours to assist the driver, all my treasures fell into the stream. I had however the good fortune to recover them, before they received any material damage, but they yet retain many marks of the sandy hue of the flood." On arriving at Koum-kale, a town and fortress situated on a promontory advancing into the sea from the northern extremity of the plain, and with the opposite castles commanding the passage of the Dardanelles, the town was found to be crowded with Turkish officers, couriers, and sailors, returning from Egypt to Constantinople. "In the morning we were entertained," says Mr. Gell, "by the sight of the Turkish method of paying compliments: for the forts of the European and Asiatic sides saluted the captain pacha and his fleet, each vying with the other in the art of directing the ordnance, so that the balls just passed, without touching, the bowsprit of the flag-ship, the Sultan Selim. The salute was returned with equal vivacity, and I had frequent opportunities of seeing the balls from the opposite shores cross each other in the water. When the ceremony was finished the fleet sailed for Constantinople, and we set out on foot to explore the lower part of the plain." Their course was directed along the western margin of the plain, after the examination of which, they returned to Koum Kevi. Thus the delineation of the country was completed, with the exception of the coast, the views of which were taken at a subsequent opportunity. "I then found myself in possession of materials for the following pages, in which all the merit I can claim to myself, is that of having exhibited with fidelity the details of an interesting country, the grand outlines of which had been already made known to the public by the learning and abilities of Le Chevalier, Dalzel, and Morrit."

This work, after an introduction briefly relating the particulars of the journey, from which the preceding account is extracted, consists of an intermixture of plates and explanatory descriptions. The plates are executed in a splendid style. They appear to have been coloured by the hand, in imitation of drawings. They consist first of delineations of the coast, from Ida Gargarus, round Cape Lectum, to the promontory of Rhæteum, and then of internal views, representing the most interesting points of the plain of Troy, and

the objects connected with it. Two maps are included, one of the plain, and the other of the hill of Bounarbashi.

We shall now proceed to describe the most interesting objects, and the relation which they may be supposed, with a greater or less degree of probability, to bear to the poem of the Iliad.

1st. Mount Ida. This appears to be a chain of considerable elevation, and romantic features, proceeding from north to south, but towards the south divided into two branches, one continuing its course to the sea, near the village of Gargara, and the other deviating in a western direction towards Cape Lectum. The chief summit is that of Gargarus, "and according to the best observations, has four thousand six hundred and fifty feet of perpendicular elevation above the level of the sea. Both this summit, and that of Lectum are mentioned in the Iliad. xiv. 284, 292.

2d. The plain of Troy. This object appears to be so clearly ascertained from the Iliad itself, and from the testimony of all antiquity (see the accounts of Strabo, Pliny, &c.) as scarcely to deserve to be a subject of investigation, had it not been in some instances by modern writers strangely confounded with the plain in which Alexandria Troas is situated. "In this plain," says Mr. Gell, "the greater number of the earlier travellers to the Levant imagined that they had discovered the real plain of Troy, acknowledging at the same time that the channel of a brook which might be perceived in it was insufficient for the support of a loach or minnow, though Homer had described the Scamander and Simois as copious and even overflowing rivers." Setting aside therefore this plain, which has no claim to notice from any connection with the Iliad, the only plain of any consequence in the whole line of coast from Gargarus to Sigeum, is that which commonly bears the name of the plain of Troy, and which possesses all the characters ascribed to that situation by Homer. It is situated on the Hellespont, the line of its coast is guarded by two promontories, forming its extremities; it is intersected by two rivers, one of them rising in the plain, and both proceeding by the same channel into the sea; it affords a sufficient theatre of war between the city and the sea to correspond with the events and battles described in the Iliad. Its claim therefore as the scene of those events is sufficiently ascertained.

3d. The promontories of Sigeum and Rhæteum. These names are not mentioned by Homer. The promontories themselves occur, *Il.* xiv. 36.

Ἡϊονος στομα μακρον, ὅσον συνεργαθον ἀραι, also, xv. 653. It is highly probable that the shore, intercepted between the two promontories, has considerably changed since the time of the Trojan war, and even since that of Strabo, who remarks the increase of the coast in the interval between his own time and that of the war of Troy, from the constant depositions of sand brought down by the rivers.

4th. The rivers Simois and Scamander. The Simois is much the most considerable of these two streams. It appears to rise from Mount Ida, and reaching the southern part of the hill of Bounarbashi, flows round it, through a deep defile, into the plain of Troy. Its course from this point to the sea, without regarding the windings of the stream, is about ten miles. At the ford, not far from Bounarbashi, it is described as a very rapid stream, and at least one hundred yards in breadth. The water is discoloured by the quantity of sand which it brings down from the mountains.

The Scamander rises at the foot of the hill of Bounarbashi. It proceeds in a course nearly parallel to that of the Simois, at the distance of about a mile, till their junction nearly three miles before their arrival at the sea. A great part of the waters of this river is diverted from its natural bed by a channel, mentioned by Pliny as *amnis navigabilis*, which appears to be artificial, proceeding through an opening of the hills to the western coast of the Troad, about seven miles south of Sigeum.

The Scamander rises from two springs at the distance of one hundred and seventy yards from each other, which run in separate channels for three or four hundred yards, and by their union form the river. The hot and cold springs of the Scamander, as mentioned by Homer, are well known. *Il.* xxii. 147, &c. The two sources are still distinguished by the inhabitants of Bounarbashi by the same appellations. "In the spring of the year 1801, Mr. Clarke and Mr. Cripps of Jesus college, in Cambridge, ascertained with a thermometer to which was affixed the scale of Celsius, the exact temperature of the water." It is to the liberality with which these gentlemen communicate their observations,

that I am indebted for a correct statement of the fact. The mercury stood at sixteen and a half above the freezing point, during the coldest weather of that year. Seventeen degrees and three quarters of Celsius equal sixty-four degrees on the scale of Fahrenheit."

What is called the cold spring is situated to the west of the former. "It has been discovered by the help of a thermometer, that this spring is equally warm with the former. The pool however which receives the water being of so considerable a size as to suffer it immediately to acquire the temperature of the atmosphere, it must undoubtedly have appeared cold before the invention of an instrument for ascertaining the real degree of heat. It would therefore have been thought cold in the days of Homer, and the poet is not incorrect, who describes places and scenes as they appear to the generality of mankind.

The junction of the Simois and Scamander is effected, as we have before mentioned, at the distance of about three miles from the sea. The Scamander however, by the diversion of its waters, is here reduced to an insignificant rivulet. About a mile distant from its mouth the river is crossed by a long wooden bridge, and at its entrance into the Hellespont appears to be about a furlong in breadth.

Some confusion has prevailed in the application of the names of these two rivers. In Pope's plan the eastern river is denominated the Scamander, and the western the Simois. Demetrius Scopsius, a writer quoted by Strabo, and born in the neighbourhood, speaks of the Scamander as arising from Cotulus, a hill in the chain of Ida, a description which is only applicable to the river which by modern travellers is denominated the Simois. There seem however to be satisfactory reasons for assigning the name of Simois to the eastern stream, that of Scamander to the western. The Scamander of Homer rose near the city, therefore not very distant from the sea. The peculiarity of the hot and cold springs seems to be a decisive mark. The authority of Pliny also, as Mr. Gell remarks, is in favour of this supposition, as he describes the canal which communicates the waters of the western river to the *Ægean sea*, as Scamander *amnis navigabilis*. It is possible, as Heyne remarks, that Scamander may have been the prevalent name after the junction of the two streams, that the con-

fusion in the application of it to the respective branches before their union, may have arisen from this circumstance.

There appears also to be some reason for doubting whether the present channel of the united rivers, is coincident with that of antiquity. It agrees better with the descriptions of Homer to suppose that the river flowed on the left of the camp, yet this could scarcely be the case in the present position of its bed. Appearances seem also to favour the supposition of a gradual change. The rivers are said to advance nearer to Koum Kale on the west at the present day. "The current of the Hellespont runs with rapidity from the Rhætan to the Sigeon promontory. The sand brought down by the Simois, which even discolours the sea, is by this forced upon the left bank of the river, which of course increases in time to such a degree as to block up the stream. Now the plain is so flat in this part that the smallest obstruction in one quarter would divert the stream to another, and the river could not change to the east, for there the Rhætan hill would oppose it." The accession of the waters of the Scamander before their partial diversion, would tend to give the united stream an eastern impulse. In this direction likewise several pits are apparent, which look like the remains of an ancient channel.

5th. The city of Troy. "Frustra," says Heyne, "nostra ætate locus certus urbi et arci queritur." We cannot however help thinking that the arguments which represent the hill of Bounarbashi as the site of that ancient city, possess considerable weight. In determining this question, the fountains of the Scamander present a point of great importance. These appear from a well known passage of the Iliad. (xxii. 147) to have been situated near the walls of the city. Any hill therefore in that vicinity, presenting objects correspondent to the description of Troy, is not unlikely to have been the site of that city. Such a hill is that of Bounarbashi, as will appear from the detail of particulars.

The ascent of this hill appears to be in a direction from north-west to south-east. The foot of it is near the Scamandrian fountains, and the distance of the most elevated part is about two thousand four hundred yards. The loftiest part is an elliptical elevation of about four hundred feet above the adjacent vale,

joined to the rest of the hill by a narrow isthmus, and of precipitous descent on every side, presenting the appearance of an acropolis of some ancient city.

The extremities of the hill are on all sides exceedingly rugged and steep, except near the village, where the descent into the plain is not very rapid. It appears from Homer that one part of the city presented a more accessible point of attack than the rest, and that this part was near the Erineos (vi. 433). The Erineos, or Hill of the wild Fig-tree, is described (xxii. 145) as situate between the Scæan-gate and the Scamandrian fountains, and appears to have been near each of these objects. These circumstances agree perfectly well with the topography of the hill of Bounarbashi. To the east of the warm spring of the Scamander, at the distance of about three hundred yards, is a small circular eminence at the foot of the larger hill, now used as a Turkish burial-ground, which is with probability supposed to be the Erineos. In this case the Scæan gate cannot be far distant, which is accordingly placed by Mr. Gell at the angle of a recess of the hill, a little to the south.

The upper part of the hill presents also a sufficient correspondence with the description of Homer, who represents the road from the Acropolis to the Scæan gate as passing directly through the city (vi. 392). The principal diameter of the hill of Bounarbashi passes from the Scæan gate of Mr. Gell on the north-west, to the summit on the south-east.

The circuit round the hill of Bounarbashi may be about four miles. Mr. Gell adopts the idea of Le Chevalier and Dalzel, that in the relation of the pursuit of Hector, the word *εἰς* does not necessarily imply a complete course performed round the city, and that the words of Homer are sufficiently explained if a compass was thrice performed near or before the city. The words are capable of bearing this interpretation, but, as Heyne justly remarks, it is not the sense which would naturally suggest itself to the reader. The question is however of no consequence with regard to the topography of Troy, but only to the probability of the poet's narration.

The distance of Bounarbashi from the sea, and its relation to the rivers and the station of the Greeks, corresponds with the descriptions of Homer.

Foundations of walls are visible, "which bear testimony to the former existence of inhabitants on this spot, very different from the Turks of Bounarbashi. Nearer the summit the foundation of a thick wall is visible, extending across a narrow part of the hill bounded on each side by a steep precipice. Beyond the wall the ground rises still higher, and swells out into an oval shape. On the top of this hill, which seems to have been the citadel or Pergama of Troy, more foundations are discoverable, and a surrounding wall may be traced in almost every part. On the highest point is a little mount hollowed out in the centre; round it is a circular foundation, on the north side of which is a block of squared stone. The precipices of the hill of Bounarbashi are covered with an infinite number of loose stones, which may have been used for the building of ordinary houses, and such as we had before seen used for that purpose, in the ruins of the city in Delos." The tumuli which appear on the hill of Bounarbashi will be afterwards mentioned.

6. Callicolone. The situation of this object appears to be denoted with considerable probability. It is twice mentioned by Homer (Il. xx. 53, 151), as a station chosen by the divinities, from which to behold and encourage the battle, and is said to be situated near the Simois. Strabo describes Callicolone as a hill distant ten stadia from the pagus Iliensium, near the banks of the Simois, and about five stadia in circuit. This description is probably taken from Demetrius Scepsius, a native of these regions, who is said by Strabo to have employed thirty books in explaining rather more than sixty verses of Homer. A similar account is given by the different scholiasts of Homer, who likewise refer to Demetrius, and add that the hill was situated five stadia from the Simois, precisely the distance given by Mr. Gell's map. The characters here assigned apply well to the hill on which Atche Kevi is situated. "The formation of this eminence, as well as its peculiar position, detached from the other hills which surround the plain, render it worthy of the name of Callicolone."

7. Tumulus of Æsyetes, Baticia or tumulus of Myrinne, tumulus of Ilus, *Βατικία*: *πύργος*, or elevation of the plain.

These are objects described by Homer as existing before the Trojan war.

The situation of the tumulus Æsyetes is doubtful. Two objects are pointed out by Mr. Gell as possessing a claim to this appellation; the tumulus of Udjek, considerably to the west of Troy, and commanding a most extensive prospect of sea and land, and a tumulus on the brow of the hill of Tchiblak, not far distant from the camp of the Greeks. Mr. Gell seems to prefer the former, we are inclined to prefer the latter. The tumulus of Æsyetes was the station to which Polites, son of Priam, was dispatched to observe the motions of the Greeks, and is described by Strabo as near the road leading from New Ilium to Alexandria.

The Baticia or tumulus of Myrinne is represented in the second book of the Iliad, as situated on the plain before the city, and unconnected with any other elevation. An object corresponding with these characters is pointed out by Mr. Gell, and denoted in his map.

The tumulus of Ilus is limited by Homer to some point not distant from the junction of the rivers. It was near the Scamander (Il. xxiv. 349, &c.), and yet is connected with the Throsmos, an object which is expressly said not to be distant from the station of the ships (x. 160). A tumulus is discovered near the point of junction between the rivers, on the left bank of the Scamander; the river consequently flowing between that object and the Trojan town. This, in the absence of any better claim, is naturally supposed to be the tomb of Ilus. Yet there is a passage in the twenty-fourth book of the Iliad which creates some difficulty, as seeming to imply that this tumulus was situated on the right bank, occurring to the passenger from Troy, before his arrival at the ford of the Scamander. Priam and his attendant are said, after they had passed *μεγαλὸν πύργον Ἰλίου*, to stop at the river, and give water to their mules. These words are commonly interpreted, after they had passed by the great monument of Ilus. Mr. Gell supposes that the word *πύργος* may admit of such a latitude of interpretation, as either to signify beyond, or on one side of, and refers to Il. x. 349, *πύργον ὁδοῖο*. We cannot accede to this interpretation. The general signification of the word *πύργος* is extra; its particular acceptance must be determined by the

connection of the passage in which it is used. A person may be said to be *παρεῖξ ὁδῶν*, without a road, on whichever side of it he is; but in coming from one object, we cannot see in what sense, with reference to another object, he can be said to be *παρεῖξ*, without having passed to a distance beyond it. If the difficulty were of much importance, we should be rather disposed to cut the knot than solve it, by acceding to a supposition of Mr. Gell, that "the perfect flatness of the ground immediately under the tomb of Ilus, renders it possible that the Scamander anciently joined the Simois about one hundred yards lower than at present, leaving the tomb of Ilus, where it has been so often sought, exactly on the point of the Trojan field." Were we reduced to the necessity of making the choice, we should take this side of the dilemma, thinking the waters of the Scamander more easily moveable than the sense of the word *παρεῖξ*.

The *ὄψωμας ἀνδίοιο*, or elevation of the plain, must certainly be sought for in the neighbourhood of the tomb of Ilus; as when the Trojans were encamped on the former, the latter was chosen by Hector and other chiefs, as a place of consultation separate from the tumult of the camp, (x. 415). This object is found by Mr. Gell in an elevated spot, a little to the south of the tomb of Ilus.

8. The tumuli supposed to be coincident with the æra of the Trojan war, are the last objects which claim our attention. The chief of these are, the tumulus of Protesilaus, that called by Mr. Gell the *κοινὸς τάφος*, those of Hector, Achilles, Patroclus, and Ajax.

The tumulus of Protesilaus is situated on the European side of the Hellespont, on the summit of the hill which terminates the peninsula of Thrace. Protesilaus is represented by Homer as the first of the Greeks who fell in the Trojan war, at the instant of the disembarkation of the troops. It is therefore probable, that, as he was slain before the Greeks had gained firm possession of the shore, his remains would be interred on the European side. Some important testimonies of antiquity to the existence of this tumulus, situated near the town of Eleum, and to the religious respect with which it was regarded, are still extant. It is first mentioned by Herodotus (L. ix. ad fin.) with a temple adjacent to it, erected to the memory of the hero, the treasures of which were plun-

dered by Artayctes, an officer of Xerxes. The testimonies of subsequent authors are numerous. Arrian (L. i. p. 12), relates that Alexander, when on the point of passing into Asia, offered sacrifice on the tomb of Protesilaus, praying for a more fortunate landing on the opposite coast. It appears clear, therefore, that the tumulus now visible on the European side of the Hellespont, was in periods of high antiquity regarded with honour as the supposed tomb of that hero.

Near the wooden bridge, by which the Simois is crossed at the distance of about a mile from its mouth, appears a mount of considerable elevation, evidently artificial, and now used by the Turks as a burying ground. This Mr. Gell conjectures to be the common sepulchre, mentioned by Homer (Il. viii. 485) as erected near this situation by the Greeks in honour of their slain companions.

Not far distant from the summit of the hill of Bounarbashi, is a tumulus of a singular construction, consisting of a large heap of stones, apparently thrown together in confusion, with a patch of earth on the top, producing long grass and weeds. Hector is the hero to whom this monument is assigned by the recent investigators of the country. Homer (xxiv. 662) is quoted by Mr. Gell, to shew that the tumulus of Hector was erected within the walls. We do not see how this follows from the words employed, which occur in the speech of Priam to Achilles, and are simply these, "You know how we are confined within the city, and wood is distant, to be brought from the mountain." The tomb of Hector was however certainly near the city, if not within its walls; and the latter is more probable, since, in consequence of their victories, the Greeks were in possession of all the adjoining country, and every place without the walls was exposed to the danger of their ravages. The singularity of this tumulus corresponds to Homer's description of the sepulchre of Hector, which he represents as constructed of great stones, piled over the trench in which his ashes were deposited.

Two other tumuli, of considerable dimensions, are situated on the hill of Bounarbashi; but as no probable argument can be advanced for the purpose of ascertaining in commemoration of whom they were erected, we pass them over.

The tumuli of Achilles and Patroclus.

are among the most renowned remains of antiquity on the Trojan shore. There is a passage in the *Odyssey* (xxiv, 25, &c.), though taken from a very suspicious part of that work, yet doubtless of great antiquity, in which a particular account is given of the funeral of Achilles. Of the passage which describes the tumulus, the sense is thus given by Mr. Gell; "A noble tomb was erected on a high promontory, shooting far into the broad Hellespont, that all who live, or hereafter shall live, may view this monument even from the distant waves." From this passage it may be collected, that at a very remote period a tumulus existed on the shore of the Hellespont, near the promontory of Sigeum, the station of Achilles in the Grecian camp, which was supposed to cover the ashes of that warrior. The existence in subsequent ages of a tumulus, known by the name of Achilles, near the promontory, is undoubted. See Strabo, lib. xiii. We transcribe one passage from Cicero: "*Quam multos scriptores rerum suarum magnus ille Alexander secum habuisse dicitur; atque is tamen, cum in Sigeo ad Achillis tumulum adstitisset, O fortunate, inquit, adolescens, qui tuæ virtutis Homerum præconem inveneris!*" *Pro Arch. poet.* 10. The identity of the present tumulus with that of antiquity, can scarcely be doubted. It is situated near Sigeum; its dimensions appear to be of great magnitude, and it must be a conspicuous object at a considerable distance.

At the distance of about a furlong to the east of this tumulus, is another of smaller dimensions, known by the name of Patroclus, and situated further from the sea. "Without permission to excavate," says Mr. Gell, "it is impossible to decide which of the two is the real tumulus of Achilles." We think, however, that it may fairly be presumed that the greater, the more conspicuous object, and nearer to the sea, is that which the ancients considered as the tomb of the greater hero.

The tomb of Ajax is equally celebrated with that of Achilles. "After Ajax had fallen a sacrifice to his disappointed pride, and to the ingratitude of the Greeks, his sepulchre was erected on the ground where he had defended the navy against the rage of Jove and of Hector; and the citizens of the rising town of Rhæteum celebrated his memory with divine honours." *Gibbon* iii. 11. The

confirmation of this account may be found in Strabo, Lib. xiii. Near the promontory of Rhæteum, a tumulus is still remaining, but, if we may judge from the plate, of much inferior dimensions to that of Achilles.

A few other tumuli are discoverable on or near the plain of Troy, which are doubtfully distinguished by the names of Peneleus, Antilechus, &c. There is one which deserves notice, because in his last section it is considered by Mr. Gell as possibly the Throsmos of Homer. It is situated on the left side of the supposed ancient channel of the united rivers, very near the station of the Greeks.

As a specimen of Mr. Gell's work, it may be proper to insert a longer extract than we have yet given; for which purpose we have selected part of the description of plate xxxv.

"The scene represented in this plate, is perhaps one of the most singular, as well as the most interesting that can be found in any part of the Troad. The spectator is supposed to look toward the south, and to turn his back on Bounarbashi and the Hellespont. The two tumuli on the summit of the hill behind the village, have been observed from the ford of the Simois, and many other situations in the plain below; but the curvature of the hill prevented the sight of the third monument from the lower grounds. From the aga's house a steep and rugged ascent extends to the nearest tumulus, which is about 1480 yards distant, and is of a very different construction from the other sepulchres of the country. It consists of a large conic heap of stones, apparently thrown together without any order or regularity, and on the top of it is a small patch of earth, producing long grass and weeds. On the left or east of this monument, the hill declines abruptly toward the Simois, which flows in the deep glen at its base. Proceeding in a direction nearly south from the first tumulus, the traces of a wall are perceptible among the bushes on the right, at the distance of about thirty yards. Its course and situation may be seen by referring to the map, where a small portion of it is laid down. At the distance of 120 yards from the first tumulus, a second of superior dimensions is observed, standing like the former on the edge of the precipice, but differing in construction, being composed of a mixture of earth and stones, in some parts covered with turf, and producing bushes of considerable size. Beyond this, two pits are discovered, excavated in the solid rock, and distant about 50 yards from the second tumulus. Still pursuing the same course, a third tomb is perceived of considerable size, but destroyed toward the top by time or violence. It is distant about 100 yards from the second. On

the right or western side of this the ground again falls with a very precipitous descent into a vale, watered like the glen on the left by the Simois. At the base of the third tumulus, the ruins of a thick wall, now only traced by the heap of stones which once served for its erection, may be seen, crossing the hill in the narrowest part from that monument toward the left. The whole breadth of the hill, and consequently length of the wall, is not more than 200 yards."

One or two slight oversights, which we have observed in the perusal of this work, it may be proper to mention. P. 21. "The little island of Tenedos is seen from Baba, while Lemnos, which is not more distant, is not sufficiently elevated to be visible, unless while the atmosphere is clear." If we may credit the best maps, Lemnos is nearly three times the distance of Tenedos from Baba.

P. 57 (note). "Strabo thought that Troy might be discovered somewhere in this vicinity. Whoever will take the trouble to look at the view, will see that nothing can be more faithful than the account of the geographer, and that the remarks of Mr. Bryant, who cites Homer to prove that the hill Callicolone lay before the city, and not nearer to Ida, only shews that the Pagus was not the Troy of Priam, which Strabo decidedly

delivers as his own sentiment, observing that the real Troy lay somewhere in the neighbourhood, an opinion equally agreeable to truth." To us Strabo appears to maintain, what he says was the common opinion, that the Pagus Iliensium was the site of ancient Troy, an opinion however which we consider to be clearly erroneous.

We cannot conclude without expressing our opinion that Mr. Gell has rendered a real service to the cause of ancient literature. His splendid work is executed with equal taste and care, and the end proposed appears to have been fully attained, that of enabling those "who are interested in the subject, by a careful examination of the plates, to acquire as clear a conception of the plain and its environs, as a traveller, who is not a draughtsman, could obtain in the country itself," p. 2. The plain we regard as absolutely ascertained; the situation of the city as conjectured with great probability; the tumuli appear to be of great antiquity, and several of them were considered by the ancients as sacred to the memory of the heroes whose names they now bear. Those known by the names of Achilles, Ajax, and Protesilaus, appear most deserving of notice.

CHAPTER V.

BRITISH TOPOGRAPHY

AND

ANTIQUITIES.

THE contributions during the last year, in illustration of the Topography and Antiquities of Britain, are of more than usual value.

The first volume of an excellent History of the County of Surrey, by the late Mr. Manning, has made its appearance; and a reputable, though by no means first-rate account of Gloucestershire, from the pen of Mr. Rudge. A little work entitled a Walk through Leicester, deserves to be mentioned with praise; and Mr. Williams's Picturesque Tour in Devonshire, possesses singular merit, for the accuracy and picturesque effect of its embellishments. The fifth volume of the Beauties of England will not be found inferior to the former ones. Cheltenham and Worthing have had their respective historians, who have told us enough, and more than enough, of places, the sole importance of which arises from the casual influx of summer visitants. The "Picture of London," a useful pocket duodecimo, which we noticed in our first volume, has been puffed up into a quarto, entitled Modern London, and has thus lost its principal value.

Mr. Malkin and Mr. Evans have been employed upon South Wales, and have produced very interesting and valuable books, without interfering, in any material degree, with each other. Mr. Bingley's account of North Wales, will be consulted with advantage by those who are about to visit that delightful country.

The Highlands of Scotland, from their remoteness, and the exaggerated reports of their want of decent accommodation, have, by no means, received that attention from our tourists which they deserve. The last year, however, has presented us with two works relative to this part of the British dominions; the one, an anonymous and very worthless Journal of a Tour through the Highlands: the other, a Sporting Tour through the Mid-Highlands, by Col. Thornton. This latter work is interesting, from the very novelty of its main subject, and besides, contains some admirable descriptions of the country near the head of the Spey, and is both decorated and illustrated by excellent engravings, the accuracy of which is not less to be commended than the execution.

Among the antiquarian publications, a new volume of the Archæologia; a new edition of Dr. Ledwich's Antiquities of Ireland; and the Antiquities of Gloucestershire, by Mr. Lysons, are of sterling value.

ART. I. *The History and Antiquities of the County of Surrey; compiled from the best and most authentic Histories, valuable Records, and Manuscripts in the public Offices and Libraries, and in private hands. With a Fac Simile Copy of Domesday, engraved*

on *Thirteen Plates*. By the late REV. OWEN MANNING, S. T. B. Rector of *Pepperharrow*, and Vicar of *Godalming*, in that County. Continued to the present time, by WILLIAM BRAY, of *Shire*, Esq. Fellow and Treasurer of the Society of Antiquaries of London.—Vol. 1. Folio. pp. Int. cvii. and 714.

WE always take up a ponderous folio with great reluctance, as we feel considerable repugnance in witnessing the wanton destruction, or misapplication of printing paper. This we generally anticipate in the great folio volumes of topography: for we are well convinced that no man can usefully, and engagingly, fill two, three, or four of these, as is often the case, in narrating the history of one county.

As the external aspect of the volume is not very prepossessing, let us examine its interior, where we are authorized to expect something of a superior kind, when we consider that it is the united work of a Manning and a Bray; both persons of some note in the annals of antiquarianism. Of the former we shall give an account in the language of the latter, who has prefaced the volume with the following biographical anecdotes:

“The late reverend Owen Manning, part of whose work is here presented to the publick, was eminently qualified for such an undertaking, by his critical skill in the Saxon language, by his general learning, by his social virtues, the great propriety of his deportment, and the steady discharge of his professional duties, which not only gained him the esteem but the confidence of all, and the communications of many, from whence he collected an abundant mass of information. He was for many years blessed with strong health, which defied fatigue, and he bestowed the most unwearied attention to this history (except during the four years in which he was occupied in the publication of Mr. Lye's Saxon Dictionary), till the loss of sight put a period to his labours.

“It is deeply to be regretted, that he did not, himself, complete and publish the work which his friends had so long expected and desired, before that calamity had deprived him of the power to comply with their wishes.

“He had formed a plan, differing in one respect from that of any preceding writer, on such subjects. He began with the *Terra Regis* in Domesday (or that landed property possessed by the king); and, after illustrating it by a commentary, he intended to deduce the history of those particular estates to modern times. He had himself drawn a map of all the places in the county mentioned in that venerable record (which is given in this volume), and he had caused to be engraved on copper, a *fac simile* of the whole of it which relates to this county; he had written

an introduction; he had drawn up and transcribed, in his own clear and beautiful handwriting, nearly all this part.

“For the other parts of the county he had made large collections, but these are left merely in the form of notes, with the exception of a very few parishes, which he had begun to digest.

“Under these circumstances, it has fallen to the lot of one who shrinks from every, the smallest degree of comparison, to endeavour a completion of the work. All he can say, in excuse for the attempt, is, that, from an early part of his life, he had attended to the history of his native soil, to which he is bound by so many ties; that he had had opportunities of giving considerable information to Mr. Manning, of the descent of manors, &c. as well from his own collection as from the British Museum; that he never lost sight of what he, in common with every one, most anxiously wished to have received from the pen of his friend; that he has visited nearly all the churches in the county; that, on venturing to intimate his present intentions, the public offices of record have been opened to him in that very handsome and liberal manner which Mr. Manning had himself experienced; and that many gentlemen of the county, and many of his professional brethren, have most readily given their assistance. Amongst the latter, Mr. Barnes, Mr. Glover, and Mr. Bryant, stand foremost for the multiplicity of their communication.

“Mr. Bryant, who is preparing for the press a History of the Town and Hundred of Reigate, in this county, did, at first, intend to go beyond those limits, and had collected many materials for that purpose, and, in the course of his researches, had obtained much information, as to other parts of the county, has liberally given to this work all that does not relate to his own intended publication, together with some copper plates which will appear in the second volume.

“By detailing these advantages, the editor is aware that he renders his own inability to make sufficient use of them the more manifest; but, to omit the mention, would be unpardonable. He has but one more excuse to offer for his presumption, which perhaps should have taken place of all others; that is, a very ardent desire to serve, as far as his abilities allow, the widow and family of his much esteemed friend, for whose benefit this publication is made. If it please God to spare his life, and to continue his health, he means to give up all the leisure time which his numerous avocations will allow, to the prosecution of the undertaking, trespassing as little as may be on the indulgence of the subscribers.

"The work is Mr. Manning's; the imperfections must be acknowledged by the editor to be his own. Mr. Manning is not answerable for any mistakes that may be found in the parts included in hooks, marked with asterisks. [* *]"

In a subsequent part of the preface, the editor informs us, that Mr. Manning was born August 11, 1721, and was educated in Queen's college Cambridge; mentions the several degrees which he attained, the livings to which he was successively inducted: and introduces the following remarkable circumstance: "Whilst he," Mr. Manning, "was at the university, he fell sick of the small-pox, and was supposed to have been dead. His body was laid out for interment, when his father, who was at Cambridge, and had supposed him dead, went again into the room, and without seeing any cause for hope, said, 'I will give my poor boy another chance,' and at the same time raised him up, which almost immediately produced signs of life: proper means were used, and he was happily restored to his friends, and to the world, which has been so much benefited by his subsequent labours. He died Sept. 9, 1801, aged 80."

Such are the particulars that Mr. Bray has given of the work, and of its author. It now remains for us to furnish the reader with a few hints of both, that he may be enabled to estimate the execution of the History of Surrey. This volume, however, being only a portion of that history (whose extent and termination we are not capable of ascertaining), we shall merely give a short account of it, at present, and wait its progress or completion, before we offer our decided opinion of its real or relative merit. It is dedicated by the widow of the late author, to his majesty, who has subscribed for two large paper copies. A long list of respectable subscribers follows, and we hope that the dedicator will find this increase as the work advances. In the introduction, Mr. Manning has given "a brief description of the county in general, and of the military, civil, and ecclesiastical establishments within the same." He commences with a few observations on its early inhabitants, its ancient names, and its boundaries, but has not said any thing relating to the Roman stations, roads, and other antiquities, which belong to the county, and which, according to our opinion, properly connect with, and form a part of its ancient history.—

Though our author has been rather defective on this head, he has endeavoured to make up for it, by a particular history and description of the rivers Wey and Mole. The latter has excited some publicity from a supposed peculiarity of sinking under ground, and rising again. This fancied phenomenon has been the theme of much dissertation, and often provoked the wonder of credulity, but the following rational account will tend to divest it of its fabled property.

"The Mole," says Camden, "coming to White Hill (the same probably that is now called Box Hill), hides itself, or is rather swallowed up, at the foot of the hill there; and for that reason, the place is called the Swallow; but about two miles below, it bubbles up, and rises again; so that the inhabitants of this tract, no less than the Spaniards, may boast of having a bridge that feeds several flocks of sheep." From this fabulous account, plainly founded on an idea suggested by common report, a reader might be led to imagine, that the river actually disappears at this place—forms a channel beneath the surface of the earth, and, at a certain distance, rises again, and pursues its course above ground. But the truth of the matter seems to be this. The soil, as well under the bed of the river, as beneath the surface on each side, being of a spongy and porous texture, and, by degrees, probably become formed into caverns of different dimensions, admits through certain passages, in the banks and bottom, the water of the river. In ordinary seasons, these receptacles being full, as not discharging their contents faster than they are supplied by the river, the water of the river does not subside, and the stream suffers no diminution. But, in times of drought, the water within these caverns being gradually absorbed, that of the river is drawn off into them; and in proportion to the degree of drought, the stream is diminished. In very dry seasons, the current is, in certain places, (particularly at Burford bridge, near Box-hill, and a little lower, between that and Norbury park-gate, and at that gate and Norbury meadows) entirely exhausted, and the channel remains dry [*except here and there a standing pool. By the bridge at Thorcroft, it rises again in a strong spring, and after that the current is constant.*] At a place called the Way-pool, near the turnpike-gate, but on the side of the river next to Box-hill, the method in which the water is thus occasionally drawn off is visible to the observer. It hath here formed a kind of circular basin, about thirty feet in diameter, which is supplied, in the ordinary state of the current, by an inlet from the river, of about two feet in breadth, and one in depth. This inlet being stopped, the water in the basin is soon observed to subside, and in less than an hour, totally disappears; when the chasms, through

which it passes off, at different depths from the upper edge of the basin, may easily be discerned. And, from this circumstance of betaking itself occasionally to these subterraneous passages, the river probably derived its present name of the Mole."

The most interesting part of the introduction is that containing a long historical and descriptive account of such part of the Windsor forest as is included within the boundary line of Surrey. In narrating this, the author has developed many curious documents, and concentrated a number of historical anecdotes, some of which strongly characterise the injustice and tyranny of ancient forest laws. Under the head of "Civil Establishments of the County," we have a long, and rather irrelevant account of the earls and sheriffs of Surrey. These personages, though they may derive a *title*, or an official name from the shire, have frequently but few claims on, or connections with it. Hence we may fairly class this with the extraneous matter which is too frequently dragged into county histories. Though some authors may still continue the practice, and others approve it, we cannot too strongly reprobate the custom of introducing, so frequently, histories and dissertations on persons, places, and things, that are not directly and particularly connected with the places under notice. It is the province of judgment and taste to prescribe certain bounds for collateral anecdote and history, without which, there is no criterion to govern the pen of the author, or direct the opinion of the critic.—County historians have rarely ever possessed these eminent qualities, or at least have failed to exercise them. For this reason, we must find fault with the *long lists* of names of M. P.'s, sheriffs, mayors, &c. which occupy *several full pages* of this volume. If such lists are either useful or necessary, they should be printed in a very small type, at the end of the volume. The transcripts of tombstones, except such as relate to popular characters, are subject to the same objection.

After the introduction, is given a *fac simile* of that part of Domesday book which relates to Surrey. This comprises thirteen copper plate pages, and, by persons who have never seen the original, it will be viewed as a curiosity. The parochial history of the county commences with Guildford, or as the author writes it *Gihlford*; the account of which occupies

104 pages. The author has detailed a copious history of the ancient castle, the town, abbot's hospital, and monastery of Wherwell. In the course of this long narrative, we have many interesting particulars, and the author has described places, and related events with perspicuity, and a smoothness of diction, which are not often found in topographical histories.

The town of Woking, with its manorial appendages, form the subject of dissertation for 53 pages. The account of it in Domesday book, is succeeded by a commentary on the property, and the descent of the manor, with some account of many persons into whose hands it fell. Bermondsey, being in the neighbourhood of the metropolis, is proper to be explored, and the author has taken adequate pains to make the subject worthy of enquiry; his account of the priory, conventual church, St. Thomas's hospital, the schools, and the rectory, form a desirable, though rather prolix, specimen of parochial history. In the account of the parish of Rotherhithe, we are informed of the trench, said to be dug by Canute, from the wet dock, to the westward of London bridge, and a number of other interesting particulars. Merton, with the history of the priory, is very satisfactory, without being needlessly prolix. The account of Wallingford takes up only three pages, but contains some valuable comparative strictures upon that ancient station of the Romans, which Antoninus calls Noviomagus. The descent of the manor of Keygate is drawn with accuracy, and is detailed, like other manors, through various generations. The account of lord chancellor Somers, and sir Joseph Jekyll, does credit to the abilities of Mr. Manning. There is a good description of the priory which formerly belonged to this place. The town of Kingston next engages the reader's attention, and in its varied narrative of descents, alienations, spiritualities, &c. the usual appendages to county history, the patient peruser is rewarded with much useful information. The bridge is described as the oldest on the river Thames, except London bridge, and the methods of gathering the tolls, during different periods, is curious. The account of the manor and house of Ham, with the history of its owners, is conveyed in smooth and pleasing diction. Richmond, anciently Shene, is described in the same accurate manner; and the his-

tory of its priory and palace is well worthy of inspection. The small village of Petersham, contains nothing peculiarly interesting except evidences of the author's industry and attention. Kew, with the palace, bridge, and chapel, come under the same predicament, except that the chapel yard contains the mortal remains of some ingenious men, particularly Gainsborough, the justly admired landscape painter. In Thames Ditton, the anecdotes of Carleton and Dorchester, temp. Car. i. are well written. East Molesey contains nothing worthy notice. In the account of Ewel, some anecdotes are given of bishop Corbet, who was born there. There is nothing very noticeable in Feckham, except an account of the pond, formed by several strong springs, which turn a mill capable of grinding twenty loads of corn in a week: a number of tumuli have also been discovered here. In Gum-Sele, are given a few interesting particulars, concerning manors and parishes. The history of Ewhurst contains a copy of a warrant, issued in 1656, for levying the monthly assessment towards maintaining "the armyes and navyes of the commonwealth, after the rate of 60,000*l.* per month." Shire is well described; great pains have also been taken with the pedigree of Bray, and some anecdotes of sir Reginald Bray are interesting; they are, therefore, extracted with their accompanied notes of reference, &c. as a fair specimen of the biographical part of the work.

"Reginald, the eldest son of sir Richard by his second wife [* was born in the parish of St. John's, Bedwardyn, near Worcester, and *] had been some time retained in the service of Margaret, countess of Richmond, when Henry, duke of Buckingham, and Morton, bishop of Ely, had projected the elevation of Henry, her son, to the throne, and the union of the two houses of York and Lancaster, by his marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. When this fine stroke of sound policy had been properly digested, by those with whom it originated, this Reginald was thought the safest person to be entrusted with the future conduct of it,

as "a man," (to use the bishop's own words when he recommended him to the duke), "who was sober, secret, and well-witted; and whose prudent policy was known to have compassed things of great importance." He was accordingly sent for by the bishop, out of Lancashire, where he then was, with the countess, his mistress, at the house of sir Thomas Stanley, her husband: and, arriving at Brecknock castle, where the bishop then resided, in the custody of Buckingham, was let into this important secret, and remanded to Lancashire, to impart it to the countess. From the time the countess took up the business, Mr. Bray seems to have been principally employed in strengthening her party at home, by engaging persons of consideration to join it; and by his interest, sir Giles D'Aubeny, sir John Cheney, Richard Gildford, and others were brought over. The event is well known, Henry obtained the crown; and Bray, as having been an active instrument in his advancement, was munificently rewarded. Soon after the king's accession, he had the honour of knighthood conferred upon him; for, by that title, he was summoned to the first privy council that assembled in his reign. In the same year he had a grant of the constablership of the castle of Oakham, co. Rutland, and was appointed joint chief justice, with John Radcliff, lord Fitzwalter, of the forests south of Trent. In the third of this king, he was appointed keeper of the parks of Gildford and Henley, with the manor of Claygate in Ash, for life; and, the year following, by letters patent, dated at Maidstone 23d Dec. 1483, a commissioner for raising the quota of archers to be furnished by the counties of Surrey, Hants, and Middlesex, for the relief of Bretagne: [* In 3d Hen. VII. he had a grant for life, of the manors of Eyton, Totternhoo, and Houghton Regis, com. Bedford, late John lord Zouch, paying 100 marks a year; in 5 Hen. VII. he had a grant of them, and of the manors of Mentmore and Ledburn, and a mill in Edlehurst, to him and his heirs male, which was ratified in 7 Hen. VII.; and, by indenture, dated 9th May, 1492, was retained to serve one whole year in parts beyond the seas, with twelve men of arms (including himself, having his custrel †† and page), twenty-four half lances, seventy-seven archers on horseback, and two hundred and thirty-one archers, and twenty-four bill-men, on foot ††; being, at the same time, made paymaster of the forces destined for the expedition §§. [* On the king's intended journey

* All the passages between brackets [* *] are the additions of Mr. Bray.

† Holinshed, &c. ‡ Holinshed, Stow, &c.

§ In a MS. collection of Mr. Anstis, he is said to have been created K. B. at the coronation of Henry; but no mention is made thereof by any of our historians.

|| Pat. 1 Hen. VII. p. 2. Rolls Chap. ||| Anstis MS.

¶ Pat. 4 Hen. VII. m. 20 dors. Rymer, XII. 350.

** Rolls Chap. †† Shield-bearer. †† Pat. 7th Hen. VII. Rymer, XII. 480.

§§ Thesaurarius Guerrarum, in partibus Francie, as he is called in protections granted on this occasion. Rot. Franc. 7th Hen. VII. 8th Hen. VII. m. 13. Rymer, XII. 470.

to France, sir Reginald was one of those in whom the king vested his estates belonging to the duchy of Lancaster, for the purpose of fulfilling his will*. In 1494, he was elected high steward of Oxford. The letter under the common seal, notifying the election, and earnestly praying him to accept the office, is dated 4th June, and with one to Dr. Mayow, intreating him to use his interest with sir Reginald, to accept it, are copied in the register-book of letters, in the tower of the schools at Oxford, marked F. †. There is also a letter of thanks for his accepting the office, and for a donation of 40 mares, towards building St. Mary's church, dated 6th Id. Dec. ‡.]

"The chapel of St. George, at Windsor, and that of his royal master king Henry VII. at Westminster, are standing monuments of his liberality and taste in the polite arts. To the former of these, he was a considerable benefactor, as well by his attention in conducting the improvements made upon that structure by the king, as by his contributions to the support of it, after his death. He built also, at his own expence, in the middle of the south aisle a chapel which still bears his name; and in divers parts of which [* as well as on the ceiling of the church*] his arms, crest, and the initial letters of his name are still to be seen; as also a device of his frequently repeated both on the outer and inner side of the cornice, dividing this chapel from the south aisle of the church, representing an instrument used by the manufacturers of hemp, and called an hemp-breaker. [† It is also on the lock of the door of this chapel, and remains on many of the windows of the church*]. The design of Henry the seventh's chapel at Westminster, is supposed to have been his; and the first stone thereof was laid by him, in conjunction with the Abbot Islip, and others, 24th Jan. 1502-3 ††. But, on the 5th of August following, he departed this life ‡, and was interred in the above-mentioned chapel of his own foundation at Windsor. On opening a vault in this place, for the interment of Dr. Waterland, in 1740, a leaden coffin of an ancient form was discovered, which was supposed to be sir Reginald's, and, by order of the dean, immediately covered with an arch. He married Catharine, daughter of Nicholas Husee, a descendant of the ancient barons of that name in the time of Edward III. as appears from their having been formerly possessed|| of divers of the manors hereafter mentioned, and which came to sir Reginald by this marriage.

"[* Mr. Churton, in his beforementioned work, speaks of him as the early and constant friend of the bishop, that he received from the crown innumerable patents, marks of favour, or grants of emolument, which, as

they did not corrupt, served only to display the integrity of the senator and the statesman. He censured, with freedom and firmness, the faults of the court, where his counsel carried so great sway that, had he not died before Henry, the acts of rapacity and oppression, with which that monarch's latter annals are disgraced, would, no doubt, have been less numerous and less flagrant, if not entirely prevented ¶. In the letter from the university of Oxford, to him, abovementioned, they say—"Quoniam—apud metuendissimum principem nostrum tantum tibi liceat quantum libet (libet autem nihil quod non liceat)," &c.

"In the library at Westminster, are many original letters, addressed to sir Reginald, by Smith, bishop of Lincoln, other bishops, and many noblemen and others, and many on his own private business. Amongst the latter, is an account of the expence of building a house at Princes Risborough, in Bucks; what estate he had there does not appear, and there is not now an ancient mansion house in the place*]."

The author now proceeds with parochial history, and describes Cranley, which contains nothing very curious, except some painted glass in the church. The history of Dorking manor, and parish, has been collected with considerable assiduity, and is fully developed. The account of West Betchworth is drawn up with care, and several amusing anecdotes of Abraham Tucker, esq. are introduced. We think, however, that something more should have been said concerning that beautiful spot Box-hill, which is passed over in a few lines. A short, but good description of the late Mr. Tyers's seat called Denbighs is given. The late Jeremiah Markland, esq. was a resident in Dorking, during the latter part of his life: this circumstance occasions the author to relate many biographical anecdotes of his manners, and extensive learning, with some account of his writings; a portrait of him is also engraved.

Modeling, the author's own living, has employed much of his assiduity and attention. The account of the different manors and tythings, and of the corporation, is a desideratum in parochial history. The anecdotes of the Oglethorpe family, and of general Oglethorpe, of Philip Carteret Webb, esq. and other persons and places which have honoured

* [* Rolls of Parliament, Vol. vi. 444.*]

† [* Epist. 400 f. 175 b. † Epist. 406 f. 176 b.*]

†† Stow's Anna's. § Hollinshead, Stow, Radin, I. 635, note.

|| Dugdale, Bar. I. 622. ¶ P. 208, 207, &c.

or are connected with the parish of Godalming, form a complete system of what ought to be expected from the annals of such an extensive and interesting domain. Haslemere, though a borough, &c. does not afford any interesting information. The volume concludes with some material addenda, and a copious index.

To the inhabitants, and those who have interest in a county, its history must be a document of the greatest importance; therefore, the inhabitants of Surrey must contemplate the progress and completion of Mr. Manning's history with solicitude and pleasure. Its local utility, the pains manifested to render it full and satisfactory, and some of its embellishments, are creditable to the talents, industry, and erudition of the author. Mr. Bray, the continuer of the history to the present period, has done credit to that part of the work which he has contributed, and has evinced himself to be an able coadjutor.

Respecting the embellishments of the volume, it remains for us to say a few

words. As plates tend greatly to enhance the price of these works, the reader is entitled to expect and require that they should be worth the additional sum charged for them. Bad engravings are not merely useless, but are impositions on the purchaser, an injury to the public, and a disgrace to the national taste: whereas good ones are gratifying to the eye, instructive to the mind, and highly creditable to the author, to the draughtsman, engraver, and to the country.—Viewing them in this light, we cannot help deploring the practice of introducing the former so frequently into county histories. Instead of correct portraits of fine or interesting buildings and scenes, we have ill-drawn representations of ill-built churches, and bird's eye views of tasteless villas. In the present volume, we have, unfortunately, some of this description, although it appears that the gentlemen of the county have liberally contributed to its embellishment. We hope that the second volume will come before us with the passport of better names attached to its plates.

ART. II. *The History of the County of Gloucester; compressed and brought down to the Year 1803. By the Rev. THOMAS RUDGE, B. D.* 2 vols. 8vo. Gloucester printed. pp. 522 and 409.

AS the COUNTY HISTORY is generally considered a work of much greater importance, and assumes greater pretensions, than tours, or dissertations on some separate town or place of antiquity, we shall preface our account of Mr. Rudge's book with a few observations on such works in general.

Topography may justly be considered as minuter geography. The one embraces and comprehends a number of kingdoms and provinces, and must therefore be general in its views, and succinct in its descriptions; whilst the other, being confined to a comparatively small tract of territory, may include a greater variety of objects, and be more circumstantial in its details. While the geographer enlivens that otherwise dull study, with the natural, political, civil, or statistical history of the countries he describes, the topographer ramifies these subjects, and fertilizes the uninteresting field, by introducing the streams of antiquarian, architectural, biographical, and genealogical research; and if he indulges not too freely in topics like these, they tend to render local description more general, and to confer additional value

upon topographical works. But urged frequently by the barrenness of the district chosen for investigation, and tempted by the privileges usually granted, or assumed, on such occasions, many writers become unnecessarily and tediously prolix; thence they introduce extraneous matter, which, if not irrelevant, is often but ill calculated to adorn the subject. The smaller the district investigated, the greater liability there is to fall into this error. In describing villages and small parishes, a writer can scarcely avoid a similarity of remark, and therefore it commonly happens with dull topographers, that unengaging uniformity, and disgusting tautology, characterize their productions. What is termed *county history*, especially the parochial division of it, is very commonly of this kind; and most of these have been justly looked upon as ponderous collections of useless information, or a sort of *learned lumber*, only fitted to occupy the undisturbed shelves of a large library. But these works, when properly written, are certainly books of entertainment and utility, and in both these respects of universal interest; for, as Warton pertinently ob-

serves, "such works may be made the vehicles of much general information, and such too as is highly interesting to every reader of liberal curiosity, for what is local is often national."

In bringing together crude and heterogeneous materials, great skill is requisite in selection, and judgment in the arrangement. Each particle of information should be properly appreciated, all should combine in forming a whole, and with a multiplicity of documents, revision and compression are the great essentials towards perspicuity. A want of due attention to these points constitutes the glaring defects of many county histories. In one we find an undue preference is paid to antiquarian subjects, in another, to the transfer of property, and a third, to genealogies, to the entire exclusion of subjects more generally and more really useful. Long genealogical tables may flatter those whose greatest vanity lies in descent and alliances, or may prove useful to the Heralds' office, but they can afford but little interest or amusement to general readers. The changes of property, and descent of manors, might be useful to a person who should undertake to write a continuation of the proprietary record called Domesday Book; but the investigation and detail of this subject has too long occupied the pages of topography. It is dull, uninteresting, and, by frequent repetition, completely disgusting. Biographical anecdotes of good or learned characters are directly the reverse of the former, and should therefore be an object of particular inquiry with the county historian. Every man distinguished for his learning and talents reflects consequence on the place of his nativity. Let it be understood, that we do not wish, by the foregoing remarks, to depreciate the subject of antiquities. A knowledge of them is of great importance, and a proper investigation and account of them is highly conducive to the elegant and useful arts. But we cannot conceive that the *uninteresting* inscription, is a little more valuable because half obliterated, or because it has remained in obscurity for a century.

Ecclesiastical and natural history, biography, agriculture, arts, and manufactures, state of inhabitants, observations on their advantages and disadvantages in the comparative scale of civilization and refinement, with hints for future improvement, should be especial objects of consideration and inquiry with the county historian and tourist. And to prove that when these are attended to, even the small districts of single parishes and towns may furnish, in proper hands, both useful and entertaining information, we need only mention Pennant's History of Whiteford and Holywell, Durnsford's History of Tiverton, Dyde's History of Tewkesbury, and Fuller's History of Berwick. Still, however, we are decidedly of opinion, that a book which embraces so many subjects as ought to be included in a county history, should be the joint production of different persons, each taking up that peculiar branch of the subject which is most congenial with his partialities and pursuits. The accumulated mass of information should then be arranged and methodized by *one* person, the most able, as editor.

Several of the English counties are still without a local history, but Gloucestershire, more favoured than any, has had three*, besides several parts of others. We have a right, therefore, on this account to expect and require more valuable information in one published with these advantages. Sensible however of the difficulties attendant on such undertakings, both from the extensive field they embrace, as well as the transitory nature of many necessary materials, we shall make all due allowance to the author, in giving our opinion of his work, and, should we err, it shall be on the side of candour. Mr. Rudge merely styles his work a compilation, professing only to compress the matter of sir Robert Atkyns's History into a narrower compass, supply its defects, correct its errors by the aid of subsequent historians, and to fill up the interval between the publication of that and his own work. The execution of this task is arduous, and to do it *well* would be laudable, and

* Sir Robert Atkyns's History of the County; one large folio volume: this has gone into a second edition.—Rudder's new History of Gloucestershire; another large folio volume.—Bigland's History of the County; folio; consisting almost wholly of monumental inscriptions indiscriminately inserted.—The present History of the County.—Fosbrooke's History: quarto; now publishing.—Besides smaller Histories of Cirencester, Tewkesbury, Cheltenham, &c.

highly meritorious. Let us see how far our author has accomplished it, what he has done, and what left undone.

He commences his work by a general account of Gloucestershire, its natural and political divisions, appellations, ancient history, navigable and not navigable rivers, and canals, British antiquities, military and civil architecture, manorial and other ancient houses, roads, public buildings and institutions; botany, mineralogy, and lithology, picturesque appearance, manorial and other property, population, ecclesiastical state, buildings, biography, arms of nobility and gentry, &c. This forms the first part; and the second comprizes the parochial history; according to the four grand divisions of the county—Kiftsgate, Seven Hundreds, Forest, and Berkeley: these are again subdivided into hundreds, these into parishes, and these into tythings and hamlets. The first part is by far the most amusing and readable, though the latter may be most instructive to the residents in the county.

We confess, however, after the slight detail, sometimes merely a brief enumeration of objects, given in the first part, that we should have met with a fuller explanation of them under the respective places where they may be found: but in this we were disappointed; in some instances no notice being taken of them, or simply referred to in the general account. Mr. Rudge in his preface deprecates criticism, by observing, "that his aim and wish has been to amuse and inform," and assures us, that he has admitted nothing which "can either hurt the feelings of the living, insult the memory of the dead, or pass the slightest censure on any public institution or establishment." But when a man commences author, he is no longer a private character, nor should he then observe a neutral conduct. His motto should be in the words of Shakespear, "Nothing extenuate, nor set down ought in malice." Nor will the public bestow their meed of approbation, if they suspect that truth has been in any way withheld from their view.

In deducing the etymon of names, Mr. Rudge observes he has seldom ventured an opinion of *his own*, though he has attempted to correct former ideas, in which case the insertions and corrections must be placed to his own account. In this department he appears not very successful. Thus *Seven* or *Even*, we do not

consider a British name common to rivers; *Mæon* or *Mæen* will not easily be deduced from *Iceni magni*; *Mæn* and *Mæna* is a ridge or ridgy mountain, hence *Meen Hill*, near Campden, and others in Devonshire and Cornwall;—we should derive *Cleeve* not from *Cliv*, but from *Cleve* or *Cleave*, to divide; the ridge of hills being called *Cleave-Clouds*. *Clifford* may be better derived from *Clay-ford*, descriptive of the place. *Severn* is better derived from the two united streams of *Se* and *Afren*, afterwards softened into *Seavern*, as it was formerly spelt. *Dane's Wood*, as the forest of Dean was called, was anciently *Danys-coed*, which, in the British, means a wood abounding with red deer, and for which it is now famous: hence its derivation rather than from the danes or dens, *i.e.* small valleys: the translator not understanding *Danys*, left that word untranslated. Etymological discussion has been considered by some as *scientia ad libitum*; yet a stricter attention to it would tend not only to ascertain places, but serve often to illustrate ancient manners and customs.

Under the title of antiquities, Mr. Rudge says, "care has been taken to notice every remaining monument of the county;" omissions however occur which might have been easily supplied; but Mr. Rudge does not seem partial to antiquities, for what he has said relating to the British and Roman remains is unconnected extracts from King, Rowland, and Stukeley, than whom none are more visionary and hypothetical. And here we think Mr. Rudge should have paid more attention to ancient and local customs: for, by placing the customs and habits of former days in contrast with those of the present, a favourable view is given of the advantages and comforts derived from the present improved state of society. Among others omitted, we notice the following. The custom of making twelve fires on the feast of Epiphany, round which agricultural servants sit regaling themselves with carraway cakes and cyder; these are furnished at the expence of their masters, whose healths they drink: and afterwards numerous potations are made for the success of the future harvest. This evidently resembles one mentioned by Wormius, as prevalent among the ancient Danes. An account also of the *Cotswold Games*, instituted the beginning of the last century by Dr. Dover, and which,

though they may have degenerated, yet still occasion considerable resort. These we find particularly described in a work which we shall notice in a subsequent article, *Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. v.; in which volume we also find many places described that are barely noticed in this *History of Gloucestershire*. The various tumblings on what they call communion days are certainly highly characteristic of the peculiar manners of the times in which they were instituted. In the account of seats and manorial houses, we could have wished to have seen a list of portraits, pictures, statues, valuable or rare books, MSS. &c.

On the subject of Roman roads, stations, encampments, &c. Mr. Rudge, after giving the opinion of several writers, joins with Mr. Cox in fixing the *ABONE* of Antoninus at Sea Mills, where the river Trim empties itself into the Avon; but we think Mr. Evans, in his "*Letters on South Wales*," has adduced satisfactory evidence to prove that the camps at Clifton were the station alluded to in the *Itinerary*. The large camp on Mazon Hill, in the parish of Queinton, is supposed by our author to have been thrown up by the *West Saxons*; but the form characterizes it as Roman, and numerous coins of the lower empire have been dug up at Wincot, the tything in which it stands.

The priory of Deerhurst was founded soon after that of Tewkesbury, A. D. 750, and not 150, as stated by Mr. Rudge.

The battle said (upon the authority of Hume) to have been fought between Alfred and the Danes at this place, was fought at *Buttington, in Shropshire, a village near Poole*. It was highly improbable, that the Welsh should suddenly have joined the English at this place, as it is stated they did. Huntington simply says, that the battle was fought at a place of this name; and the *Saxon Chronicle* fixes the place as above stated, and adds, *it was fought A. D. 894*.

The valuable saline springs in this parish are not mentioned. The port of Gatcombe is omitted, to which belongs rather what is said of the trade at Newnham. The large bone found in the cliffs at Westbury (vol. ii. p. 83.) which Rudder supposes belonged to an elephant, Mr. Rudge observes is highly probable, from a circumstance mentioned by Dion that Claudius brought elephants with him into Britain. But it may easily be proved

that the *blue clay stone*, in which it was imbedded, existed many centuries antecedent to the Roman invasion.

The error of the Severn rising from a lake on the side of Plinlimmon is still continued by Mr. Rudge: that river rises from a small chalybeate spring in a chasm formed by the stream of another spring, which in summer is dry.—See Evans's *Tour through Part of North Wales*, 2nd edit. 1802.

The statement Mr. Rudge gives of navigable canals in the instances of the Hereford and Gloucester, and the Berkeley, affords but little encouragement to speculate in such undertakings.

In the account of public buildings, Mr. Rudge makes some excellent remarks: Gloucester having early led the way in adopting the plan of confinement suggested by the benevolent Howard.

The county of Gloucester has not usually been considered as *picturesque*: but Mr. Rudge thinks that it stands high in the scale of *picturesque beauty*; and he has adduced a variety of scenes which prove that his opinion is just. He might have added the view from the upper part of the parish of Awre—the delicious scenery about the Wye at Bykenor—and the grand reach from Almondsbury Hill.

Mr. Rudge has very carefully extracted the different accounts of manorial property from the great national record, or English terrier *Domesday Book*, and as the greater part of the landed property immediately preceding this event passed into new hands, the Normans, this is as far up as a description of manorial property can well extend. The subsequent accounts are extracted more particularly from the Inquisitions ad quod damnum, the Pipe Rolls of the reigns of Henry II. Richard I. and John, MSS. in the British Museum and Bodleian Library: but as these are copied from Atkyns, Mr. Rudge declines being answerable for their accuracy. The continuation is of course *his own*, and here we feel a pleasure in saying that, from considerable local knowledge, this part appears to be faithfully, though very dryly executed. To us, however, who are obliged on these occasions to wade through ponderous folios, the difference with which men judge of the relative importance of their fellow-creatures in society is obviously striking: while Mr. Rudge mentions only names possessed of manors or estates nearly equal to them, Bigland

gives us the names contained upon *every tomb* and headstone, descending even, as far as these records furnish, to give "The short and simple annals of the poor."

Mr. Rudge in tracing the causes of the very extensive division of property, among many judicious remarks has omitted *the grand cause*, the origin of boroughs, and the grants and privileges made to corporate bodies in the frequent contests between the prerogative of the crown and the power of the barons. These alienated numerous estates from feudal claims, and delivered thousands from the yoke of vassalage. It was the first dawn of English liberty after the Norman conquest; and the extension of this system, by the exemptions it led to, created further divisions of manorial property. Still, however, the church was accumulating, till the dissolution of the monasteries in the reign of Henry VIII. made a general scattering. This, followed up by the statutes of mortmain, produced such a rapid subdivision, that in the fifth of James I. there were only 79 persons in the county of Gloucester charged with ten pounds and upwards, as appears from the Subsidial Register. Since this period, the improvements in agriculture and other arts, with the extension of our trade and commerce, have tended to further the division; and the luxury of the great landholders has contributed greatly to facilitate it. In 1087 there were only 78 proprietors, exclusive of the king and church; and in 1776, during the contested election, the number of freeholders polled was 5792.

Mr. Rudge's observations on ecclesiastical buildings, and his application of many of the rules laid down in the *Archæology*, appear to correspond with the buildings according to their history, or as deduced by a comparison with others of a similar nature. The variety of architecture displayed by the churches in this diocese is not surpassed, if equalled, by any in the kingdom.* Specimens are afforded of what is called Saxon, Saxon-Gothic, Gothic, ornamental Gothic, highly florid Gothic, and Grecian. It is much to be regretted, that writers will still continue to use the term *Gothic*, as applicable to that beautiful and interesting style of architecture, which adorns

most of the *fine* churches of this country.

In addition to Mr. Rudge's very proper attention to these proud monuments of antiquity, we wish that he had afforded some to remarkable tombs, the records of the arts in the different periods, and to singular and striking monumental inscriptions, which are often conducive to the illustration of manners, or the state of religion. The errors that others have run into on such occasions should not have deterred Mr. Rudge from paying a rational regard to tombs and inscriptions.

In agriculture, botany, and mineralogy, more ample accounts would have been proper and desirable additions. Hints respecting the first, wherein it materially differed from other counties, should have been inserted. In the second, a greater list of habitats, or a better list of the plantæ rariores would have been proper. And in the third, abounding as this county does with several of the most useful minerals, a more detailed account of them, with their application to the arts, would have been a valuable acquisition; but we are sorry to remark that these are subjects which our author either totally neglects, or treats very unsatisfactorily whenever he mentions them.

Among omissions—in the list of fish, we noticed cray-fish and elvers: the first not very common, but the latter is almost peculiar to this county. We expected also a more ample account of the staple trade, clothing, its origin, state, and importance: and an analysis of the Stroud-water, so famous for dying scarlet, and producing a colour whose lustre defies Europe to imitate. The skill exercised there has been equally employed at other places, without the desired effect.—At Berkeley, the name of Jenner would have led to mention the discovery considered of such universal importance, *the cow-pox* and *vaccination*.

If, however, Mr. Rudge has failed to accomplish all that could be wished, he has performed considerable service in removing much of the rubbish which retards our progress in knowledge. As far as he has gone, he has our grateful thanks; we only regret he has not gone further: this, however, may yet be done;

* This is particularly seen by Mr. Lysons's volume of etchings, which we shall notice in the course of this chapter.

and we have no doubt but the History of the City of Gloucester, which he promises to publish as the third volume to this work, will contain much valuable matter. We hope to have the pleasure of noticing it in our next annual campaign.

Mr. Rudge's style is generally correct; and, where he has any opportunity, amidst the crowded assemblage of names and dates, perspicuous and chaste. —We object to the use of *vicinal* as an

adjective—*battlemented* for *embattled*—and the constant use of the nominative for the genitive case in the patronymic names of churches, as St. Oswald for St. Oswald's, &c.

We have often had occasion to lament the want of indexes to works: and are frequently perplexed to find out particular passages and subjects. Mr. Rudge has endeavoured to remove this inconvenience, but has given us another, by making *five* indexes.

ART. III. *A Walk through Leicester; being a Guide to Strangers; containing a Description of the Town and its Environs; with Remarks upon its Antiquities.* Leicester printed, 12mo. pp. 148.

MISS Watts, the author of the work before us, is already known to the public, by a volume of miscellaneous poems; but the gardens of the muses, and the mazes of antiquity, are extremely dissimilar. The former is stored with choice aromatic flowers, and is commonly vivified with the cheering rays of Phœbus, whilst the latter is entangled with briars, and usually viewed under the gloomy clouds of dulness. Thus one is captivatingly enticing to the youthful fancy, and the other is generally repulsive. We very rarely meet with female topographers, or antiquaries, therefore it would appear not only very ungallant, but extremely ill-natured, to find fault with one who has made a very amusing, if not a very profound volume. To those who seek for the more minute details of Leicester, we would recommend the circumstantially copious history by Mr. Nichols.

The little volume before us is written in an easy, familiar style, and is well calculated to direct and inform the traveller relating to the principal objects of history and curiosity in Leicester and its vicinity. It is introduced by the following observations, explanatory of its purport:—

‘To the traveller who may wish to visit whatever is deemed most worthy of notice in the town of Leicester, the following sketch is devoted. And as the highly cultivated state of topographical knowledge renders superficial remarks unpardonable in local description, we shall endeavour to produce at the various objects of our visit, such information and reflections as a conductor, not wholly uninformed, may be supposed to offer to the curious and intelligent, while he guides him through a large commercial, and, we trust, a respectable town; the capital of a province which can honestly boast that, by its rich

pasturage, its flocks and herds, it supplies England with the blessings of agricultural fertility; and, by the industry of its framework knitters, affords an article that quickens and extends the operations of commerce.”

Not doubting but this pleasing little volume will soon arrive at a second edition, we would recommend two or three things to the attention of the author, as calculated, in our opinion, to improve the work. A more correct and explanatory plan of the town; a smaller type, and more copious information on the prominent historical and antiquarian objects, with notes of reference to the authorities; a more systematic and chronological arrangement of matter, as in the present case we find different Roman antiquities scattered through different parts of the volume. If all these were described at the beginning, it would be much better, and an index is a *very necessary* part of such a work. The title is also objectionable. It was first adopted by a coxcomb of a tourist, (vide *WALK through Wales*), to excite public curiosity, and has since been used by a gentleman, (*Walk through Southampton*), from whose good sense, and discriminating judgment, we might reasonably have expected greater propriety.

The author of this *Walk through Leicester*, having described some Roman pavements, and mentioned the foss-way as leading through the town, gives the following concise but satisfactory history of the ROMAN ROADS and PUBLIC HIGHWAYS of England. This we offer as a creditable specimen of the author's style, and manner of treating the subject.

“When the Romans penetrated into Britain, under the reign of Claudius, they found it in almost every part crowded with woods, and infested with morasses; and as

the natives well knew how to avail themselves of these fastnesses, the island could never be considered as effectually conquered till it was rendered accessible to the march of the legions, and means were provided for speedy communication of intelligence from even the most distant parts of the provinces. On this account their cohorts early applied themselves to the task of forming roads; nor did they cease their labours, till, in the time of Antoninus, they had opened passages through the island in all directions. In the reign of that emperor, these works, connected with others which they had already constructed on the continent, formed a great chain of communication, which, passing through Rome, from the Pic's wall, or north-west, to Jerusalem, nearly the south-east point of the empire, was drawn out to the length of 4080 Roman, or, as Mr. Reynolds has shewn, of so many British statute miles. Along these roads proper relays of horses were stationed at short distances, and it seems that couriers could travel with ease above an hundred miles a day. Two of these roads, as already observed, passed through Leicester. One the *Via Devana*, leading from Camalodunum, or Colchester, in Essex, to *Deva*, or West Chester, a distance of about two hundred miles, has been lately discovered by some ingenious and able antiquaries of the university of Cambridge.

"It enters Leicestershire in the neighbourhood of Rockingham, continues a strait road for many miles till it nearly reaches Leicester, and passing through the town, it is found to leave the county near Ashby-de-la-Zouch. The other road, called the *Via Fossata*, or Fosse, always known, and every where remarkable, traverses the island in a north-east direction, from near Grimsby, on the coast of Lincolnshire, passes through Bath, and terminates at Scaton, a village situated on the coast of Devonshire, a distance of more than 250 miles. This road enters Leicestershire at a place called Seg's Hill, on the wolds, or antiently wild and uncultivated parts of the county; from thence," (*from is superfluous*) "it passes the village of Thurmaston, and approaches the East-gates of Leicester, by the street called the Belgrave-gate. On the south-west of the town, it is again recognized in the Narborough road, and from that village it proceeds again a solitary lane till it enters Warwickshire at High Cross, where it crosses the no less celebrated Roman road, the Watling-street. It is well known that in the formation of these roads, the Romans spared no cost or labour. From the remains of some of them, it appears, that upon a bed of sand they spread a coating of gravel, upon which the pebbles, and sometimes hewn or squared stones were laid, firmly compacted together in a bed of cement. This, we have reason to believe, was the structure of such of the roads in this island as are distinguished by the name of *street*, a word derived from the

Latin *strata*, meaning, formed of layers. But such pains were not, it is probable, taken in all cases; and from the name of one of the roads passing through Leicester, the *Fosse*, an abbreviation of the Latin *Via Fossata*, meaning, the way ditched or dug, we cannot but conclude, that it was a road raised by the spade, and formed with a rampart, and probably covered with gravel, in the manner of our present turnpike roads. The same may also be said of the *Via Devana*, whose rampart, now covered with grass, the ingenious discoverers observed in many places.

"From the departure of the Romans in 445 to the beginning of the eighteenth century, the roads of this island received little or no improvement from the legislative powers, except by an order in the reign of Henry II. that roads should be cleared of woods, and made open, that travellers might have leisure, if they should find it prudent, to prepare to resist the armies of robbers which were spread over the face of almost every county. Roads, being no longer regulated by any system, to pass from place to place, so as to avoid, as well as might be, the inconveniences of woods, bogs, and sloughs, became the only business of the traveller. It was thus by accident the line of our present roads was formed, and to this their frequent circuits and other inconveniences are owing. During the period abovementioned, they were in general so bad, as to be useless for the passage of any other carriages than carts, and for these only in the summer season; so that the people inhabiting the same country as the Britons, who are said to have had numbers and great variety of cars of all kinds, were so exclusively confined to the use of horses and mules, that scarcely any other mode of conveyance was known even in London, and this so late as in the reigns of Elizabeth and James the first; for it is certain, that when the great Shakespeare fled from his country, and came to town, his first means of subsistence were the pittances he might earn by holding the horses of the persons who had come from different parts of London, to see the plays then performed at the Bankside theatre.

"It is not indeed to be asserted, that till the eighteenth century our roads never received any repairs, for necessity would frequently call for something of the kind in most places; nor yet that toll bars were anciently, wholly unknown; for it is certain, that a gate or bar was first erected in the reign of Edward the first, at a place now called Holborn-bars in London, for the purpose of collecting tolls for the repairs of the roads. But it must be allowed, that the art of constructing a good and firm road was ill understood and worse attended to; and when, in the beginning of the last century, turnpike-roads were first made, it was imagined, that the only good form was that of a ridge and furrow lying across the road on the line of its direction.

"Turnpike-gates were also in many places considered as such impositions, that even in the beginning of the reign of George the second, some persons contested the payment; several were frequently seen together, especially at newly-erected gates, suffering an interruption in their journey, rather than submit to what they deemed an imposition. Every one who understands the true conveniences of life will rejoice, that both the formation and repairs of roads, and also the usefulness of turnpike-tolls are now better

understood; that even countries once held to be inaccessible, are now open at all times and at all seasons to the traveller, and that most of our roads are now so well suited to the purposes, not only of convenience but of pleasure, that we have no reason to lament the destruction of the Roman ways, or even not to think that we have, within these few years, greatly surpassed them in the expedition of our mails, and all the conveniences and comforts of travelling."

ART. IV. *Modern London; being the History and present State of the British Metropolis. Illustrated with numerous Copper Plates. 4to. pp. 572.*

IN the first volume of our Review, we gave an account of the Picture of London, a small work published by the proprietor of the History now before us; and then admonished its editor to avoid, in future, the disgusting egotism, which appeared so conspicuous in that publication. How far he has benefited by our and other similar advice, will appear from the advertisement, prefixed to this *new fashioned* topographical work; which, being anonymous, we suppose is executed by the same person. We class it among the new fashions of the times, for it is totally *unlike* any book that has preceded it; and we trust will be succeeded by no imitations. It is preceded by such a peculiarly *modest advertisement*, that we are inclined to conclude the author had been inspired by the very spirit of *humility*. Without the least symptom of *arrogance*, or assuming *pretensions*, he *delicately* states his claims to public patronage. In case the reader has not purchased this *cheap* and convenient little volume, we lay before him the preface in the following extract.

"No apology can be requisite," says the editor, "for presenting to the world the history and present state of the British metropolis, at a time when the English language is destitute of any modern work of adequate consequence on the same important subject.

"The present publication addresses itself, in a popular and inviting form, to foreigners who may wish to convey to their respective countries *correct* ideas of London; and it also recommends itself to Englishmen, who cannot find in Stowe," (Stow) "Maitland or Pennant, those facts relative to the actual

present state of their metropolis, with which they may desire to become acquainted.

"It is obvious that Stowe" (Stow) "can be interesting only to the antiquary; that Maitland is at once too antiquated and prolix for general reading; and that Pennant is rather a collection of detached anecdotes of persons and places than a systematic history of London. Each of these works have" has "however, their" its "particular worth; but they are not adapted to the views of general readers, nor do they exhibit London as it is.

"But whatever may be the merit of those authors, their works have been long out of print,* and they are only to be bought occasionally at a high price. It has therefore been a defect in the literature of the country, that no adequate work existed, which described this great metropolis, with the exception of the small guide, lately published under the title of *The Picture of London*."†

"The great success and high character, both at home and abroad, of this latter work, have given birth to the present. In fact, it has served as the skeleton upon which the present work has been formed. In point of correctness and variety, it answers every purpose of a pocket companion; but from the necessary scantiness of its details, its confined embellishments, and limited size, it is unworthy of being the only book which describes the British metropolis:

"Besides enlarging and improving all that relates to its present state, a history of London has here been prefixed, which has been compiled from the best authors, and from original MSS. by a *distinguished antiquary*.

"The numerous embellishments of this work will sufficiently speak for themselves. They are *faithful portraits* of the places and scenes represented, and they exhibit the *very soul of the metropolis* in a way which has never before been attempted. Most of the busy haunts of the inhabitants, whether for

* We must beg leave to inform this writer and the reader, that the works of Pennant and Maitland are to be purchased at cheaper prices than what is charged for the volume before us: Different editions of Stow in two vols. fol. may also be obtained.

† We think it necessary to state, for the information of the public, that this small guide is the property of the same person who publishes "*Modern London*."

the gratification of ambition, avarice, or pleasure, have been exactly portrayed; and these views convey at once correct ideas of places which interest from their celebrity, and of scenes which characterize the manners of the people."

So imposing a declaration authorizes us to scrutinize the work which it precedes with peculiar attention: considering that where such care has been taken; such ample promises made; and such expectations excited; we had nothing more to do than merely to look and be pleased, to examine and approve, to investigate and be fully satisfied.

But how were we disappointed on turning over a *few* of the leaves, to find that the work which had disclaimed all connexion with Stow, Maitland, or Pennant, on account of antiquated, prolix, and unsystematic matter, should be obliged to each for some portion of its contents; and, after all, be one of the most flimsy, incorrect, and unsatisfactory publications which has ever come before us. Indeed, it is so extremely indifferent a book, that we sincerely pity the bookseller, who has been at considerable expence in getting it up, for the loss which he must eventually sustain.

We are always suspicious of that work which is published without the passport of authority: the author's name should always appear; for in topography as in history, it is only good document and respectable reference that stamps value, interest, and importance to certain statements. Let us see how far this is the case in the work before us.

It seems, according to the preceding advertisement, that the assistance of a *distinguished antiquary* has been obtained for enlarging and improving the present picture, by reference to local history and "the best authors." Under this class of information, we have a right to expect, at least, a *correct statement* of what Stow, Maitland, and Pennant, had been so indefatigable in collecting and explaining; but, either this *distinguished antiquary* was nodding, or, what is worse, wilfully consented to mislead the reader by error and falsehood: otherwise how did it enter into his head to say that "the fleet ran down Fleet street, and fell into Fleet ditch?" p. 20.

Now this very Fleet, which is said to run down Fleet street, was denominated originally the river of Wells, afterwards Turnmill brook, and ultimately Fleet ditch;

and to prove that there was no current in Fleet street, it appears by honest John Stow, "that a conduit was erected opposite Shoe lane, to which pipes conducted water from Marybone."

We proceed to point out some of the errors, mistatements, &c. which at present tend greatly to invalidate the authority, and are highly reprehensible in a work which professes to be a *correct* and interesting history of the British metropolis.

In p. 34 any reader would be led to believe, "that the Guildhall, as well as the mansion house," stands on the ground of Stock's market; and respecting the city hall in Aldermanbury being a cottage, we have only the word of this antiquary: Stow informs us, *that he remembered seeing "the ruins of the Old-bury or Guildhall, part of which had been converted to a carpenter's shop."*

In page 35 another error occurs;—it was sir *Simon*, and not sir *Thomas* Eyre, that built the public granary at Leaden-hall.

The next page is equally unfortunate respecting the famous sir Richard Whittington, of whom so much has been said by gossiping nurses and gossiping writers. Our author informs us, that "industry and integrity raised sir Richard from an *umble* state to affluence." Had honest Stow been consulted, he would have told this historian that "sir Richard Whittington was the son of *sir* William Whittington, and dame Joan, his wife."

Page 67. The priory of St. John of Jerusalem, *was not* founded by the order, but by Jordan Brisset, *for* the order, &c.

The *hospital*, not priory of St. Bartholomew was begun in 1123; and about 1138 the *church* and monastery of black canons.

The priory of the Holy Trinity, without Aldgate, *was not* founded by the *empress* Maud, but by queen Maud, wife of Henry I. her mother; and the hospital of St. Catharine's, near the Tower, *was not* founded by the *empress* Maud, but by Maud, queen of king Stephen.

Walter Fitz Ealdred, alderman of London, gave the ground on which St. Mary Spittle was built, to Walter Brune, who with Roisia, his wife, *finished* the same; therefore Fitz Ealdred should be considered as the founder, in conjunction with Brune.

The black friars *did not* beg or buy their ground: it was procured for them at the instance of Edward I. and queen Eleanor, by Robert Kilwardby, archbishop of Canterbury, of Gregory Rokese, mayor of London, in 1278. See Stow, &c.

The brothers of the sackcloth were in Aldersgate street, in 1257, according to Matthew Paris, whence they removed to the Old Jewry.

Stow calls the *convent* of nuns of St. Clare, *the abbey*, &c. but abbies, monasteries, and priories, are terms not worthy of discrimination with *some* anti-quaries.

Sir John Pountney should be sir John Poulney, the former being a corruption.

These are only a *few* of the inaccuracies of this volume; many others are scattered through its pages, but we presume that the instances here adduced are sufficient to show the extreme carelessness of the editor.

The first chapter, occupying 103 pages, is entitled a "History of London," and is composed of desultory notices and remarks, with some unacknowledged extracts from Pennant and other writers. The editor, indeed, carefully avoids mentioning authorities, and very rarely introduces a note into a page, fearing that it would either disfigure it, or perhaps he found that reference to *many* books, and much *small* type, would occasion him great additional trouble. This is certainly an object of no small importance with some writers.

Chapter ii. professes to contain a *general description of London*. In the course of the first fourteen pages of this chapter, nothing new is afforded; but at page 116 we are informed,—1st. "That in consequence of the streets being widened, and public buildings erected, the number of houses has therefore been lessened, and those that remain are not crowded with inhabitants, as formerly they were."—This is within the walls. 2dly, That the city of London without the walls, is an extension of the ancient city, which it *surrounds*.

Chapter iii. treats of the "present manners and police of the metropolis," in the same inflated style as a corresponding chapter in the Picture of London. In a work assuming the title of a History of London we are authorized to expect the language and sentiments of history, not the reveries of a wild

imagination, and the verbosity of romance.

In chapter iv. under the head of "hospitals and other public charities," we find descriptive memoranda of Greenwich and Chelsea hospitals, but both these noble national structures and institutions, with several other places, are much better described in a small *cheap* work called the Ambulator. The print representing the "Greenwich hill sports" is a disgrace to common sense and common *decency*: though it might be deemed a "choice thing" in a Wapping tap room.

Speaking of Christ's hospital, the author ambiguously states, that "in the winter, after Christmas, an anthem is sung in the evening about six o'clock, *by* the boys, accompanied *by* the organ; which is usually attended *by* a large, but select company, admitted *by* tickets. The stranger will find no difficulty in obtaining one of them, and *this* is a *ceremony* worthy of his notice:" i. e. obtaining a ticket.

To save "the stranger" as much trouble as possible, we beg to acquaint him, that if he chuses to apply to the steward of Christ's hospital, who is required to be always resident, he will receive a ticket entitling him, and probably a lady or two, to one of the first sights in the kingdom; namely, eight or nine hundred fine healthy boys at a public supper in the great hall, every Sunday evening from Christmas to Easter; the governors in turn attend on these occasions, and, after an anthem has been sung, the boys parade the hall, pay their respects to the company, and then retire to their separate wards. "This," as our author implies, though he does not grammatically state it, "is a ceremony worthy of notice." The history and description of this pile is more satisfactory than the preceding.

We find nothing new in the account of the other charitable foundations: Pennant, though disowned, is the Cicerone, with the "Picture of London" in his hand.

Chapter v. is dedicated to "juridical and legal tribunals, and establishments." Still nothing new or interesting; we go into Westminster hall, walk round the courts, and return without any other information than what the small "Picture of London" affords.

If we traverse the inns of court, we

can have a much better account from Herbert's Antiquities, which is confessedly Dugdale's *Origines* abridged and modernized, than what the quarto of Modern London has furnished, though taken from the former without acknowledgment. We will notice an instance. In Herbert's Antiquities of the inns of court, page 297, the "stone buildings" of Lincoln's inn are described as "*part of a regular and noble plan, formed a few years since, for rebuilding the whole inn, but which has never been completed. The chambers are the most pleasant and elegant of any belonging to the society, having, independent of the gracefulness of the buildings themselves, a spacious and very beautiful garden, the whole length in front, with Lincoln's inn square or fields beyond. This piece of architecture is the work of sir Robert Taylor, and is not only simple and elegant in its exterior, but the rooms, or chambers, are on a grand and commodious scale.*" Now let us see how closely the distinguished antiquary, or the redoubted describer of Modern London copies. Page 243, "An attempt has been made, but never completed, to rebuild the inn on a regular and noble plan. A considerable range of rooms, called the Stone buildings, faces the west, *having a spacious and beautiful garden the whole length in front, with Lincoln's inn fields (or square) beyond. This plan, the work of sir Robert Taylor, is simple and elegant in its exterior architecture; and the rooms, or chambers, are on a grand and commodious scale.*"

The descriptions of the other nine inns of court are comprized in twenty-four lines: Gray's inn takes up only five lines, though the writer observes "the spacious squares deserve to be noticed." No other account, however, is given, but "that the fine garden is an agreeable promenade, and is open to the public in summer;" that "Gray's inn is situated on the north side of Holborn," and that "it derives its name from the lord Grays, who had a house here." And all this from Herbert. But why not have added, "that, though the hall is not so spacious or fine a room as that of the Middle Temple; it exceeds, both in beauty and size, the hall of any other inn of court, and is a well proportioned and magnificent apartment, having a very elegant timber roof, little inferior to that of the Middle Temple hall, and its windows being as richly decorated with armorial bearings." This would not have taken above five lines more;

and would certainly be much better than filling up a quarto page and a half with the profound information, that "Staple's inn is near Holborn Bar. Furnival's inn nearly opposite the former. Bernard's inn situated near Dyer's buildings, Holborn. Thavies inn, an appendage to Lincoln's inn, is situated near St. Andrew's church, Holborn; Serjeant's inn in Chancery-lane; Lyon's inn in Wych-street," &c. Would Stow, Maitland, or Pennant, have filled a quarto page in such a manner? This is what the printers call "fat," and what an author has aptly compared to "a small rivulet of text running through a large meadow of margin."

We cannot help adding, for the information of foreigners, that the "garden of Clements inn is kept with particular care, and has a sun-dial, supported by a figure of considerable merit, kneeling, which figure was brought from Italy by lord Clare." This is also from Herbert's Antiquities.

Chap. vi. *Royal palaces, parks, and other appurtenances of state and government.* This whole chapter, though extended to 38 pages, is so extremely superficial that a stranger will find more satisfactory information in the small pamphlets sold by the guides to the respective repositories. Here we also discover the errors of carelessness; for the architect of the admiralty is called Shipley instead of Ripley, and the constructor of the screen is misnamed Adams for Adam.

Chap. vii. treats of the "commerce and trade of London, public-offices, and public commercial buildings." Here we expected to find the very essence, or, as the author terms it, the "soul of the metropolis," but the reader will easily guess at our disappointment, when we inform him that the whole of the editor's observations and historical notices on the "commerce of London," occupy only six pages. In describing Somerset-house, the Bank, the Mansion-house, Guildhall, and some other public structures, we find more flippancy of remark, than tasteful discrimination; and, in the place of satisfactory history, the editor is too fond of introducing, upon all occasions, his own *ipse dixit* opinions. The companies' halls are all jumbled together into an indiscriminate mass, with a concluding remark, that they are extremely rich, and vastly charitable.

A few trite observations on the intercourse of London, and the influence of

commerce on morals, closes this chapter.

The subject of chap. viii. is "prisons;" which, though respectably drawn up, is by much too minute and particular, when compared with the rest of the volume. We beg leave to differ from the author, in his statement respecting *infirmaries* and *medical assistance*, as no such conveniencies occur in the prisons appropriated for debtors, though they are allowed to felons!

Chap. ix. "On the architecture, public and private buildings," contains irrelevant matter in abundance. The inside of St. Paul's cathedral is said to be "almost entirely destitute of decoration." We should be glad to know where the *Gothic* architecture in the midst of the Grecian style, said to constitute the absurdity of the screen, is to be found? But our author seems to have dealt largely in absurdities! Witness the remark on the reading-desk in the choir. "If (says he), the imagination be lively the spectator may suppose the eagle, with out-spread wings, and seemingly alive, will fly away with the holy prayer-book, and leave the clergyman and congregation in surprise and distress. This is a fine example of what is nearly sublime, but *effectually absurd*." It had been more consistent with the character which he has assumed, if our historian had attempted to investigate the reason of what he has thus flippantly and absurdly criticised; but as this appears rather out of his line, we shall endeavour to supply his deficiency. Sir Christopher Wren did not work by chance; and we have no doubt that the eagle here, as well as that in York, and others in different cathedrals, is emblematical of St. John the Evangelist, who, on account of the sublimity of his diction, is always represented as attended by the eagle.

Among the *curiosities* of this structure, p. 369, is noticed, "that it is open for divine service three times every day!"

The account of that fine ancient fabric Westminster-abbey-church, is very superficial and unsatisfactory; though the editor had such ample materials in print. The other churches are barely mentioned, but we are told that some of them have spacious vaults, which form serious objects of curiosity, and are, when illuminated, worth exploring. Those belonging to St. George, Hanover-square, John-street and May-fair chapels in the same parish, are stated to be used as wine-vaults; and

those of St. John Westminster, and May-fair chapel, above-mentioned, are used as porter-cellars. This part of the topography of London our author seems perfectly acquainted with.

Chap. x. contains an account of *learned societies, science, literary journals, and bibliography*. This part of the volume is its best feature, and its subjects seem to have been more congenial to the author's mind than antiquities or topography. The accounts of the Royal society; the Society for the encouragement of arts, manufactures, and commerce; the Royal institution, and the British museum, though short, are written with taste and feeling. Under the article of diurnal and monthly publications, an invidious comparison, however, appears in favour of the Monthly Magazine, which, in our opinion, might as well have been spared. The average of the English and foreign publications from the Picture of London, forms a curious article.

Chap. xi. is appropriated to "public amusements, theatres, musical and theatrical performances." In this class we find the Royalty theatre, *Phantasmagoria* and various *accidental* exhibitions. We expected a history and description of the great theatres in this chapter; but in place of that, we have a few critical sentences on performers and performances. Of Covent-garden theatre the author has taken the immense pains to write *nine lines*, though he could afford only *thirty-one* to Sadler's-wells.

The twelfth chapter is devoted to "*the state of the fine arts, and their influence on, and relation to manners, public and private collections, and public exhibitions*." Excepting the description of the Royal academy, this chapter is "*almost entirely destitute*" of any thing interesting; and general remark, in pompous phraseology, is substituted for particular description.

As it does not often fall to the lot of *distinguished antiquaries* to have much taste themselves, or knowledge to appreciate it in others, we do not wonder at some opinionous and statements in this chapter which display a lamentable ignorance of the subject. Many passages of it are extracted from the incomparable "*Picture of London*." The last sentence but two is worthy of its author:—"Be it remembered, that the dead can neither *eat* nor *bear*."

At the end of this chapter comes what we have anxiously looked for—"the conclusion," which is equally modest

with the beginning, and will serve as a fair specimen of the editor's general style of writing, and of his opinion on his own book.

"At the end of this work, which is intended to be a faithful picture of the general and present state of the metropolis, it should be remembered, that the minutiae and almost innumerable circumstances which swell the folios of Maitland, Seymour, and other writers have here been carefully avoided. When to collect such minutiae is the plan, the more ample and complete such collections are, the higher value they give to the work. But when, as in the present history, it is meant to give such an account that the reader may form images to himself of the things described, whether they should or should not be familiar to him, the language and the manner that are proper to produce these effects ought to be adopted. Thus, in the introductory history of London, those remarkable facts have been preferred which are connected with the history of the kingdom; as well as those which have tended to raise it to its present splendour. In the general description of the place, efforts have been invariably made to give enlarged views upon the subject (vide Covent-garden). Under the head "present manners and police," pictures are drawn of things as they are; leaving things as they have been, to a different kind of work. The hospitals, tribunals, palaces, and other appurtenances of state; the commerce, public and commercial buildings; the squares, statues and architecture; a detail of the actual state of the prisons; the learned societies, literature, journals and bibliography; the theatres and public amusements; together with the state of the fine arts: under each of these heads the constant endeavour has been to afford *accurate, ample, and pleasing information*. Such is the object of the present work, and of its success the reader by this time is able to decide."

After the conclusion, follows a long description of the *numerous embellishments* which ornament this splendid volume. In each of the latter, the artist has assembled a large concourse of people, vulgarly called a mob; which, according to his ideas, constitutes the very soul of the metropolis. These are not the only embellishments of the volume, for as a contrast to the greatly crowded scenes of every view, the author has beautified and adorned his work with *thirty-one elegant* engraved portraits of those popular characters vulgarly known by the names of dustmen, chimney-sweepers, cats'-meat carriers, knife-grinders, and fish-fags. These elegant "itinerant traders," as here denominated, are all represented in correct costume, and to give locality and *interest* to the picture,

the artist has enriched his back-grounds with correct views of certain columns, pediments, door-ways, balustrades, &c. To each "picture" is attached a long description, in the writing of which, our historian seems to rise with his subject, as may be seen in the following extract:

"Cats' and dogs' meat, consisting of horse-flesh, bullock's liver, and tripe-cuttings, is carried to every part of the town. The two former are sold by weight, at two-pence per pound, and the latter tied up in bunches of one penny each. Although this is the most disagreeable and offensive commodity cried for sale in London, the occupation seems to be engrossed by women. It frequently happens in the streets little frequented by carriages, that as soon as one of these purveyors for cats and dogs arrives, she is surrounded by a croud of animals, and were she not as severe as vigilant, could scarcely avoid the depredations of her hungry followers."

The back ground to Mrs. Cats' and Dogs' Meat is part of Bethlem-hospital, which is very faintly delineated.

To all these *conclusions* is added an appendix, which is copied from the "Picture of London." This contains an *incorrect* list of the parish churches, and their situations, with chapels of the established religion, and those belonging to different sectaries. This list we must take the liberty to rectify in some particulars: St. Anne's church, Aldersgate, is *not* in Maiden-lane, St. Martin's-le-grand, but in St. Anne's-lane. Where is St. Anne's, Foster-lane? We cannot find any such church; there were, formerly, St. Leonard's and St. John's, the Baptist, in Foster-lane, but they have not been rebuilt since the great fire, and their sites are now enclosed as church-yards. St. Catherine's is *not* on Little Tower-hill, but in St. Catherine's-square, at some distance. There is no St. Faith's church; the parish is united to St. Augustin's, Watling-street. There is no church of St. Gabriel, Fen-court, Fen-church-street; it not having been rebuilt since 1666; the parish is united to St. Margaret Pattens, Rood-lane. St. John's, Clerkenwell, is not in the list, either as a parish church, or as a chapel. St. Mary Magdalen is *not* in Knight-rider-street, but in Old Fish-street. Aldgate church, notwithstanding its being repaired in 1621, was rebuilt in 1743. St. Anne's, Westminster, was built in 1686.

We have noticed the above errors, and made the necessary corrections, to prove the carelessness of this "antiquary." Such extraordinary pretensions, with such extraordinary defects, as are manifested

in this book, have never before demanded our animadversions, and we sincerely hope that we shall never again have occasion to witness a similar specimen. From a careful examination of the whole, we are justified in pronouncing it the heterogeneous compilation and composition of a person totally unacquainted with, and unfit for the task of writing "a History of Modern London."

If he had confined himself to the strict meaning of his title, and furnished the

public with a complete and correct account of "*London as it is*," it would have supplied an important desideratum, not only to the present age, but to future generations; and as such would have been justly entitled to our warmest commendation. But, to accomplish such a task, requires what this writer never possessed, a discriminating judgment, activity in research, "an eye to see, a heart to feel, and a soul to comprehend."

ART. V. *The Scarborough Tour, in 1803. By W. HUTTON, F. A. S. S.*
8vo. pp. 314.

IN each of our former volumes we had occasion to notice some works of this veteran tourist, and in our present annual excursion, he again crosses our path, and demands a parley. We are sorry not to be able to return him a passing compliment; but truth obliges us to declare, that like the work we noticed in our last volume, p. 417, the present abounds with gossiping chit-chat, and much trifling garrulity. It appears that our author considers his remarks of such interest, curiosity, or amusement, that he commits every idea to paper, and prints his animadversions exactly as they flow from his pen without attending to such things as grammar, perspicuity, or even propriety. The following extract, from the commencing pages, (*for it occupies part of three*) we presume will fully warrant our critique.

"Perhaps every writer has a wish to please, even though he writes upon *nothing*; but a doubt of succeeding. Every writer, too, has a manner peculiar to himself. Great incidents are easily told; it then rests with an author as with a taylor only, to clothe his subject in a suitable garb. But if that subject be small, he must, like the bee, possess

the art of drawing sweetness from the meanest flower. Those descriptions stand in the first class of excellence which are the nice but minute incidents of human life, and which are perfectly true, but pass unnoticed.

"If we want health, we naturally apply to a physician, who will give great hopes of a cure. Time and money slide away, without removing the evil. We try a second, a third, &c. but to as little purpose. When we have discarded all, we become our own doctor; for a disease always demands a remedy. I knew a case of more than twenty years standing, in which numbers of the faculty had been employed, much money and peace of mind had been spent, when the patient prescribed for himself, and found relief at the expence of one penny."

Courteous reader, if you are pleased with this specimen of elegant and profound writing, we can assure you that much more of the same kind may be found in Mr. Hutton's tours; but if you require a little useful or interesting information concerning any place visited by this writer, you will seek for what is not to be found. To be under the necessity of reading such books as this, is among the most painful tasks of our occupation.

ART. VI. *A Tour from Alston-Moor to Harrowgate and Brimham Craggs. By THOS. PENNANT, Esq.* 4to. pp. 190.

IN an advertisement to this Tour, we are told, that it "was left by Mr. Pennant among his manuscripts prepared for the press; and the editor in presenting it to the public, trusts it will be found equally interesting with the former works of this esteemed author."

Such a statement, prefixed to such a work, requires the investigation of every reviewer, who feels any degree of zeal in the combined cause of literature, honesty and truth. It has been often remarked, and often verified, that injudi-

cious friends are generally more injurious to the cause they espouse, than professed enemies. This is strikingly demonstrated in many posthumous publications; for friendship, seeing through the medium of partiality, is apt to look upon that as extremely excellent, which, fairly appreciated, is really very indifferent. That the gentleman, whose name is affixed to this book, possessed considerable merit as an antiquary, naturalist, and tourist, is proved by the concurring testimony of many eminent critics, and

that such "fair fame" should be injured by a foolish friend, or by an artful impostor claims our strict inquiry.

An *anonymous* editor informs us, that this tour was printed from the "*prepared manuscripts*" left by Mr. Pennant. As this rests on the testimony of an incognito witness, we have a right to look for more satisfactory evidence, and this can only be obtained from the style, matter, and manner of the book, compared with the "authentic" works of the author.—The topographical writings of the late Mr. Pennant must be well known to all persons who are partial to the subject. They are, according to the opinion of Mr. Whitaker, who is not much addicted to praise his contemporaries, "lively, agreeable, and interesting." Many other writers agree in this opinion; but instead of meeting with engaging traits in the present tour, we find it abounding with false names, erroneous dates, and illiterate spellings. Unconnected sentences, errors of grammar, improper and vulgar terms, abound in almost every page. Speaking of an ancient mansion (p. 10) it is stated that "one of the Baron Eures made it *their* residence." At page 13, a monumental statue is said to have a "conic *helm*," instead of *helmet*. A gentleman called "*Haselrigg*" in Mr. Pennant's *Scotch Tour*, vol. iii. p. 342, is here called "*Hazelrigg*," and several other names are similarly mis-spelt. In page 7 is the following description, which we can never suppose was written by Mr. Pennant; or, if so, intended to meet the public eye.

"I reached Stanhope, a small town, very

irregular, but *mixed with trees*; it makes a *pretty* appearance. The roofs of the houses *here*, and in *these parts*, are very steep, to permit the snow, which falls in great abundance *here*, to slide off; many are covered with heath."

"I rode two miles farther," he says in another page, "to Newfield-crag; a vast precipice, wooded tremendously overhanging the Wear. *The other side is steep, but less so.*"

"I dined here," Raby castle, "the old duke of Cleveland with us—a cheerful old man—and in conversation, *very far from an idiot.*"

With one more extract we shall conclude our evidence. Speaking of Streatham, it is observed,

"In 1761, the place departed from the ancient family of Bowes, by the marriage of that *terrible* woman, in body and mind, Mary Eleanor, only child of George Bowes, Esq. knight of the shire for the county of Durham, to that *accomplished* nobleman, John earl of Strathmore; whom *she* soon drove into his grave by *intemperance*, the result of his conduct. This *terrible* woman, in 1777, married as *terrible* a man, in the *Irish Andrew Robinson Stoney*, who, I have heard, and really believe, did his best to revenge the cause of her *amiable* lord." P. 29.

The foregoing specimens, we presume, will satisfy the reader, and justify him in concluding that the "*Tour from Alston Moor*," &c. is not only unworthy the pen of Mr. Pennant, but is an imposition on his name, which ought to be discountenanced by every critic. The language and matter of this volume are not its only defects, for its price is greatly enhanced by open printing, fine paper, and several incorrect and tasteless prints.

ART. VII. *The New Cambridge Guide; or, a Description of the University, Town, and County of Cambridge; containing correct and comprehensive Descriptions of the Public Buildings, Colleges, Churches, Curiosities, &c. &c. Also, a concise Account of the different Orders, Degrees, Ceremonies, and Offices of the University; a List of the present University Officers, and a Variety of Articles of general Utility.* 8vo. pp. 158.

THIS little volume, following the common-place track of all its precursors, is very lavish in praising all persons, places, and objects that are directly or indirectly connected with the university. Every artist is highly meritorious, every place is peculiarly beautiful, every institution is unexceptionably good, &c. Though we do not expect much censure in these vade mecums, yet we wish to see some discrimination, for when we find indifference and mediocrity extolled as excellent, we cannot afterwards de-

pend on the writers. Many passages of this kind are found in the pages now under notice. Indeed, there are several, which may be properly classed with advertisements. Thus, when our guide is speaking of the statue of Newton, he informs us, that "a beautiful and correct drawing of it has been taken by Mr. Harraden, drawing-master, Cambridge, from which a fine print has been engraved, which may be had at the artist's house."

This seems very much like the "*pass*

direct." In the advertisement the editor assigns as his ostensible motive for publishing the present Guide, that it "is more correct, and more generally useful than any work of the kind that has preceded it; to effect which," he says that "he has resorted to the most approved works, and drawn his information on the respective subjects, from the most indisputable sources."

The latter pretensions we readily admit, though we cannot so readily concede to the editor's first assertion. That he has examined some of the latest authorities we are also well acquainted with; but that he has withheld those authorities, and refused to acknowledge obligations, is not only a great defect in his work, but unjust to those who have furnished him with its principal materials. Thus, various authors * are laid under contribution, and their very essence is clandestinely extracted. He informs us, that he wished to "render his little tract more particularly adapted to the design of such a publication;" for which purpose he "omitted many articles which appeared tedious and uninteresting, if not useless." In the place of which, he has "added several pieces of intelligence of universal advantage and utility."

"The New Cambridge Guide" contains some concise historical notices of the origin of the university, with an account of the foundation and establishment of each college and hall, also the fees and duties of all the officers; with various particulars of the university customs. In arranging the description, the editor has first given a short account of the senate-house, the public library, the schools, and the botanic-garden. The historical account of the colleges and halls follow in the chronological order of their foundation, commencing with St. Peter's college, and ending with Sidney Sussex college; that of Downing not being yet erected. As the history of the latter is curious, and has been the subject of high litigation, we presume the following account of the founder, &c. will be interesting.

"Sir George Downing, bart. in the year

1717, devised several valuable estates, in the counties of Cambridge, Bedford, and Suffolk, to his nearest relations, sir Jacob Downing, and his three sons; with remainder to their issue in succession; and in case they all died without issue, he devised the estates to trustees, who, with the approbation of the archbishops of Canterbury and York, and the masters of St. John's and Clare-hall, were to found a college within the precincts of this university, to be called Downing college. The testator died in the year 1749, and his property descended to sir Jacob, who, on the death of his sons without issue in his life-time, became the sole inheritor, and at his decease, in 1764, bequeathed his possessions to his lady; but the estates devised by sir George Downing were claimed by the university for the use of the proposed college.

"The validity of the original will, immediately became a subject of legal inquiry; but after many years litigation, was at length established; and the charter for the incorporation of the new college, having been fully examined by the privy-council, and approved by his majesty, the great seal was affixed to it by the lord chancellor, Loughborough, 22d of September, 1800. This college is to consist of a master, a professor of the laws of England, a professor of medicine, and sixteen fellows: scholars and pupils to be admitted and educated, as in other colleges. The fellows are to vacate their fellowships at the expiration of twelve years, unless under particular circumstances they obtain a licence to hold them for a longer term. The master, the professors, and three of the fellows, are named in the charter; the remaining fellows are to be appointed by the king's sign manual, when the college is built. An open piece of ground on the south-east side of the town, between Emmanuel and Pembroke, and near the botanic-garden, called the Leas, is the situation chosen by the trustees for the new foundation."

Having detailed a few particulars of each college, the editor closes his account of the university, by an eulogium on "its genius and virtue," as he terms it. These consist in the illustrious and eminent characters that have been educated here, "as well as the sacredness and incalculable utility of its institution. It can boast with honest pride the great and philosophic discoveries of the immortal Newton, the sublime and heaven-inspired poetry of the incomparable Milton, the deep investigations of the great Bacon, and the energetic melody of the enthusi-

* Raworth's Cambridge University Calendar, is the only book referred to, though the editor ought in justice to have mentioned the following, from some of which he has made long extracts without quotation-marks:—Deighton's "Cambridge Guide," Carter's "History of the University;" the History of Cambridgeshire, in the 2d vol. of "The Beauties of England and Wales;" Master's "History of Corpus Christie College," Wall's "Accounts of the different Ceremonies observed in the Senate-house," &c.

astic Gray. It has produced the most exalted martyrs; the most celebrated divines, philosophers, orators, and poets; with all that can charm the ear, enlighten the understanding, or improve the mind. It has attained its dignified station by progressive genius and virtue, encouraged by the opulent and great."

ART. VIII. *A Tour in Teesdale.* 8vo. with a map. pp. 46.

"THE substance of the following pages," says our author, in an advertisement to this small tract, "appeared last year in the *York Herald*, in a course of letters to the editor of that paper; and having been favourably received, the writer has been induced to throw them into the present form."

If the author had thrown them into the fire, it would have been no great loss to the public; for they add but little that is new, or curious, to the present stock of topographical information. Having made an excursion down the vale of Tees, our tourist fancied that a description of his journey, with some notices of the different objects that adorn its course, would afford amusement to the reader. Partial to scenery of this district, he is sanguine enough to suppose, that it is equally interesting to that of any vale in Wales or Cumberland, and one of its water-falls he compares with that at Lowdore, and those of the Clyde. It is no uncommon occurrence for our partialities to mislead our judgments.

"From whatever cause," observes this author, "it is that the beauties of Teesdale have been hitherto concealed, they have powerful claims on the painter and the tourist that ought to be discussed. Having once resided in that country, I cannot resist an in-

The latter part of this little volume is occupied with a few particulars relating to the town of Cambridge, also some memorandums respecting the county in general, and of its towns, villages, seats, &c. in particular.

clination to communicate to others an acquaintance with those delicious scenes in the contemplation of which I have often been so exquisitely gratified, that, even now, I delight in their recollection. In retracing my wandering steps, I shall not feel less pleasure in the occupation itself, than in the hope of inducing others to pursue them. Engaged in business or in pleasure—far removed from any resembling objects—in the bustle of the streets, or the quiet of the parlour—the fairy picture of some of the wonderful recesses of Teesdale, brought to "my mind's eye," will often recall an emotion as full and tranquillizing as that which they produced when first presented to the sight."

Though our tourist seems particularly delighted with every object and scene in this, his favourite vale, he has not learnt the happy art of communicating a corresponding delight to his reader. Should a traveller, however, wish to make an excursion down this vale, he may find some useful directions in this guide, though it is not calculated to afford amusement or information to him who seeks either in his library. We cannot better conclude our account of the volume, than by the apposite quotation, which the author has commenced with, by saying, here is "somewhat too much of this."

ART. IX. *North Wales; including its Scenery, Antiquities, Customs, and some Sketches of its Natural History; delineated from two Excursions through all the interesting Parts of that Country, during the Summers of 1798 and 1801. By the Rev. W. EINGLEY, A. M. Fellow of the Linnean Society, and late of Peterhouse, Cambridge. Illustrated with a Map, Frontispieces, and Music.* In two Volumes 8vo. pp. 464, 450.

IN an age, when the passion for that debilitating species of reading found in novels is become generally predominant, it is no displeasing attendant symptom in the public character, that voyages, travels, and tours, are in almost equal request. For, by this means, the improbable and visionary tales of artifice and weakness are contrasted with the description of real persons and places, and their effects in some degree weakened, if not prevented,

by the detail of histories, facts, and real occurrences. An acquaintance with different countries, their inhabitants, manners, customs, modes of life, condition, and character, constitutes the data of the most important knowledge—The history of man. Intelligent tourists and travellers, therefore, when assiduous in their inquiries, and accurate in their relations, not only furnish a pleasing, but an useful, portion of information; and,

while they thus add to the stock of general knowledge, may justly be placed amongst the benefactors of mankind. For, whoever successfully combats ignorance, must be considered the auxiliary of truth; and he who labours to dispel darkness, must be viewed as a harbinger, if not a source of light. Thus, as all journals of travels are important, when delivered to the public, the smallest deviation from truth must deserve the highest censure which the strongest disapprobation can bestow; not only as evincing a want of integrity, but as tending essentially to mislead. Errors, therefore, however small, cannot too early be detected; nor the effects of misrepresentation too carefully guarded against, whether they arise from ignorance or inattention.

We have made these remarks, not with a view to condemn, or lightly appreciate, the labours of the author before us, but as a proper apology for the freedom we have taken, and shall continue to take, in criticising this, and works of a similar nature. Respecting every laudable endeavour to promote the dissemination of knowledge; and sensible how difficult it is, in any way, to attain a degree of excellence devoid of all culpability, we shall strive to discharge our duty between the author and the public, with the utmost impartiality, while we accompany him through the devious wilds of North Wales, surveying its romantic beauties, decyphering the monuments of antiquity, and wafted into the days of other times, contrasting the present and the past, the manners and customs of its ancient and modern inhabitants. If, in the course of this social attention, we shall find occasional room to blame; we shall often meet with opportunity to praise. And it is our rule never to accuse, unless able to condemn; nor unjustly to bestow unmerited approbation.

The observations contained in the present volumes, the author informs us in his preface, were the result of three months spent in this part of the principality in the year 1798, an account of which was published the latter end of the year 1799. In 1801 the author, it seems, made another journey, residing four months more, re-visiting the places he had before seen, and visiting others in search of new and interesting objects; travelling principally on foot, a mode he conceives to be the most eligible, as "the pedestrian," he observes, "has greatly the

advantage of every other traveller." Here we are obliged to differ from him. We have travelled in various modes in Wales, and, after long experience, give the decided preference to some mode of *riding*. However others may have felt, we have frequently found our strength exhausted, and our ardour damped, if not extinguished, before we arrived at the object of our research; and, after a long walk of sixteen, twenty, or more miles, over rough roads, and vast inequalities of ground, we have found little inclination, and less power, to engage in exploring, and properly investigating, the local and characteristic history of a place. A Welsh poney, accustomed to the declivous roads, and sufficiently hardy to thrive on the very indifferent fodder he will meet with at Welsh inns, we should consider the best companion for any one who would profitably, or pleasantly visit this mountainous district. If, however, there are persons, who, with the author, feel a greater degree of independence on their feet in such excursions, let them enjoy their pedestrian modes, with all their corresponding labour and inconveniences. The present title is more appropriate than the former, which was called a "Tour round North Wales," consisting rather of devious excursions, than forming a regular tour. The present work comprehends many, though *not all*, of the interesting parts of that country. We could point out several equally, if not more, interesting, which are not included in the present performance. The counties of Flint, Denbigh, Caernarvon, Anglesea, Merioneth, and Montgomery, form the field of the author's investigation; and he professes, he was "determined not to put a foot in the southern part of the principality;" yet he was unable to resist the temptation of *taking a peep* at the romantic scenery about Pont y monach, or the Devil's Bridge. The author commences his route at Chester, which city he partly describes, and mentions a circumstance by no means indicative of the refined state of the inhabitants: a predilection among the higher, as well as the lower classes, for the barbarous and unmanly sport called bull-baiting, p. 11. Mr. Bingley gave us but a very indifferent idea of his taste when he passed the chapter-house of the cathedral, with the observation that he could see nothing interesting. This elegant and ancient building is an object that demands atten-

tion, both for its beauty and antiquity. This curious edifice, with its stone roof, supported by sharp intersecting arches, springing from handsome pilasters, adorned with palm capitals, and converging in the centre, is said to have been built by the first earl of Chester, Hugh Lupus. But, according to sir Peter Leicester, by Arundel, earl of Chester, nephew to Hugh, who, after its erection, removed the body of Hugh to this spot. In either case, it is a curious specimen of the early introduction of what is absurdly styled Gothic architecture into England. P. 21, Mr. Bingley inserts an interesting anecdote of the providential escape of the Irish protestants, from the effects of an edict issued by the sanguinary queen Mary.

"To an odd stratagem of a female of this place, of the name of Elizabeth Edmunds, was owing the entire safety of the protestants of Ireland, in the reign of queen Mary. Dr. Cole, a commissioner from the queen, on his way to that country, stopped one night at Chester. The mayor, in his official capacity, waited on him, and he unguardedly spoke of the murderous business in which he was engaged, and took out his commission in the presence of the hostess, who had a brother, a protestant, in Dublin. When the mayor left him, he politely attended him down stairs, and Mrs. Edmunds, in the mean time, took the commission from the box, and substituted for it a pack of cards, with the knave of clubs placed uppermost. The doctor, on his return, put up the box; and, on his arrival at Dublin, presented it in form at the castle to the lord deputy and privy council. His lordship opened it, and the whole assembly, as well as the commissioner himself, were in the utmost astonishment at its contents. He assured them that it had contained a commission, but why it was not there then, and how the cards came in its place, he was as ignorant as they. Disappointed and chagrined, he returned to the English court for a fresh commission, which he obtained; but, before he could again arrive in Ireland, the queen died. Her successor, queen Elizabeth, rewarded the woman for this meritorious act with a pension of forty pounds a year for life."

At Holywell, p. 45, the author dwells on the legendary history of St. Winefred's Well; and supposes, because Gyraldus, who, in his journey, slept one night at the adjacent abbey of Basingwerk, is silent respecting it, that therefore the invention of the story is of subsequent date. But there might be a reason for the silence of Gyraldus. Fountains were worshipped at a very early period in the east. They were held, if possessed of

any singular property, sacred to some presiding deity; and it cannot be supposed, that the people who emigrated to Britain, did not bring their superstition with them. This heathenish custom prevailed long after the introduction of christianity. In the reign of king Edgar, 963, a canon was made, prohibiting the worship of wells and fountains. And thus, afterwards, perhaps saints were substituted for deities; yet the superstition remained, for, in 1102, Anselm inserted a canon against attributing sanctity to a dead body, a fountain, or other thing, without the bishop's authority. In 1181, Gyraldus accompanied Baldwin, archbishop of Canterbury, through the principality, to preach up the crusade; and he would not therefore be likely to oppose an archiepiscopal canon, by relating the legend. This fountain is of the most importance, as "issuing eighty-four hogsheads of water per minute," and furnishing a stream, which turns a variety of useful machinery. St. Asaph, p. 75, Mr. Bingley describes as being on the banks of the river Elwy; but when we were there, it was situated between the rivers Clwyd and Elwy; the former passing it on the eastern side; the latter running on the western side. It is so marked in Mr. Bingley's map, though the western river is there called *Alti*.

The Pass of Penmaen Mawr, p. 143, Mr. Bingley describes as still terrific, and says, "The present road was made about *thirty years ago*; and that, previously, the usual mode of going to Bangor was in boats, or along the sands." But, in a tour published in 1725, the author compares this with the Pass of Euterkin in Scotland, and observes, there was *then*, not only a road, but a wall, built all the way for its security. Nor does the *Crategus aria* in any way answer to the popular description given of the lemon-tree, said to grow upon this mountain, though the former is abundant. Of the improvements of lord Penrhyn, in his slate quarries, rail-road, port, &c. Mr. Bingley gives a pleasing and interesting account.

Here the author enters the mountainous part of the country, called by Mr. Pennant Snowdonia, comprehending the principal part of Caernarvonshire, and still denominated the Forest of Snowdon. In this district Mr. Bingley seems to be perfectly at home; and this, as it is the most particular and original part of his book, and the most valuable,

we shall select from it a specimen of his manner and style. Of the Benglog water-falls, not mentioned even in the attentive Pennant, Mr. Bingley gives the following description :

" At the end of the vale the road winds up a steep rock, betwixt Trivaen and Braich Du, called Ben Glog; and from the bottom, at the distance of about half a mile on the left, may be seen the three falls of the Ogwen. These are called Rhaiadr Benglog, *The Cataracts of Benglog*,* and they are so fine, that the traveller, in search of romantic scenery, will be highly gratified by visiting them. I descended from the road into the bottom of the vale, and went along the bank of the river till I arrived at the foot of the lower cataract. Here the stream roared with vast fury, and in one sheet of foam, down an unbroken and almost perpendicular rock. The sun shone directly upon it, and a prismatic bow was beautifully formed by the spray. The tremendous roar of the water, and the broken and uncouth disposition of the immediately surrounding rocks, added greatly to the interest of the scene. After a while I climbed a rocky steep to the second or middle fall. Here the river is precipitated, in a fine stream, through a chasm between two perpendicular rocks, that each rise several yards above. From the station I took, the immense mountain Trivaen was seen to fill up the wide space at the top, and to form a rude and sublime distance, heightened greatly in effect by a dark aerial tint, arising from the extreme heat of the day, and the lowering clouds that were floating around it. The masses of black rocks, surrounded by foam, near the top of the fall, I could have fancied were floating along the torrent, and rushing to the bottom. The stream widens as it descends, and below passes over a slanting rock, which gives it a somewhat different direction. In the foreground was the rugged bed of the stream; and the water was seen to dash in various directions among the broken masses of rock. The third cataract, to which I now clambered, I found very grand and majestic; yet by no means equal to either of the former. These water-falls are scarcely known in the adjacent country, and have been unaccountably omitted, even in Mr. Pennant's tour, although this gentleman accurately describes most of the scenery around them.

" Leaving the falls, the trouble of visiting which had been amply repaid by the pleasure I had derived from them, I regained the road; on crossing the upper end of the vale, I was delighted with a very beautiful and unexpected view for nearly its whole length, where the mountains down each side appeared, to a great distance, falling off in beautiful perspective."

A new road is now opened from Llanrwst to Bangor, through Nant Francon, which will give easy access to these beauties. Mr. Bingley now takes his station at Caernarvon, whence he makes a variety of excursive visits to the places in its vicinity. At this town the author met with a *sect*, as he improperly terms them, called *jumpers*.

His account of their extravagancies, corroborated by letters published in the Gentleman's Magazine, appears to us, who have also witnessed their devotions, greatly exaggerated. In treating of this subject, he displays a total want of that liberality which should ever accompany a learned education; and a bigotry that can never adorn the character of a Christian minister. These poor misled zealots may be deluded, but they are sincere; they may be too enthusiastic, but they are devout. And let their superfluous fire enkindle the languishing, and almost expiring zeal of other Christians. Mr. Bingley, in tracing the causes of the great increase of methodism of late years, attributes it, in a great measure, to the supineness and want of zeal in the established clergy. His observations on this subject merit the most speedy attention, and we trust that he is not wanting in that zeal, which he so strongly recommends to others. A portrait of a Welsh cottage, p. 219, will illustrate the condition of the lower class of inhabitants in North Cambria.

" Descending from this station, (Caer Cwm y Clo), I was requested by the gentleman who attended me to examine the cottage of a small Welsh farmer in Cwm y Clo, as he said it was a tolerable specimen of this description of buildings in Caernarvonshire. I entered at a small gate, and first observed a wretched hovel for his cattle; the hay-rick was formed by a large slate, placed near one side, with its edge on the ground; the roof was so broken in and damaged, that only one corner afforded shelter to the miserable beasts, from the fury of the mountain storms. I remarked on the outside of this place, in an angle, formed by the junction of two walls, a small slated roof, to protect from the rain the turf intended for fuel. A path between two rude stone walls, adorned with holly hedges, led me to the dwelling. The door was so low that I was obliged to stoop considerably to enter; and, coming out of a bright sun-shine, it was not till some time had elapsed that I was able to distinguish any thing in this hut, except the

* *Benglog* signifies a skull; and the name is here taken from the appearance of the rocks,

gleam of light that came down the chimney. This was at least equal to what the six small panes of glass in the window afforded. On the open hearth were a few *peat-ashes*, the remains of a fire with which the old man had a little while before cooked his dinner. The frame of the roof was formed by branches of trees, fixed to larger timbers by straw or hay-bands. This frame was covered with sods; and the whole with slates, which, in the mountains, are obtained in great plenty. The furniture consisted of an old bed, an oak chest, a range of shelves, for such poor eating utensils as were necessary in this lowly habitation; some old earthen vessels, some dirty pewter dishes, and a few other things, which, from the darkness of the place, were rendered indistinguishable to me. The whole character of this dwelling was such, as clearly to prove the truth of Goldsmith's observation, that

"Man wants but little here below.

Cheerful at morn, he wakes from short repose,

Breathes the keen air, and carols as he goes.

At night returning, every labour sped,

He sits him down—the monarch of a shed."

"The day that I visited this cottage, I was taken to another about two miles distant, in the same parish of Llanrug, inhabited by a lame old woman, named Mary Morgan. I mention it only for the purpose of relating the singular mode which this old woman invariably adopted, till her latheness rendered it too painful, of getting into her house whenever she mislaid the key of the door.—She mounted the *peat-stack* at the end of the building, clambered up from thence to the slates, and descended the chimney. This is an undoubted fact."

An account of the peculiarity of a Welsh funeral occurs, p. 241, but Mr. Bingley might have recollected, that the circumstance he mentions was a Roman custom.

Almost every tourist seems to have experienced the enviable pleasure of a view from the summit of Snowdon; while we very much doubt the accuracy of some accounts, we have every reason to believe that our author actually ascended the mountain, and feasted his bodily eyes with the delicious prospect from *Mynydd y Wylfa*.

Amidst the Caernarvonshire mountains, Mr. Bingley found a variety of rare and curious plants, and the *habitués*, with the notices that he has given, will be a treat to the botanist; but it would have afforded an additional pleasure to the scientific reader, had the tourist been sufficiently acquainted with the useful science of mineralogy, to have furnished

us with some account of the rare and valuable productions with which this part of the kingdom abounds. From Caernarvon Mr. Bingley passes into Anglesea, and, on the sight of the *crumlochen*, which are numerous in that island, he digresses on their use, and, adopting the opinion of Borlase, supposes them sepulchral monuments; while the venerable author of *Mona antiqua* considers them druidical altars, on which they offered their victims. The matter is, we think, (his sub-judice), a subject worthy of the most minute investigation, and demands a more rational inquiry than has ever yet been bestowed on it. It is singular that they are found in almost every county of Wales, and also in many parts of England. The form of all these is nearly similar: an ovate or oblong flat stone, lying upon three or more supporters; and they often stand near, or enclosed within, stone circles. Gwynn, page 308, is translated *vine-house*; and an improbable account taken from Penant is adduced to support an insupportable etymology. Wine was not a liquor of the country; and, when scarcely used in England, it is highly improbable that the sale of it should have given denominations to numerous houses in Wales. Gwyn is white, and ty, or in composition dy, a house, i. e. the white-house. At Llanellian, Mr. Bingley mentions the following singular superstition:

"Near the door of the church in this parish is placed *Cyff Eilan*, *Eilan's Chace*, or poor box. People out of health, even to this day, send their offering to the saint, which they put through a hole into the box. A silver groat, though not a very common coin, is said to be a present peculiarly acceptable, and has been known to procure his intercession, when all other kinds of coin have failed! The sum thus deposited, which, in the course of a year, frequently amounts to several pounds, the churchwardens annually divide among the poor of the parish.

"The wakes of Llanellian were formerly held on the three first Friday evenings in August; but they are now confined to only one of those days. Young persons from all parts of the adjacent country, and even from distant counties, assemble here, most of whom have along with them some offering for the saint to ensure their future prosperity, purchase their offences, and secure blessings on their families, their cattle, and corn."

This weak and superstitious custom is evidently derived from demon worship, though thus glossed over with the name of a Christian saint during the ages of

popery. Mr. Bingley says it is still prevalent in the principality.

The author gives a pleasing account of a moonlight scene at Pont aber glaslyn, and his description of Bardsey Island is new and interesting. After leaving Caernarvonshire, our tourist seems to relax in his energies of research, and his details become less particular, and less interesting.

P. 34, (vol. ii.) the author mistakes Cwmmer Abbey for that of Cwmhir, in the northern part of Radnorshire, affixing the story of a deceiving monk, and the consequent dissolution of the abbey by Llewelyn ap Iorwerth to the former, which properly belonged to the latter. Mr. Bingley, not having time to visit a cataract in the vicinity of Machynlleth, being in haste to arrive at Llanidloes, yet contrives to drag in an account of Aberystwith and the Devil's Bridge, from Aikin's tour, although he *promised* not to "put a foot in the southern part of the principality." In this journey too he says that he saw Plynlimmon, which we should never have supposed from the following remark: "The adjacent mountains being all low, render Plynlimmon, in appearance, much higher than it really is." Had not Mr. Bingley's vision been injured by the prodigious heights of Snowdon and Cader Idris, he might easily have seen the adjacent mountains, almost equalling in height the mountain in question, which is, in many points of view, only to be distinguished by its forked summit: nor do we wonder, as Mr. Bingley did not ascend it, that he thought it would not compensate for his trouble. He, however, publishes a short account, neither particular nor accurate, except that, at the source of the Severn, "the stream is so small, that a child may stride across it." In passing the road our tourist sees a water-fall, and yet does not notice the remarkable lead-mines, abounding with silver, which are to the right and left, and in sight of the road: nor is the account of Llanidloes correct; many of the houses are now built of brick, and, for a Welsh town, it is particularly clean. The church too is remarkable, not only for the six arches brought from the abbey of Cwmhir, but also for the columns of its nave ending in curious capitals.

Montgomery is better described; and his delineation of a rural scene, p. 73, is highly descriptive of its lovely vale. A

great part of this volume is occupied with a dissertation on the manners and customs of the Welsh, some of which are almost inconceivably different from those of their near neighbours, the English, and with whom, for centuries, they have had more or less intercourse. The account of the *knockers*, a species of fairies, that perform their exploits in mines, is taken from a letter of Mr. Lewis Morris, who believed in the existence of these protean, pigmean, and aerial beings; and Mr. Bingley, after examining the evidence, seems half a convert. Of the origin of wearing the leek on St. David's day our author gives an account, which rests principally on the authority of the prince of poets. If conjecture be admissible where history is silent, we should suppose it was adopted in consequence of the victory obtained by St. David over the arch-heresiarch Pelagius; when the leek, like the *shamrock* among the Irish, worn on St. Patrick's day, was considered an emblem of the trinity; and the wearing it a proof of belonging to the faith. Mr. Bingley's remarks on the Welsh language, appear derived from some person more than usually acquainted with that ancient dialect; but from whom we must beg leave to differ, when he asserts, that the Saxons, on their arrival in this country, were "ignorant of letters, and without an alphabet." Whether they afterwards adopted that of the Britons, and if so, whether what is called the Saxon be really the British alphabet, is a subject which merits discussion. In many of his remarks on Welsh music, Mr. Bingley will find few of the Cymri to join him in opinion.

From the preceding specimens and observations it will be apparent, that the author has collected a considerable portion of information, respecting the country he professes to describe; for, where he has not had an opportunity of seeing objects, or visiting places, that have lain near or distant from his route, he has not failed to quote a description of them from other authors. Among the number, he has taken abundant liberty with the labours of Pennant: and we were not a little surprised at being informed by our tourist, that he had nearly performed his first journey, before he had seen or heard of any tours later than that of the above-named gentleman,—"Warner, Shrine, and Aikin, being then to him unknown." Mr. Bingley, however, in the present work, takes the advantage of these and

subsequent publications; levying contributions on others to constitute a more valuable treasury of his own. This perhaps is allowable; but the authorities should have been mentioned at the places; as a mere list of authors at the beginning or end of a book is not sufficiently discriminating or satisfactory: Mr. Bingley's adopting the sentiments of others, in language of his own, would have been certainly preferable to quotation. Though the information exhibited is not less valuable to the general reader, yet, to us who not only wish for, but expect originality, it was matter of regret. The author has greatly amplified his narration, by biographical sketches of Welsh bards and saints; and appears too credulous in relating traditionary and local

stories. While he asserts of Gyraldus, "that he believed all the Welsh people told him," he does not appear to have been sufficiently cautious, in avoiding the conduct which extorted the following admonition from the monk's commentator: "*Fabulæ aniles & ineptæ vitandæ sunt.*"

Though the author frequently gives translations of Welsh terms, he appears totally unacquainted with the language; nor are his etymological authorities always accurate. These, however, are small blemishes. In a word, though we cannot place Mr. Bingley among philosophical travellers, yet we gladly acknowledge that he furnishes information sometimes new, sometimes useful, often amusing, and, on the whole, calculated to please.

ART. X. *The Scenery, Antiquities, and Biography of South Wales, from Materials collected during two Excursions in the Year 1803.* By BENJAMIN HEATH MALKIN, Esq. M. A. F. S. A. Embellished with Views, drawn on the Spot, and engraved by Laporte; and a Map of the Country. 4to. pp. 641.

IN this volume the author professes to describe "the scenery, antiquities, and biography of the six southern counties of Wales:" and varying from all former tourists, has endeavoured to systematize his work,—by first giving a separate history and description of each county, and secondly proceeding to develop the most prominent features and facts relating to every principal place in that county. Had this plan been fully accomplished, it would have formed an interesting, though concise, topographical view of a large portion of the principality. How far it has been effected, we shall endeavour to prove in the sequel.

Mr. Malkin commences his work with a copious dissertation on the legends, traditions, and history of Wales: and amplifies his own observations by long illustrative quotations from Selden, Drayton, Lidgat, Gildas, Snowdon, Spencer, and Hoole. This is followed by chronological and historical accounts of the kings and princes of Wales, from the year 516 to 1282; to which is subjoined some delineations of Welsh manners in the successive ages.

Leaving the general face of the country, the author proceeds (chap. 2.) to delineate its individual features by some descriptive and historical particulars of Glamorganshire, the southern maritime county of Wales. Picturesque scenery, peculiarity of surnames, agriculture, morals of the inhabitants, local literature

and customs, weddings, burials, Roman stations, and roads, constitute the leading features of this chapter.

In the five following are particularized the several places and circumstances worthy of note in the eastern part of this county:

Chapter 3 comprehends the histories, with descriptions, of Aburthin, Welsh St. Donats, Pendoylan, Hensol, Ystradowen, Ashall, and Lantrisant. The author introduces a sketch of the life of sir Lhwelin Jenkins, who, from an humble state, progressively obtained many distinguished posts in government.

The fourth chapter is chiefly occupied by a description of the celebrated Pont y Prydd, or New Bridge, thrown across the rapid stream of the Taff. This extraordinary structure is reckoned among the wonders of modern architecture; and its celebrity is much enhanced from having been erected by a self-taught mason. The name of William Edwards is in high repute among the South Welsh; and as his history is curious, and tends greatly to elucidate the efforts of human genius contending with difficulties, and as it has never before been so fully detailed, we shall extract the whole of Mr. Malkin's narrative.

"William Edwards was the son of a farmer, who had two other sons and a daughter. The family lived in the parish of Eglwysilan, in the county of Glamorgan, very near the spot which was hereafter to be the

foundation of its celebrity. William Edwards was born in the year 1719. His father died when he was only two years old. He was the youngest son. He, with his other two brothers and sister, lived with their mother on the farm, till he was about sixteen or eighteen years of age. When he had reached his fifteenth year, he frequently repaired the walls, or stone fences, of the farm. Every traveller, who is acquainted with Wales, must have remarked that such fences are common in the mountain district.

"He was observed to perform his work in a style uncommonly neat and firm, and with an expedition surpassing that of most others. Some friends, observing this, advised the elder brother to encourage him in this employment, not only on their own farm, but in the service of any neighbours who might wish to engage him. William readily assented to this proposal, and worked almost continually at wall-building, for which occupation his talents were in eager request. He added his earnings regularly to the common stock of his mother and brothers, who carried on the business of the farm. The fences in this part of the country are called in technical phraseology dry walls, from the circumstance of their being constructed without any mortar. Some time after he had exercised his ingenuity in this way, some masons, regularly brought up to the trade, came to the neighbourhood for the purpose of erecting a shed for shoeing horses at a smith's and farrier's shop. William Edwards admired the neatness with which they constructed the pillars, and other parts of the shed, and felt an anxious wish for the ability to do the same. He often left his work and came to a field opposite the smith's shop, where the masons were employed. He observed that with the common mason's hammer of the country, one end of which is also an axe, they were able to dress their stones very neatly; and this led him to the discovery that the principal reason why he could not do the same, arose from his hammer not being steeld. He made all possible haste, therefore, to procure from a smith some hammers better suited to his purpose, such as he observed those masons to use; and found that with them he could execute his dry-walling much better, and with a neatness far beyond what he had before been able to accomplish. Being thus furnished with proper tools, and having acquired a degree of dexterity in the use of them, he aspired to a higher rank in his profession, and from a dry-wall builder, hoped to become a builder of houses. Soon afterwards he undertook to build a little workshop for a neighbour; and gained great applause for the propriety with which he performed his contract. A very short period had elapsed, before he was employed to erect a mill in his own parish; and it was in the prosecution of this building, that he first became acquainted with the principles of an arch. When this mill was

finished, it did not merely meet with cold approbation, but was admired by all approved judges as an excellent piece of masonry. He was now considered as the best workman in that part of the country. Employment was thrust upon him on better grounds than Malvolio's greatness; and as skill and fidelity are indispensably requisite in a business which requires the evidence of time and experience to detect faults, not then to be remedied, application was made to William Edwards, by those who wished to avoid both disappointment and alteration.

"In 1746, he undertook to build a new bridge over the river Taff, at the spot, the singularities of which have introduced him to our attention. This he executed in a style superior to any thing of the kind in this, or indeed any other part of Wales, for neatness of workmanship and elegance of design. It consisted of three arches, elegantly light in their construction. The hewn stones were excellently well dressed and closely jointed. It was admired by all who saw it. But this river runs through a very deep vale, that is more than usually woody, and crowded about with mountains. It is also to be considered, that many other rivers of no mean capacity, as the Crue Bargoed, Taff, and the Cunnio, besides almost numberless brooks that run through long, deep, and well-wooded vales or glens, fall into the Taff in its progress. The descents into these vales from the mountains being in general very steep, the water in long and heavy rains collects into these rivers with great rapidity and force; raising floods that in their description would appear absolutely incredible to the inhabitants of open and flat countries, where the rivers are neither so precipitate in their courses and projections; nor have such hills on each side to swell them with their torrents. Such a flood unfortunately occurred after the completion of this undertaking, which tore up the largest trees by the roots, and carried them down the river to the bridge, where the arches were not sufficiently wide to admit of their passage. Here, therefore, they were detained. Brushwood, weeds, hay, straw, and whatever lay in the way of the flood, came down, and collected about the branches of the trees, that stuck fast in the arches, and choked the free current of the water. In consequence of this obstruction to the flood, a thick and strong dam, as it were, was thus formed. The aggregate of so many collected streams, being unable to get any further, rose here to a prodigious height, and with the force of its pressure, carried the bridge, entirely away before it. William Edwards had given the most ample security, both in his own person and the assurances of respectable friends, for the stability of the bridge during seven years. Of course he was obliged to erect another; and he proceeded on his duty with all possible speed. The bridge had only stood about two years and a half. The second bridge was of

one arch, for the purpose of admitting freely under it whatever incumbrances the floods might bring down. The span or chord of this arch was one hundred and forty feet; its altitude thirty-five feet; the segment of a circle whose diameter was one hundred and seventy feet. The arch was finished, but the parapets not yet erected, when such was the pressure of the unavoidably ponderous work over the haunches, that it sprung up in the middle, and the key-stones were forced out. This was a severe blow to a man, who had hitherto met with nothing but misfortune in an enterprize, which was to establish or ruin him in his profession. William Edwards, however, possessed a courage which did not easily forsake him, so that he was not greatly disconcerted. He engaged in it the third time; and by means of three cylindrical holes through the work over the haunches, so reduced the weight over them, that there was no longer any danger from it. These holes or cylinders rise above each other, ascending in the order of the arch, three at each end, or over each of the haunches. The diameter of the lowest is nine feet, of the second six feet, and of the uppermost three feet. They give the bridge an air of uncommon elegance. The second bridge fell in 1751. The third, which has stood ever since, was completed in 1755. It is generally supposed that William Edwards experienced the liberality of some gentlemen in the county, which was increased by the gratuities of others, who came from many parts of the kingdom to see the bridge and its builder: but of this we have no clear or certain accounts; nor do his family know that he was ever indebted for any employment but to his own industry and abilities.

"Hitherto the Rialto was esteemed the largest arch in Europe, if not in the world. Its span or chord was ninety-eight feet. But New bridge is forty-two feet wider; and was still lately, if it is not still so, and I am not aware that its claim to this distinction is invalidated, the largest arch in the world, of which we have any authentic account. The fame of this bridge introduced William Edwards to public notice; and he was employed to build many other bridges in South Wales. One of the next bridges that he constructed was Usk bridge, over the river Usk, at the town of Usk in Monmouthshire. It was a large and handsome work. He afterwards built the following bridges, in the order of succession which is here assigned them. A bridge of three arches over the river Tawy; Pont ar Tawy, over the same river, about two miles above the town of Swansea. This was of one arch, its chord eighty feet, with one cylinder over the haunches. Bettws bridge in Caermarthenshire, consisting of one arch, forty-five feet in the span. Llan-dovey bridge in the same county, consisting of one arch, eighty-four feet in the span, with one cylinder over the haunches. Wych-brook bridge, over the river Tawy, about two

miles above Mottistoun: this has one arch ninety-five feet in span, twenty feet in altitude, with two cylinders over each of the haunches to relieve them. He built Aberavon bridge in Glamorganshire, consisting of one arch, seventy feet in span, fifteen feet in altitude, but without cylinders. He likewise built Glasbury bridge, near Hay in Brecknockshire, over the river Wye: it consists of five arches, and is a light elegant bridge. The arches are small segments of large circles on high piers, as best adapted to facilitate the passage of floods under the bridge, and travellers over it.

"William Edwards devised very important improvements in the art of bridge-building. His first bridges of one arch he found to be too high, so as to be difficult for carriages, and even horses, to pass over. The steep at each end of New bridge, in particular, are very inconvenient, from the largeness and altitude of the arch. This peculiarity, it is true, adds much to its perspective effect as a part of the landscape; but the sober market traveller is not recompensed for the toil of ascending and descending an artificial mountain, by the comparison of a rainbow and the raptures of a draughtsman. He avoided this defect in his subsequent works; but it was by a cautious gradation that he attempted to correct his early and erroneous principle, and to consult the ease of the public; at the same time that he surmounted the greatest difficulties of his occupation. At length he discovered, not by reading, conversation, or any other mode of extrinsic instruction, but by dint of his own genius, matured in the school of experience, that where the abutments are secure from the danger of giving way, arches of much less segments, and of far less altitude, than general opinion had hitherto required, are perfectly secure, and render the bridges much easier for carriages to pass over, and in every respect adapt them better to the purposes of a ready and free communication. Impressed with the importance of these rules, by which he had assiduously perfected his own practice, he was in the habit of considering his own branch of architecture as reducible to three great requisites: durability, the freedom of the water flowing under, and the ease of the traffic passing over. These are certainly maxims of importance in bridges of one arch, which are not only the best adapted to situations where tremendous floods occur, but in many cases are the only bridges securely practicable in mountain vallies.

"The literary knowledge of William Edwards was at first confined to the Welsh language, which he could read and write from early youth. He was supposed to be rather obstinate when a boy; an imputation which generally rests on genius, that sets beyond the scope of those by whom it is controlled. His own account of this alleged temper was, that he always considered whether any thing that was proposed to him, or

any principle he was required to act upon, coincided with his own ideas of rectitude. If he found that it did, he firmly persisted in it. His general character was that of uncommon resolution and inflexibility. He was very wild, as is commonly reported of him, till about eighteen years of age. After that period he became very steady and sedate. A neighbour instructed him a little in arithmetic. About the age of twenty or twenty-one, he undertook the building of a large iron forge at Cardiff, and lodged with a person named Walter Rosser, a baker, and blind. This man taught English reading. William Edwards was alive to every opportunity of improvement, and rapidly acquired what he eagerly pursued. He seems, indeed, to have possessed a mind that could not easily be stopped in its progress. To the two languages, however, his attainments in literature were confined; but their application to the various branches of study in which he was engaged, afforded constant exercise even to his industry and spirit of inquiry. After he had performed his engagement at Cardiff, he built many good houses, with several forges and smelting louses, and was for many years employed at works of this nature by John Morris, of Claisenont, esq.

"Caerphilly castle is in his native parish. He has often been heard to say, that he would frequently visit that celebrated ruin, and study the principles of its excellent masonry, with all its various peculiarities, appearing in those venerable remains. He considered himself to have derived more important knowledge from this, than from any other circumstance. Indeed, his principles were formed on those of the Caerphilly castle masonry. He was, what may with sufficient propriety be termed, a mason of the ancient castle, or Gothic school. His manner of hewing and dressing his stones was exactly that of the old castle masons. He put them together in a style of closeness, neatness, and firmness, that is never seen but in these ancient, and, as far as we know, everlasting edifices. His son is perhaps the only workman remaining, who on any occasion practises the ancient masonry: and in the modern he is equally proficient.

"The full complement of business, which usually attends a high reputation in any line, might be supposed to have engrossed all the time and thoughts of a self-taught man. But William Edwards united with his trade the occupation of a farmer during the whole of his life. Nor was Sunday, though a sabbath, a day of rest to him; for then he had clerical functions to exercise. In his religious sentiments he was a dissenter, of the denomination styled independents. About 1750 he was regularly ordained according to the usage of the sect of which he was a member; and about the same time was chosen minister of the congregation meeting at a chapel in his native parish, where he officiated for forty years, and till he died. He was well re-

spected by the most intelligent and liberal of all sects and parties, and died, very much lamented by all who knew him, in the year 1789, and in the seventieth year of his age, in his native parish of Eglwysilan."

The next objects which attract our author's attention are the extensive tin works at Melin Gruffyth, and the collieries of Pentyrch. Hence he proceeds to the city of Llandaff, which is briefly described, with the ancient history of that diocese, its bishops, and cathedral. At St. Fagans Mr. Malkin relates an account of the battle there in 1648, between the Welsh royalists and Cromwell's army. Duffrin house, with the adjacent cromlech, and other druidical antiquities, are particularly and very well described; as are Llantrythid park and house, with the town of Cowbridge.

From the latter the author proceeds (chapter 5) to the village of St. Mary Church, and describes its ancient castle, which is remarkable for its antiquity and architecture. The Cecils, present earls of Exeter and Salisbury, are lineally descended from the princes ap Sisyllt, who were successively lords of this castle. Speaking of this structure, Mr. Malkin notices the additions that were made in the sixteenth century, which he considers as the first introduction of the Greek and Roman architecture into Wales. He next relates some anecdotes of the architect and his family; also of Caradoc, who wrote the history of Cambria from the abdication of Cadwallader to his own time. The village of Flemingstone is particularly noticed as the residence of Mr. Edward Williams, more popularly known by the name of *Bard Williams*, who, according to Mr. Malkin, as an "antiquarian" (antiquary) is profound and sagacious in every thing relating to the customs, manners, and history of his native principality. Some very interesting particulars, with strongly characteristic anecdotes, are detailed of this gentleman, who is well known in Cardiganshire as "Mr. Williams the antiquarian," but in his native county is commonly termed "Ned Williams the stonecutter."

The castle of Cardiff, which is the capital of the county of Glamorgan, is distinguished in history as the place of imprisonment and death of Robert, duke of Normandy.

Leaving Cardiff, Mr. Malkin noticed, en passant, the village of Roath, and

the mansions of Ceven Mable and Rupperrah. The latter having been rebuilt by Inigo Jones, some particulars of his life are introduced, though not with much propriety. Caerphilly castle, once the largest in Great Britain except Windsor, and now the most extensive ruin, is copiously described: and of its successive lords and possessors from the remotest period, our author gives an historical detail, which is principally extracted from the Welsh Archaeologia.

Chapter 7 leads us from Caerphilly to Merthyr Tydvil; describing, in the way, the village of Energin; the mansion of Llanbradach, the church of Eglwysilan, and the village and beautiful vale of Aberdare. Merthyr Tydvil is particularly noticed; its origin; religious dissensions, (with the life of Vavasor Powel, a baptist minister); its obscurity till the year 1752, when, by the erection of Mr. Bacon's iron works, it became of considerable consequence, and is now the largest town in the whole principality. The iron works are by far the most extensive in the kingdom, probably in the world. Leaving this town we meet with a variety of beautiful scenery, mountains, bridges, and waterfalls, and passing through the extensive village of Ystradyvodwg, we reach Pontneath Vechan, the confine of the county. This chapter contains many engaging details; and the descriptions of the manufactories at Merthyr Tydvil, with observations on the population and manners of the inhabitants, are highly interesting.

The ancient history of Brecknockshire, and its successive lords; its general scenery and agriculture; the condition and moral character of its inhabitants; and its Roman antiquities, are the subjects of discussion in chapter 8; and the four following are appropriated to the principal features and objects of the county.

The sublime scenery and awful cataraacts which arrest the attention of the traveller on his road to Brecknock, are the chief subjects of the 9th chapter. The author having noticed the village of Ystradvellte, with a stupendous cavern in its vicinity, and the majestic mountain of Mouchdeny, describes the town of Brecknock; its castle, with the ancient possessors; its church, buildings, and trade. This has been a place of much consequence, and therefore demanded, and has obtained, a full detail.

In the roads from Brecknock to Tre-

castle and Crickhowel, the 10th chapter introduces to our notice the villages of Aberisker, with a Roman camp in its vicinity, and Llanspyddid-Penpont and Abercamlas mansions; the towering Black Mountains are described in appropriate terms; as are the village of Tre-castle, the lake of Llyn-savaddon, and the castle on its borders, with the ancient proprietors. Arthur's chair, a majestic mountain; the village of Crickhowel, with the remains of its castle and palace, terminate this chapter.

Returning from Crickhowel into the heart of the county, Mr. Malkin presents us with descriptions of Gwern Vale; and the ruins of Tretower and Dinas castles; also an account of a singular religious society established at Trevecca, and memoirs of its founder, Howel Harris. Mr. Malkin's description of a scene which he witnessed at this place is highly characteristic and animated. He arrived at Trevecca on a Sunday about three o'clock, and being totally unacquainted with the place and institution, was rather surprised to observe such extravagant effects of religious frenzy.

"A number of decently dressed and well-behaved people," says our author, "were assembling, with whose manners on the outside of their chapel I was well pleased; but the inside exhibited such a melancholy exhibition of fanatical fatuity, as, happily for the honour of human intellect, is rarely to be met, but among these *jumping enthusiasts*. The speaker, for I will not insult the dignity of our establishment by considering him as a clergyman, had his face and head completely muffled with a red pocket-handkerchief tied under his chin. The cause of this might have been candidly ascribed to the tooth-ache, had I not observed at Brecknock and elsewhere, that the preachers of these degradedly methodistical and jumping sects, which would not be worth noticing in a work of this kind, were they not the unhappy growth of the soil, uniformly array themselves in a similar paraphernalia, probably in an ostentatious shew of squalid piety. The rest of his apparel was consistently mean; and all his air and manner indicated the lowest ignorance, though I could not judge of his language. Its effects, however, atoned in power for what it might want in elegance, or the means of rational conviction. The groans of his hearers, sometimes in a solo part, and sometimes in chorus, corresponded with the scarcely human contortions and ejaculations of the preacher. Some stood, some knelt, and some were stretched upon the floor in prostrate humiliation. I did not, however, stay for the animating sound of "Glory to the Lamb," lest the forgetfulness

of superstitious enthusiasm, violating the laws of hospitality, might have compelled me also to join in the fantastic rites of light-heeled devotion. But I will no longer weary the patience of my reader on the habits of an institution, which has culled with scrupulous care all the absurdities and evils of the monastic life, except the prohibition of marriage, and at the same time passed a severe edict of exclusion against all its learning and utility."

Proceeding on the banks of the Wye, the author conveys us to Llandoed castle, of which we have a history and description, with an account of the extensive circumjacent estate. Taking the road from Brecknock to Buallt, we meet with a very large encampment, which Mr. Malkin calls the best preserved specimen of British fortification in the principality, yet unnoticed even by the most eminent antiquaries. This having never been before described, we expected a more particular account of it than our tourist has given.

The general description of Radnorshire is the subject of the 19th chapter: in which its rivers, soil, agriculture, language and antiquities are particularly considered. The towns of Old and New Radnor have been surpassed by Prestain, or Presteign, which is now the principal town in the county: and is noted as the birth-place of the rev. Richard Lucas, a popular divine who lived at the latter end of the seventeenth century.

The particular delineation of the county is comprized in the next chapter. Noticing the villages of Chro and Llowes, the tourist more fully describes the Dingle of the Matchway, with its uncommonly terrific scenery: also the legendary history of an ancient structure in its vicinity. Regaining the banks of the Wye, we reach Aberedwy castle, the last refuge of Lhwelin prince of Wales: his defeat and death are narrated; and some romantic views are described. Memoirs of Thomas Jones, an artist, and native of this neighbourhood succeed: and the village of Cregrina, with an account of a great battle in 1198, supposed to be fought here, are satisfactorily noticed.

The general history of Cardiganshire occupies chapter 15, wherein the author treats of its mineralogy, and the progressive improvement of the mines since the time of the Norman conquest; including memoirs of that great patriot sir Hugh Middleton, also Mr. Bushel, and some other speculators. The picturesque as-

pect of the county is described, with the manners and language of the inhabitants. Some Roman antiquities are also pointed out.

The tour through this county affords matter for the five following chapters. Mr. Malkin now visits and describes what he calls *Plynillimon* mountain, from whose side the rivers Severn, Wye, and Rydoll have their source. Havod (the seat of Mr. Johnes) is particularly and fully delineated, with its romantic and picturesque scenery, woods, plantations and various water-falls. The interior of the house is also described: a catalogue of the paintings is given; with anecdotes of Rembrandt, Claude Lorraine, and some other artists. The truly patriotic views of Mr. Johnes, and his laudable zeal in the cause of agriculture, literature, and all the useful and refined arts, are proper subjects of encomium for the tourist and poet. Mr. Malkin seems particularly sensible of this, and has therefore endeavoured to do justice to the man, and to his place, by a very satisfactory account. Leaving Havod, and crossing Arthur's Stone, we reach the Devil's Bridge, which, with its history, scenery, and the stupendous fall of the Rydoll, are fully detailed. A history and description of Aberistwed, and its castle closes this chapter. From this watering place we are conducted (chap. 17) to Tregaron; and the author notices in the route—Nanteos House, Crosswood Park, the villages of Llanafan, Llannwnys, and Ystrad Mirk with its castle and school.

The dreary and uninteresting country between Tregaron and Lanbeder, on the banks of the Tivy, is the subject of chapter 18, and affords no objects of particular notice, except the parish of Lan Dewi Brevi, where Roman inscriptions, bricks, and coins, have from time to time been discovered, which determined Camden, and his editors, to fix the Loventium of Ptolemy here.

Chapter 19 leads us by a circuitous course from Lanbeder to Newcastle in Emlyn; noticing a variety of seats and villages of no considerable consequence. The village of Llandyssul, though poor, is remarkable for its picturesque situation, and its church, which is dedicated to Tysul a saint of the sixth century. Dr. Stevenson's estate in this vicinity claims particular attention, on account of the agricultural knowledge and speculations of its proprietor. In treating of this sub-

ject Mr. Malkin laments the inattention of government to improvements in distant parts of the kingdom. The village of Llanrhystid is remarkable for the interesting traces of a monastic institution; that of Lan Dewi Aberarth for its neatness; and Lanarth and Llandissilihoggo for having afforded shelter two succeeding nights to Henry earl of Richmond and his followers previous to the battle of Bosworth. The town of Newcastle in Emlyn, with its ancient fortified structure, receive a relative share of our author's attention, and are satisfactorily described.

Proceeding (chap. 20) towards Cardigan, we meet with the mansion of Blaen y pont; the picturesque situation, the extensive tin manufactory of the village of Pont Llechryd; and an ancient monument in the parish of Llangoedmor. Cardigan is described; a history of its castle is given; and memoirs of Mrs. Catharine Philips the poetess are introduced. Biography and poetical criticism seem the favourite subjects of our author, who takes every opportunity of introducing them into his narrative. In this class of literature he also excels, and evinces in all his remarks, a cultivated mind, and a classical taste.

The general history of Pembrokeshire, which is the subject of chap. 21, is introduced by a dissertation on a colony of Flemings established in this county in the twelfth century. Reflecting on this subject our author digresses to the consideration of the intermixture of various nations which in different ages has taken place in Britain. We have then the history of the county, prefaced by another quotation from Drayton, with remarks on its salubrious air, population and buildings. Pembrokeshire is about equally inhabited by English and Welsh, who, according to Mr. Malkin's statement, are perfectly estranged from each other in manners, arts, agriculture, marriages and language. The 22nd chapter contains a brief account of St. Dogmeal's priory; whence the author makes an excursion by water to Kidgerran castle; the situation and ancient history of which are particularized; with memoirs of Dr. Thomas Phayer (resident here) who in the sixteenth century translated the greater part of the *Eneid*, but died before the work was completed. Our author here takes occasion to trace the circumstances which at that period introduced classical literature into Eng-

land, and so greatly improved our language and composition. We extract a part of this as a very favourable specimen of Mr. Malkin's style, and as tending to characterize the bias of his mind on such subjects.

"As it was about the beginning of the sixteenth century," observes our author, "that English poetry, after having remained stationary since the death of Chaucer, began to experience a gradual and considerable improvement, it will not be uninteresting to trace the circumstances which introduced the study of classical literature into England, and gave a new turn to vernacular compositions. Our intercourse with Italy, at that period, being free and constant, the language and manners of that country were too fascinating not to have been the subject of study and imitation. The court of Henry the Eighth was polished, though the monarch was violent in his temper. Petrarch was the favourite poet, the sonnet was the popular mode of writing, the Italian gave the tone to every fashionable pursuit, and kindled emulations in every pretender to genius. Henry Howard, earl of Surrey, took the lead at once in the gallantries, and in the poetical proficiencies of the age. His travels have the air of a romance. The late earl of Orford has traced Geraldine, of whom the notices in his sonnets are obscure and indirect, and of whom graver history is silent, to lady Elizabeth Fitzgerald, second daughter of Gerald Fitzgerald, earl of Kildare, and cousin to the princesses Mary and Elizabeth. Surrey proclaimed her charms through Europe as a son of chivalry, and was victorious in a knightly appeal to the law of arms of which the grand duke of Tuscany permitted the decision at Florence, the original seat of her ancestors. But Surrey did not devote all his time to vanity and idleness; nor was it in the field of gallantry alone that he displayed the powers of his mind. He had laboured in the more solid departments of literature; and nature fitted him to express with ease and render with freedom, what study had enabled him to understand. He translated the second and fourth books of the *Eneid* into blank verse. This book is extremely scarce, and highly valuable, both as a curiosity, and a work of merit; for it is the first composition extant, in that measure, in the English language. Surrey was beheaded eight years before the commencement of Phayer's general translation; so that his attempt claims a long priority in point of time. But it was not printed till 1557, when Phayer had finished his first four books, and was rapidly proceeding with the next three. Sir Thomas Wyatt the elder, the contemporary and friend of the accomplished Surrey, affected the same taste and pursuits. He began to translate the song of *Lopas* in the first book of the *Eneid*, in *Alexandrine verse*, but left it unfinished; and his poems were never collected or printed, till they were

added by Tottel to the songs and sonnets of his rival in the field of the muses, the first edition of which did not appear till either the year 1557 or 1559. Though, therefore, Wyatt's and Surrey's versions from Virgil are generally considered as the first regular translations in English of an ancient classical poet, Phayer steps in with his more extended undertaking, before their performances were accessible to the public at large, and may at least divide with those authors the merit of bringing his countrymen acquainted with the concealed treasures of the Mantuan muse. With respect to the execution of the work, the testimonies have been various and discordant. By some it has been represented as not sufficiently to be commended for its skill and learning; while the sarcasm of the critics in Feller's time was, that he had transformed the Latin Virgil into an English *Emmyn*. This judgment may, however, be thought harsh; since the measure of criticism is only to be applied to the standard of the time, and not regulated according to the improvements of later periods. A writer may have well deserved the panegyric of his contemporaries; that he cannot challenge the suffrage of succeeding ages, may be owing to circumstances over which he had no controul. It is in versification that these three early translators will best admit of comparison; and it is by comparison that their merits must be estimated. The measure of Surrey is unquestionably the most suitable, and it is tuned with a purity of rhythm which amply justifies the tribute of Warton to the style and expression of the author. In the very infancy of our higher poetry, when the possibility of sustaining harmony without jingle was new to our language, he carried it all at once to a degree of refinement, surprising to those who know the difficulties of the art, and scarcely exceeded by the maturer practice and more musical proficiency of a later age. Wyatt wanted the judgment of his friend Surrey in the choice of metre, as he confessedly fell below him in melody of cadence and facility of expression. The Alexandrian couplet, consisting of twelve syllables in the first line, and fourteen in the second, applied as it is by us to lighter poetry, by subdivision into four, is considered as ill calculated for the dignity of epic; though perhaps we have no right to condemn a practice which our own deviation may only have seemed to render incongruous. He understood, however, the principles of his own versification. He duly observed the pauses, on the sixth of the first, and the eighth of the second, so that all his couplets might be arranged in quatrains with very little difficulty. But Phayer appears to have been deficient in justness of ear, and correctness of modulation; his verse runs in equal couplets of fourteen syllables in each line, which we now confine to lyric composition, and divide into quatrains of eight and six alternately. The genius of this metre, therefore, requires a pause upon

the eighth syllable; yet Phayer either did not feel, or disregarded that musical propriety. His pauses are so indiscriminate, that it is frequently impossible to preserve any thing like measure, and at the same time maintain the punctuation of the sense, or even the integrity of the words themselves. It must, I apprehend, be admitted, that he was far inferior in numbers, and the knowledge of his art, to these early refiners of our language. Yet, whatever may have been his comparative excellence, he confessedly ranked high among the men of wit and genius in his day."

In the following chapter is described the village of Kenarth with its salmon-leap and fishery; also Nevern with a catholic cross, which Mr. Malkin considers as a remarkable piece of antiquity. He then proceeds to describe the mansion of Llwyn Gair, and the town and castle of Newport, with the adjacent cwmlech. There being little worthy of observation in the country between Fiscard and St. David's; the author in chapter 25 gives a copious description of that city and cathedral, their ancient history and present state, the legendary account of the saint, and memoirs of the most eminent of the bishops of the see. The 26th chapter briefly noticing a few small villages, &c. gives a general view of the country between Cardigan and Haverford West, with memoirs of the Stepneys of Pendergrast. Haverford West is described; with the life of John Gambold an eminent Moravian bishop, who died there.

In proceeding from the latter town to Milford Haven (chap. 27) the author passes some small uninteresting places, and gives a descriptive sketch of the ruins of Hubberston priory. Milford Haven is described; its ancient history is satisfactorily narrated, with memoirs of sir Rice ap Thomas, who signalized himself towards the end of the fifteenth century, for his opposition to the usurpation of Richard.

The following chapter describes Picton castle; Slebitch, formerly a commandery of the knights of St. John of Jerusalem; High Tor Wood, and the noble castle of Carew; with a particular account of the tournament held there by sir Rice ap Thomas. Arriving at Pembroke, the author gives a copious history of the castle, its ancient lords; and the successive earls of Pembroke; with the present state of the fortress and town. The picturesque features of the former, observes Mr. Malkin, "are of the first aquatic beauty, and are seen to the

highest advantage by taking a boat from Milford to Pembroke."

The principal objects of our author's attention in the next chapter are Mr. Mirehouse's agricultural improvements; the Castles (two rocks so called) and the Eligugs, a remarkable species of migrating birds. To these are added some particulars of the life of Girald, the celebrated historian of the twelfth century; also an account of Lamphey park and palace, and the town and castle of Tenby.

The remaining portion of this volume comprises the histories and descriptions of the county of Carmarthen, and the western part of Glamorganshire. In this we have an interesting and captivating account of the beautiful scenery which environs Dinevour castle, and Briton Ferry: near the latter place is Baglan-hall, which was frequently visited by the poets Mason and Gray. The former, when he left this district, wrote an elegy descriptive of the Welsh churchyard, a copy of which Mr. Malkin obtained from bard Williams, and has printed it, with a few illustrative notes.

In the vicinity of Bridgend, Glamorganshire, is the birth-place of the late celebrated Dr. Price, a list of whose works Mr. Malkin subjoins, and concludes his account of him in the following terms:

"Such were Dr. Price's writings on subjects the most important, in a style of luminous simplicity, the result of profound knowledge, and a clear conviction of the truth. I might enlarge from the best opportunities of observation on his personal character; but such testimony would weigh little with strangers of opposite opinions, who have been pleased to represent him as a firebrand in society; and it is not wanted either by those who approved his principles, or were acquainted with the tenor of his life."

The interesting tract of country that Mr. Malkin has undertaken to describe,

and whose history he attempts to develop, must be our apology, if apology is necessary, for the length of this article. Having never before found the name of this author in the list of topographers; we presume that the present volume is his first attempt in this department of literature. As such, it is a highly creditable specimen of his taste, knowledge and learning. His style is generally good, often elegant, and many of his descriptions are strikingly characteristic of the country; but his predilection for the old poets and chroniclers has occasionally beguiled his judgment, and disfigured his book.

A volume like the present is very incomplete without an index: and its value has been greatly enhanced by a set of good plates. Those by Mr. Laporte are tasty and pleasing as artist's sketches, but they want that detail, keeping, and effect, which render views valuable as portraits of places. The noble and picturesque castles of South Wales, with its abbeys and antiquities, present a fund of interesting subjects to the artist and antiquary: but as these two characters are seldom combined, it very rarely happens, that a topographical work is judiciously illustrated. Good maps, and correct views, are not only very desirable appendages to book of this class, but are valuable and necessary auxiliaries. They furnish satisfactory documents on which the mind can repose with security and pleasure; whereas the best descriptions rarely afford decided and convincing ideas. The mind in forming images from verbal delineations is frequently deceived, as ocular demonstration very rarely realizes the pictures of fancy. Hence, the utility of correct views must be universally acknowledged, and the evil tendency of bad and incorrect ones, must be censured by every admirer of taste, science and truth.

ART. XI. *Antiquities of Ireland*; by EDWARD LEDWICH, LL. D. 4to. pp. 530. Second edition.

DR. Ledwich has very laudably employed himself in clearing away the rubbish which so many of his countrymen have laboured to heap together.

His first essay is on the romantic history of Ireland. Of all the fables, which were ever palmed by impudence upon ignorance for truth, the fabulous history of Ireland is the most incongruous. They tell us, that, in the year of the world 2909, the art of enamelling metals was

discovered by the civilized Irish, and that king Eochaioh the second was surnamed Faobhar-glas, of the green-edge, because the points of his javelins and the blades of his swords were coloured green. His predecessor, Eadhua, was called the silver king, because, like king Solomon, he used to reward his soldiers with shields of pure silver, and with silver chariots and horses. So hospitable were they in those days, that hospi-

ality was regulated by law, the Biatachs, or keepers of houses of hospitality were the third order of the state. Each Biatach was to possess seven town lands, each of which comprehended seven plough lands, and he was to be master of a hundred and twenty herds, each containing a hundred and twenty cows; his house was to have four roads to it, that travellers might approach from all quarters, and a hog, and an ox, and a sheep, were always to be ready for the stranger. Of these houses of hospitality, there were eighteen hundred in the two Munsters, consequently there were twenty-five million, nine hundred, and twenty thousand cows there; facts, says O'Halloran, which, in the present age of pyrrhonism, might be well doubted, had we not modern evidence to corroborate them. Now, as Ireland is computed to contain 27,457 square miles, the board of agriculture would, doubtless, handsomely reward Mr. O'Halloran, or any of his brother historians, for communicating the system of pasturage, by which 25,920,000 cows were supported in only two of its provinces; nor would the philosophical world be less interested in seeing the theory of the infinite compressibility of matter so usefully reduced to practice. The same historians tell us, that this very people, highly civilized as they were, mixed up the brains of their enemies with mortar, to preserve them as trophies; used balls of brickdust and blood for their slings, and fed one of their princesses upon childrens flesh, to make her the sooner marriageable.

Dr. Ledwich has been deceived by Warton's groundless theory of the origin of romance, and supposes that the Irish fictions were derived from Arabia, through Spain.

"Ireland, in the sixth and succeeding centuries, possessed a literary reputation, which is proved by indisputable evidence. But her political constitution, municipal laws, and the prevailing studies of the times, were but ill calculated to advance letters or improve civility. It cannot, therefore, be doubted, but that romantic history was a favourite subject, and much cultivated by a people thus circumstanced. But of this, no monument exists antecedent to the age of Nennius,

A. D. 830. That it was much earlier, must appear from his having consulted the most skilful Irish antiquaries; who told him the fable of Pharaoh's son-in-law, his expulsion from Egypt, his travels through Africa and Spain, and from thence to Ireland. Nennius's judgment of this fiction is decisive, when he declares, that there was no sure history of the origin of the Irish. A learned and very ingenious writer has carefully examined and fully confuted the notion of the Hispanian extraction of the Irish; had he turned his thoughts to the origin of the fable, nothing more could have been said at once, to subvert it, and set the foolish fiction for ever at rest. The following hiats are offered, in some sort, to supply their omission.

"Spain, the centre of oriental fabling, always enjoyed a celebrity above that of any European country; the Irish, therefore, esteemed it a matter of the greatest importance to exhibit a clear deduction of their ancestors from thence, and which their native writers, in every age, have zealously inculcated.—When the Arabians entered Spain, in the beginning of the eighth century, (observe, Nennius lived in the ninth), with the revival of Greek literature, they introduced a knowledge of the sciences and arts, before but little studied, and in many parts of western Europe not known. From the earliest period they cultivated magic, they extolled their intimate acquaintance with the occult qualities of bodies; their skill in metallurgy, in optics, in vitrification, and in precious stones and medicine, supported their high pretensions, and astonished and confounded the incredulous. Nor were they less distinguished for a vein of romantic fiction; here they displayed an exuberance of fancy in the creation of imaginary beings, in the wildness and variety of their adventures, and in the extravagance of their fables, all springing from their modes of thinking, and their peculiar philosophy. A brilliancy of thought, and pomp of expression, at once captivated and delighted the reader.

"The pleasing contagion quickly diffused itself through every people; the genial warmth of oriental fiction enlivened their songs: the monotonous and dismal tales of blood and slaughter were succeeded by more amusing and sprightly relations, by the heroic achievements of gallantry, or the bland occupations of love; all these worked up with Arabian inventions and Arabian philosophy are visible, as we shall see, not only in our civil history but in our hagiography.

"The Armoric and Welsh bards very early attained eminence in romantic fabling; the Irish, who symbolized with them in

* I am obliged to speak of this author's work as authentic, because others have done so, though I think it the patched production of various writers, or one of the supposititious performances of the middle ages.

† Nulla tamen certa historia originis Scotorum reperitur. Nenn. p. 102. Ed. Bertram.

‡ Macpherson's Introduction to the Hist. of Great Britain and Ireland:

§ Warton's Hist. of English Poetry, V. 1. Diss. 1.

|| Warton, supra.

every article of religion, soon adopted the same taste, as did the Cornish poets. The connection between the Armorican Britons, the Cornish, the Welsh, and Irish, was for many ages intimate, so that a fondness for romantic history was soon propagated here: even the numerous resort of foreigners to our celebrated schools facilitated the introduction of this species of writing."

It is surprising that the many difficulties and inconsistencies in this hypothesis, should have escaped Dr. Ledwich's notice. If the fabulous history was invented in the sixth and succeeding centuries, much earlier than Nennius, how can it be traced to the Arabians, who did not enter Spain till the eighth? This anachronism alone would be fatal to the opinion, did there exist no other objections. There is not the slightest resemblance to oriental fiction in any of the early Spanish romances, whether in prose or verse, at this time, when Spain is supposed to have influenced the taste of all the bards and minstrels in Europe. It was precisely the last country in the world to which they would have thought of travelling, in so wretched a state were the only part of the inhabitants who could possibly have understood them. Nor is there the slightest proof, or the slightest reason to believe that the Welsh or Cornish poets ever travelled like the minstrels; where, indeed, should they have gone to be understood? for it is not to be supposed that they could compose their songs in any other language than their own. Many of the works of the Welsh bards, who flourished at this very period, still exist, and enough of them have been translated, to prove that their character is peculiarly their own. There is nothing like them to be found in any other country. The fabulous history of Ireland bears also equal proofs of originality; it bears no resemblance to the legends of any other people, and is perfectly characteristic of those whose prejudices and feelings it was designed to gratify. The same may be said of their hagiology. The editors of the *Acta Sanctorum* declare they cannot vouch for the lives of the Irish saints: those editors were in the habit of swallowing camels, and nobody has ever yet accused them of straining at gnats.

Of the documents for the ancient history of Ireland, the public, we hope, will soon be enabled to form their own judgment. Dr. O'Connor is employed in translating and publishing them under the

marquis of Buckingham's patronage. Dr. Ledwich, rejecting all that has appeared in O'Flaherty, Keating, O'Halloran, &c. confines himself to such notices as can be gleaned from the Greeks and Romans; his etymology of the Latin and the present names of the island are perfectly convincing: *Cæsar*, or his countrymen, called it *Hibernia*, because they believed it scarcely habitable from its coldness. *Diodorus Siculus* calls it *Iris*, *Gildas* gives it precisely the same name, and it is called *Ir-land* in one of the oldest sagas, and *Ire-land*, by *Alfred*. *Iri* is Irish, being the Great Isle; and, *Er-aii*, contracted into *Eri*, in Teutonic, the farther Isle.

On the colonization of Ireland, the Celts were the first and the most numerous settlers, the *Fir-bolga*, or *Belgæ*, the second. Dr. Ledwich thinks with Mr. Pinkerton, that these were a Gothic tribe, and that from the intermixture of the two, a mixt superstition, Celtic and Scythic, sprung up, which both British and Irish writers very improperly call druidic, for the druids were the priests of the Celtes. On this distinction, he says, and on this alone, rests the true and accurate explanation of the antiquities of Britain and Ireland. But the question has been newly investigated by Mr. Davies, who seems decidedly to have proved that the *Belgæ* were Celts. The Phœnicians of general Vallancy, and his fellow dreamers, are shown to be Finns. In the book of *Lecan*, which is the oracle of these fabulists, they are expressly called *Féinorae Muiriuaadh*, Fenians of the northern sea. The later colonies were all Gothic.

The essay on the druids and their religion is very unsatisfactory. The author compares *Cæsar*'s account of their religion with the Roman, observing that the parallel exactly agrees in every particular. It is like one of *Fluellen*'s parallels. The druids presided over divine affairs, took care of public and private sacrifices, and were the interpreters of religion: so did the Roman priesthood, says Dr. Ledwich, and gravely quotes *Dionysius Halicarnassensis* as his authority; that is to prove that priests were the officers of religion in Rome as well as in Britain, and if he had gone all the world over he would have found the parallel equally exact, every where. There is a strange confusion in this essay, for priesthood and religion are considered as the same thing. Dr. Ledwich seems never

to have seen the Bardic Triads, and very unfairly admits all that the ancients say of the barbarity of the druids, and denies, without any reason, the truth of all they say in their praise. Need he be told that their victims were criminals, and their human sacrifices executions, made more solemn, because the taking away life was regarded as an act of religion, as well as of law? He labours to prove, that our ancestors were cannibals. St. Jerome is very bad authority for any but a catholic, who is bound by his articles of faith to believe him; his evidence, however, is admitted here, and his man-eating Scots acknowledged for Irishmen. Christianity did not immediately alter their diet, for so late as the eleventh century, when Trahadacain ab Caradog was slain in Wales, one of the Irish chiefs in his enemy's army, took his body for his share of the spoils, because he was very fat, and made bacon of it—*Ut carnem suillam in lardum condidit*.

In the beginning of the next essay, on the pagan state of Ireland, and its remains, we are told, that the tall oak, the unpolluted grove, and the spiritual and refined religion of the druids yielded to the upright pillar, the stone circle, the ponderous trilithon, and bloody sacrifices, of brave but ferocious conquerors. Dr. Ledwich has forgotten, that the whole object of the preceding essay was to prove that the religion of the druids was absurd in its ceremonies, and cruel in its practice. The compound superstition which succeeded, he calls pagan, to distinguish it from pure druidism. To the pagan æra he attributes all the stone monuments which are usually called druidical, an error into which he could not possibly have fallen had he been acquainted with the writings of Mr. Owen. If druidism was ever corrupted by any (foreign) religion, it was by the Roman. Mr. David Williams says, that they had a goddess called Gwen, or Gwener, the Goddess of smiles, from whom Friday was called. Dyth Gwener, and that she was the sister of Jou and Sadwrn, from whom Dyth Jou, and Dyth Sadwrn, Thursday and Saturday, received their names. The passage in which these names occur ought to have been given, or, if they were received as traditional, the authority stated: but Gwen is evidently the same word as Venus, and Jou and Sadwrn, nothing more than Saturn and Jove barbarized. The Britons might thus have called the days of the Roman week,

with as little reference to the superstition from whence they were named, as we feel at present for Woden and Thor, for St. Valentine and St. Swithine, whose days regularly return, while they, themselves, are never remembered. That the druids ever amalgamated any of the Gothic superstitions with their own religion, is an assumption for which there is not the shadow of a proof; no systems were ever more heterogeneous: the Gothic, whether we receive it from Saxo Grammaticus and Verstegan, or take the more beautiful mythology of the Edda and the Voluspa and the Sagas, has, in all its parts, a reference to war; whereas the druidical was a law of peace. Mr. Davis's researches shew, that, very probably, the principles of the primeval language and alphabet were preserved by our Cimbric forefathers; it is also probable, that, in like manner, they preserved the primeval system of religion, more purely, or rather with fewer corruptions than any other race. On this they engrafted christianity, improving their own faith, not renouncing it; for it was even more analogous to christianity than the Mosaic dispensation, corrupted as that had been with human inventions, during the Babylonian captivity.

The only valuable part of this essay, is an account of the cruciform vault at New Grange, a monument evidently christian by its shape, of a late age, because coins of Valentinian and Theodosius were found on the mount, and destined for some semi-pagan, because pagan symbols were carved on the stones. There is a place of interment of the same shape, though much smaller, near the village of Badcombe, in Somersetshire.

Hitherto we have had little more than hypothesis; and have found the author more successful in combating the opinions of others, than in establishing his own. We now arrive at the era of history, and here Dr. Ledwich is an experienced and valuable guide. He inquires into the introduction of christianity, and shows that it came into these islands originally from Greece, not from Rome. The early missionaries in Gaul were Greeks, Pothenus, Attalus, Alexander, and Alcibiades; their names are proof sufficient, and they bear such by Polycarp. Trenzus was another of Polycarp's disciples. From Gaul our christianity would come, and that we did receive it according to the forms of the Asiatic churches is manifest from the

disputes concerning Easter, and the long resistance made to the Roman innovations. The legends of St. Kiaran, and his comrades, who were consecrated bishops at Rome, and sent to convert their countrymen, are the inventions of the monks. The author now ventures upon the bold attempt of annihilating St. Patrick. It is an undoubted fact, that this saint is not mentioned in any author, or in any work of veracity, in the 5th, 6th, 7th, or 8th, centuries. His name is in Bede's Martyrology; but it is more than probable that that Martyrology is not Bede's, nor can it be conceived that Bede, in his other works, should never notice the signal service rendered by Patrick to the Roman church, and the signal miracles wrought by him in its behalf, if he had ever heard of them, for the old *Venerabilis* was zealously devoted to that church and its mythology.

"In Usuard's and the Roman Martyrology, bishop Patrick, of Auvergne, is placed at the 16th day of March, and, on the same day, the office of the Lateran canons, approved by Pope Pius V. celebrates the festival of a Patrick the apostle of Ireland. The 17th of March is dedicated to Patrick, bishop of Nola. Had not doctor Maurice then the best reasons for supposing that Patricius Averensis sunk a day lower in the calendar, and made for the Irish a Patricius Hibernensis? This seems exactly to be the case. It is very extraordinary the 16th and 17th of March should have three Patrick's, one of Auvergne, another of Ireland, and a third of Nola! The antiquities of Glastonbury record three Patrick's, one of Auvergne, another archbishop of Ireland, and a third an abbot. The last, according to a Martyrology cited by Usher, went on the mission to Ireland, A. D. 850, but was unsuccessful; he returned and died at Glastonbury. If all that is now advanced be not a fardel of monkish fictions, which it certainly is, the last Patrick was the man who was beatified by the bigotted Anglo-Saxons, for his endeavours to bring the Irish to a conformity with the Roman church. Camden remarks, 'that as for Patrick's miracles I verily think that fabulous writers, in succeeding ages, amplified

them, and forged others, yea and might in that ignorant and credulous age affix upon him those of St. Patrick of Bulgaria.' This is fairly giving up the legend of St. Patrick as a fiction. I know nothing of Patrick of Bulgaria, but the Bulgarian prince, Roger, and his people received christianity, A. D. 845. So that every circumstance and inquiry seem to point out the 9th century as the precise time when a patron saint was bestowed on Ireland."

Anecdotes of early christianity in Ireland.—The first missionaries took the only possible means of converting a nation of pagans, unless they had been strong enough to employ force. They accommodated their practices as nearly as possible to the established superstitions, and the natives, almost without perceiving the change, received a new religion. Churches were built in consecrated groves, hermits took possession of the sacred caves, and the stone pillar was sanctified by the figure of a cross.

"But the accommodating spirit of our missionaries is no where more apparent than at Kildare, where they established a female monkish order, in the place of the heathen druidesses, who preserved, from the remotest ages, the inextinguishable fire. This element was adored by the Celtes and Scythians, and by the Irish, as is well known from their celebrated festival of *Bel-tein*. All fires with us were to be extinguished until this was lighted. We are not told how this holy flame was excited in Ireland, but the manner differed in Scotland and Scandinavia. In the last, flints were used, and they are found about all the old altars there. In Scotland they rubbed planks together till they blazed. This fire was kept from scattering by iron curbs, and was perpetual. Altars, says the Edda, were made and covered with iron, in which was kept the extinguishable fire.

"Caesar and Tacitus are full on the predictive and sacred qualities of the German women; Velleda, a druidess, was long looked up to by them as a deity. The Northerns called them *Alifrunn*, and in Irish *Alarunnaghe* is the wise man, acquainted with secrets. Keyser, in the work last cited, has collected some curious particulars respecting

* Usser. p. 897.

† Galli, Viridomaro rege, Romana arma Vulcano promiserant, Flor. l. 2. c. 4. Gentilis religio est, five quis solem, lunam, ignem coluerit. Leg. Canut. apud Lindenbrog. p. 1478. Spelman. Conc. p. 449—500, et Capit. Karoli. passim.

‡ Macpherson's Introd. p. 172.

§ Non accenderetur nec videretur ignis donec prius in Thormoria rogos accenderetur: Usser. p. 849. Walsh's prospect, p. 490.

|| Rarum est si hic ignibus excutendis aptos silices non invenias. Worm. Mon. Dan. p. 7.

¶ Martin's Western Islands, p. 113.

•• Ferro superne investitæ, ne igni, qui ibi perennis esse debuit, læderetur. Worm. supra Barthol. p. 273.

†† Keyser. Antiq. Septen. Selec. p. 371. Sched. p. 439. †† O'Brien in voc.

these women : they wore a particular dress, and we may readily suppose, were the predecessors of the nuns at Kildare. St. Brigit, we are told, planted the latter there, and entrusted to their care the holy fire. This, as the legend informs us, though constantly supplied with fuel, yet never increased in ashes. The fire was surrounded with a walled orbicular fence, within which, no male presumed to enter. To keep this fire free from human pollution, it was never to be blown with the mouth, but with vans, or bellows. The parallel is too exact to leave any doubt of the origin of the holy fire. The ruins of a building are at present shown at Kildare, and called the fire-house, where, it is said, the sacred flame was preserved ; but, in this instance, I believe tradition erroneous, for, from the foregoing account, it would have been a profanation of the holy element to confine it within walls."

In the fifth century, Palladius was sent to Ireland by pope Celestine, to carry relics, and take possession of a bishopric. The Irish were wild, barbarous, and obstinate, say the catholic writers, which means, that they very properly treated him as an intruder, being contented with their own hierarchy. The island was divided into four provinces, over each of which, a bishop presided as metropolitan, but without the title.—These, according to the custom of the Greek church, changed and multiplied bishops at pleasure, and Ireland was full of chorepiscopi ; the whole number of bishops might have amounted to above three hundred. The oriental practice of hereditary succession in the church was firmly established.

" From what source arose the revenues of our clergy is not easy to discover. St. Bernard and Giraldus Cambrensis, declare the Irish did not pay tithes. If the fact was so, and there are grounds to believe it, then the clergy were supported by oblations, which, for a long time, they received in lieu of tythes : these were so large that Agobard observes, ' the devotion of persons in the first ages was so great, that there was no need to make laws or canons for the supplies of churches, they being amply provided for by the liberality of the people.' Included in oblations were first-fruits, which were paid in the early ages of christianity : as to altarge, mortuary, and obventions, they seem to have been at length introduced into the Irish, as into other churches.

The whole ecclesiastical revenue to a late period was divided in § four parts ; one went to the bishop, another to the clergy, a third to the poor, and a fourth, supported the fabric of the church and other uses. This four-fold partition prevailed generally in Ireland, and exists at this day in the diocese of Clonsfert. Most of our ancient sees were deambulatory, having neither cathedrals, deans, or chapters : such is Meath at present, and such is Kilmore, except the addition of a dean in 1458. Our parishes had their beginning with the suppression of our chorepiscopal sees, in 1152 ; as the annihilation of the latter was not effected in the 18th century, as appears by bishop Rochfort's constitutions before, the parochial division of dioceses was late before it was finally settled."

Of the origin and progress of monachism in Ireland.—Previous to the coming of Augustine, in 597, only the Egyptian rule was in use in Britain, for monachism, like christianity, came to these islands from the east ; or, it might be more accurately stated, had not yet been modified by the Roman church. The division of the oriental monks into three classes, the Cœnobites, Anachorets, and Sarabaites, was common in the west as well as in the east. St. Benedict notices it, and adds to them a fourth class, called Girovagi, or Wanderers, ' who, all their life-time, wander through divers provinces, and guest-wise stay two or three days in one monastery, and then in another, and are always wandering and never settled, and giving themselves altogether to their own pleasures, and to the inticements of gluttony, are generally in all things worse than the Sarabaites.' Monks flourished in Ireland, indeed in no country did superstition ever strike deeper root. Carthag is said to have governed more than eight hundred monks at Ratheny, in Westmeath ; and St. Bernard says, that the monastery at Bangor, in the county of Down, contained many thousand monks, and that Luanus, a scholar of this house, founded not less than a hundred monasteries ; so fruitful was it in holy men, and multiplying so greatly to the Lord. Dr. Ledwich seems to admit the truth of this ridiculous exaggeration. St. Bernard was a great man, but his assertions were often

* Cum tanta lignorum strues, tanto in tempore sit hic consumpta, nunquam tamen cinis excrevit. Gir. Cambrensis. p. 279.

† Non oris flate, sed foliis tantum et ventilabris. Gir. Camb. supra.

‡ Tanquam decimas ex fructibus. Cyprian. Epist. 64. Chrysostom. hom. 86. a Matt. Possid. vit. August. c. 23.

§ Stillingfleet, sup. p. 171.

|| Ware's Bishops, p. 619.

as inaccurate as his prophecies. When the Ostmen arrived, the golden age of Irish monachism was destroyed; they introduced the Benedictine order, and, following the system of Augustine in Britain, massacred the original monks who resisted them, and forced upon the people all the corruptions of Rome. The means must be reprobated, but it may be doubted whether the end was so mischievous as it is here represented. When monachism had once been established it was surely an improvement to introduce the Benedictine order. The Benedictines were not more superstitious than their predecessors, but they were more civilized. Monachism was greatly improved, madmen had begun it in Egypt, and knaves in Europe adapted the institution to their own advantage. A summary of the monastic history of Ireland is thus given by some old writer.

"The first order of catholic saints," says that writer, "began in the time of St. Patrick; all of them illustrious and holy, and filled with the holy spirit, the founders of many churches, and in number 350. They had one head, who was Christ, one leader, who was St. Patrick, and one tonsure from ear to ear. They had one mass, one celebration, and one Easter, the 14th of the month after the vernal equinox. Whoever was anathematized by one church was so by all. They did not reject the attendance and company of women, because being founded on Christ their rock, they did not fear the wind of temptation, all these were Roman, French, British, and Irish bishops. They continued for four reigns, from the year 433 to 534: this order was the holiest."

"The second class was that of the catholic presbyters: in this were few bishops, but the presbyters 300; they had one head, who was our Lord; they celebrated divers masses, and had various rules; they rejected the society of women, separating them from their monasteries. They received the mass* from Gilla, David, and Docus, Britons; they kept Easter on the 14th of the month, and had one tonsure from ear to ear, this class continued four reigns, from 543 to 598, and was less holy."

"In the third class were holy presbyters, and few bishops, in number one hundred: they inhabited deserts, fed on herbs, water, and alms, possessed nothing of their own; had different rules, masses, and tonsures, some with their crowns shaven, others with long hair. They celebrated the paschal feast, some on the 14th, others on the 16th of the

month, with great severity. This class continued for four reigns, from 598 to 658, and was holy. In this order we may trace the austerities of the monkish life, so zealously cultivated in this period; corruptions are noticed, but as yet no direct acknowledgement of Rome or her doctrines. The composer of this catalogue, with singular impartiality and judgment, affixes to each class an expressive epithet. The first was the holiest, it shone like the brightness of † the sun. Like the great luminary, the pure religion of our missionaries illuminated the darkness of heathenism, and convinced the ignorant and incredulous of its divinity, by the lives of its preachers. The second class was less holy, it shone as the ‡ moon. Corruptions began to appear in the church; the brilliant sun of christianity was shorn by his beams, and possessed only the light of an inferior planet: when religion became clouded with superstition, and human invention, the third class appeared, this resembled the faint glimmerings of a § star. In the most degenerate times there were always a number of pious men and true believers, to adorn the doctrine of Christ. If our author was a Culdee, as I suspect, he sacrificed much by placing Columba in the second class, but it had been a much greater sacrifice to have obscured the truth, and preferred the solitary to the social virtues. Here he acted according to the characteristic uprightness of his order. If he was not a Culdee, it was scarcely possible to avoid betraying some fondness for Roman customs. In either case, we may observe, an admirable equilibrium of temper, well becoming a sensible, candid, and learned man."

The *purity* of the two last classes extended even to the grave. At Clonmagnagh were separate burial-places for the sexes, such were the orders of St. Finian. It would have been a breach of chastity for monks and nuns to be interred within the same inclosure!

Of the Culdees.—The etymology of their name is very doubtful. Toland will have it Ceili-de, the separated or espoused to God. Bishop Nicholson derives it from *Coul-du*, a black eowl, but a passage in Bede seems to imply that their garments were white. Shaw thinks that Ceil-de, servant of God, was latinized Colideus, and thence came the corruption Culdees. Is it not possible that Colideus may have been the original word, a barbarous word sufficiently like Latin, assumed by the monks themselves? Columba was the founder, he had studied in St. Finian's seminary at

* Gilla was Gildas. Usser. p. 472—473. David, as well as the foregoing, was an eminent British scholar in the 6th century. Usser. p. 958.

† Primus, sicut Sol ardescit. Usser. p. 915.

§ Tertius, sicut stella. Usser. sup.

‡ Secundus, sicut Luna. Usser. sup.

Clonard, and in consequence of his talents, had taken an active part in state affairs. But having unnecessarily instigated a bloody war, as a penance he abjured his native country, and went to convert the Picts, in 565: he succeeded, and built the celebrated monastery in Tona, where he died at the age of 77, in the 32d year of his exile. Bede says of him, *qualiscunque fuerit ipse, nos hoc de illo certum tenemus, quod reliquit successores, magnâ continentia ac divino amore, regularique institutione insignes. In tempore quidem summæ festivitatis dubios circulos sequentes, utpote quibus longe ultra orbem positus, nemo synodalia Paschalis observantia decreta porrexerat; tantum ea quæ in Prophetis, Evangelicis, & Apostolicis literis discere poterant, pietatis et castitatis opera diligenter observantes.* It is curious to hear Bede speaking of the Scotch Culdees, as people out of the world! The passage is highly honourable to them, when their merits are thus acknowledged by a Romanist. Iona was the head of the order, but the order existed long after its head had apostatized. Adamnan, who was abbot in 717, conformed to the Roman custom, and all the brethren who did not follow his example were expelled from the Islet.

“ It would be doing injustice to the subject, and leaving this little history imperfect, to omit some practices of the Culdees, which deserve notice. They, as well as the British monks, supported themselves by the labour of their hands. In this they resembled their archetypes of the east. The Culdees were † married, but when it came to their turn to officiate they did not cohabit with their wives. By the 28th canon of the African Code, sub-deacons who handle the holy mysteries, deacons, priests, and bishops, are directed at their several terms to abstain from their wives. By terms, as explained by the 13th of the Trullan canons, are meant the times of their ministration; or as the old scholiast on the third African understands it, some time before and after the eucharist. A practice derived from † Egypt to the Jews, and from them adopted by Christians. Celibacy was unknown for the first 300 years of the church. Northumberland was converted by Irish Cul-

dees: in 950, the priests of that country published canons; one was, * if a priest dismisses one wife, and take another, let him be an anathema! Here the censure falls on second marriages. The Culdees in St. Andrew's were § married to the year 1100.

“ The registry of St. Andrew's informs us, that the Culdees, relaxing in discipline, were deprived of their possessions, but king Alexander restored them conditionally, that they should be more attentive in attending divine service, which they neglected, except when the king or bishop was present, performing, however, their own office, in their own way, in a small || corner of the church. This account is obscure, merely because the truth is not related. For the registry acquaints us, when Alexander began the reform in the church of St. Andrew, there was no one to serve at the altar of the blessed apostle St. Andrew, or to celebrate mass. This shews, that the Culdees, who were settled there, paid no respect to these holy relics, or to the mass, but chose rather to forfeit their church and property, than desert their principles; preferring their ancient office with integrity of heart, in a corner, to the possession of the choir and its superstitious pageantry. Their office was Gallican, and very different from the Roman. We are sure it was not the mass, which Pope Gregory ¶ confesses was the work of a private person, and not of apostolic authority. The Anglo-Saxons accepted the Roman office, but the Britons and Irish retained their primitive forms.

“ The conduct of the Romanists towards the Culdees was uniformly persecuting in every place. A charter** of David, king of Scotland, recites, that he had given to the canons of St. Andrew, the Isle of Lochleven, to institute there the canonical rule, and that the Culdees, its ancient possessors, if they thought fit to conform to that rule, live peaceably, and in subjection to the canons, might continue there; but, if they rejected these terms, they were to be expelled. This proposal, incompatible with their principles, not being acceded to, they were ejected. In the greater churches in Ulster, as at Cluaninnis and Daminnis, and particularly at Armagh, in our memory, †† says archbishop †† Usher, ‘ were priests called Culdees, who celebrated divine service in the choir, their president was styled prior of the Culdees, and he acted as prætor.’ It was not easy to eradicate a reverence founded on solid piety, exemplary charity, and superior learning; or to commit sudden violence on characters where such qualities were found. The Romish emissary

* Bed. sup. Toland, supra.

† Toland, supra.

‡ Porphy. de Abst. p. 150. Vini abstinebant, & in casto erant tempore *conspicui* *enæ* *Ægyptii* sacerdotes, perinde ac Ebræi. Huet. Dem. Evang. c. 11. La Croze, Christ. des Indes, p. 437. Rhegino, p. 155.

§ Toland, supra.

|| Keledei nauque in angulo ecclesiæ suum officium suo more celebrabant. Dalrymple, supra. ¶ Epist. 63. l. 7.

** Maitland; V. 1. p. 162. Sibbald, supra.

†† Primord. p. 637

ries were therefore obliged to exert all their cunning to remove those favourable prejudices, and where force could not, seduction often prevailed. The alternative of expulsion or acquiescence must ever strongly operate on human imbecility: in a few instances the latter was chosen: thus, about the year 1127, Gregory *, abbat of the Culdean monastery of Dunkeld, and Andrew his successor, were made bishops, the first of Dunkeld, the other of Caithness. The last cited intelligent antiquary confirms the wary manner in which the Culdees were treated, as making their abbats, bishops, and preserving to those who had parishes, their benefices during life. The same policy was followed in Ireland. The president of the Culdees was made præcentor; he was to have the most † honourable seat at table, and every respect from his corps. Such little distinctions, while they flattered and saved appearances, were fatal to the Culdees; many breaches were made in their rights, and at last they ‡ lost all their privileges, their old institute, and retained barely the name of their pristine celebrity. Such as they were in latter ages, they continued to exist, and so late as 1625, they had considerable property in Armagh, as seven townlands, with smaller parcels; a great number of rectories, vicarages, tithes, messuages, and houses."

On the state of the Irish church in the eleventh century and after.—The first severe shock which the church of Ireland received was from the Ostmen, in the ninth century. By their means a complete conformity was finally produced. Lanfranc, the English primate, being acknowledged by them, leavened the Irish clergy, and predisposed them to submit their civil, as well as their religious liberties to the authority of England. Henry and the pope, notwithstanding all their struggles, had here a mutual interest; the king wanted a title to the sovereignty of Ireland, and his holiness gave it him, for the sake of getting St. Peter's pence.

The next essay treats of the stone-roofed churches of the ancient Irish. It is certain that the Irish had neither domestic edifices, nor religious structures of lime and stone, before the great northern invasion, in the 9th century. Their habitations were made of wattles, plastered over with clay, and covered with straw or sedge; seldom of solid timber. Even so late as the twelfth century, when the king of Connaught built a castle of

stone at Tuam, it was thought so extraordinary as to be called the Wonderful Castle. The Irish church was originally as hostile to architecture as the bald and beggarly system of presbyterianism; it is no wonder that the Roman ritual triumphed. The Ostmen brought with them masses and litanies and music, stations and pilgrimages, and reliques, all the pageantry of religion; they added perhaps a few more corruptions to a faith already corrupted, but they certainly made it cheerful, and splendid, and beautiful. Their first buildings were stone-roofed chapels, for reliques, in close imitation of the British crypts. To the Ostmen, also, Dr. Ledwich attributes the round towers. It is evident that these extraordinary structures cannot have been erected earlier from the miserable state of architecture among the native Irish; but it is more likely that some travelling builders should have borrowed the idea from the eastern minarets, than that they should have been adopted from the continent.

In the next essay, upon the history and antiquities of Glendaloch, there occurs a good specimen of Irish agiology.

"There was, in Ireland, one, among the body of saints, named Kævinus, a kind of hermit, inhabiting the town of Glumelhagam (Glendaloch) who, when that happened which we are about to relate, had in his house a young man, his relation, greatly beloved by him. This young man being attacked by a disease which seemed mortal, at that time of the year when diseases are most dangerous, namely, in the month of March; and taking it into his head that an apple would prove a remedy for his disorder, earnestly besought his relation Kævinus to give him one. At that time no apples were easily to be had, the trees having just then began to put forth their leaves. But Kævinus grieving much at his relation's sickness, and particularly at not being able to procure him the remedy required, he, at length, prostrated himself in prayer, and besought the Lord to grant him some relief for his kinsman.—After his prayer, he went out of the house, and looking about him, saw a large tree, a *salix* or willow, whose branches he examined, and as if for the expected remedy, when he observed the tree to be full of a kind of apples, just ripe. Three of these he gathered, and carried to the young man: when the youth had eaten part of these apples, he felt his disorder gradually abate, and was at

* Dalrymple, *supra*, p. 246.

† *Priori Colideorum locus primus in mensa & a Colideis cæteris reverentia congrua debeat.* Usser. *supra*.

‡ Usher may be consulted, p. 659.

length restored to his former health. The tree seemed to rejoice in this gift of God, and bears every year a fruit like an apple, which from that time have been called St. Kevin's apples, and are carried over all Ireland, that those labouring under any disease may eat them; and it is notorious from various relations, that they are the most wholesome medicine against all disorders to which mankind are liable; and it must be observed, that it is not so much for the sweetness of their savour as their efficacy in medicine, for which they are esteemed, and as at first for which they are sought. There were many other things which were suddenly effected by the virtue of this holy man.—Perhaps this story arose from exhibiting the bark, leaves and catkins of the willow, which the Irish believed to be efficacious in dysenteries.

“Cambrensis tells us, that in the time of Lent, St. Kevin retreated from the commerce of the world, to a little hut in a desert, to enjoy meditation, reading, and prayer. On a certain time, putting his hand out of the window, and lifting it up to Heaven, according to custom, a blackbird perched on it, and using it as a nest, dropped her eggs there. The saint pitied the bird, and neither closed or drew his hand in, but indefatigably kept it stretched out, until she brought forth her young. In memory of this all the images of St. Kevin have a hand extended, and a bird sitting on it.”

The bed of St. Kevin was one of the four principal places of pilgrimage in Ireland. It is a hollow in the rock, said to have been made by his own hands, which served him at once for oratory and dormitory; the rock is precipitous, the ascent, therefore, is difficult and dangerous, and the descent more so, for so narrow is the path, that the least slip would precipitate the adventurer into the lake below. Soon after the English conquest of Ireland, if conquest it may be called, this place, which had been held so holy, and was so famous for its seven churches, the remains of which are still beautiful, became a den of thieves, and more murders were committed in that valley than in any other place in Ireland.

A new and curious theory is advanced in the observations on Saxon and Gothic architecture.

“In the Mediceo-Laurentian library at Florence, is a Syriac MS. of the Evangelists, written A. D. 586, full of pictures and miniatures, exhibited in twenty-six leaves. The second shews the Virgin Mary, with Jesus in her arms, under a ciborium, supported by four pillars, which are dressed with chevrons, lozenges, and eggs. The other plates give every characteristic ornament of the Saxon style; as nebules, lozenges, quatrefoils and chevrons, flowers, fruit, birds, and a rich variety of sculpture. So early an instance, as to date, so authentic and in point, has not, I believe, been produced; what has been observed of the church of Tours, and that of Hexham, being rather probable conjecture. Here we have a curious and incontestible fact full in view.

“That we should discover the Saxon ornaments (for I must use the term to be intelligible) in the East is a phenomenon little to be expected. Let us consider that the tabernacle made by the Israelites in the wilderness, was to represent at once an oriental temple and palace. As described in Exodus, it was a great pavilion or tent, and in it was the ark. The latter was concealed from sight by a veil, suspended from four pillars of precious wood, their capitals and bases of precious metals, and the shafts overlaid with the same. Within this the Deity was supposed to reside.

“Christians, in the early ages of the church, imitated many ceremonies and practices of the Jews, and among others they formed small portable tabernacles, constructed on the model of the first. Sozomen tells us, that Constantine, about the beginning of the 4th century, carried with him, in his campaigns, a tabernacle, in the shape of a church, that neither he or his army might, in the wilderness, be without a temple for holy uses. I say, Constantine and the Christians might have adopted this idea from the Jews, but it fell also in very exactly with the pagan usages, and might have been retained, not to scandalize new converts. The carrying gods in portable temples, was common among the Egyptians, Cappadocians, Greeks, and Romans, and such were the silver shrines spoken of by St. Luke, in the Acts. Scripture and Sozomen call these tabernacles *Seonæ*; but Chrysostom, who was contemporary with Sozomen, Ciboria. In his 42d homily on the Acts, he asks in what form they made those silver shrines, and answers, they were perhaps like the small *Ciboria*.

* Threlhold's Synopsis, voce *salix*.

† Codex evangeliorum antiquissimus, literis capitalibus scriptus sine punctis vocalibus, anno Alexandrino 807, hoc est, Christi 586, cum harmonia evangelica Ammonii et Eusebii, et miniaturis picturisque veteris & novi testamenti. Hic codex vere inestimabilis est, optime scriptus. Biblioth. Medic. Laur. t. 1, p. 44.

§ Goguet sur l'orig. des loix. t. 2. p. 231—232.

|| *Kai oiketai eis synagogen ikeramen*. l. 1. c. 7.

¶ *Act. 16. 13*. Eustath. in *Ilid.* l. 1. Strab. l. 4. Athenæi *Deipnos.* l. 11. Casaub. in *loc.* Dio. l. 40. Val. Max. Herodian. Lactant. &c.

** *Ius in K. Capis punga*.

"The Ciborium was the shell, containing the seeds of the * Colocasia or Egyptian bean, its surface was flat and hemispherical, from which, to the bottom, it declined into a cone: it was used as a † drinking cup, and resembled our chalices or goblets. This inverted and suspended by its footstalk, was similar to the canopy that covered these shrines, and in the beginning of the 5th century, as appears from Chrysostom, was thus understood, and at length expressed the pillars, curtains, canopy, and the whole ‡ shrine or tabernacle.

"Before Christianity was fully established, and for some ages after, the practice of making Ciboria to serve as domestic chapels, from the example of Constantine and the general tincture of paganism still remaining, must have been universal. We have traced it through the 4th, 5th, and the Syriac MS. evinces what it was in the 6th century. In the first of religious zeal, Constantine demolished the monuments of ancient architecture and sculpture. The porches of the temples, says § Eusebius, were laid open, their doors taken down, and their roofs torn off. In one place Apollo Pythius lay exposed to view, in another Sminthius, in the circus the Delphic tripods, and in the palace the Heliconian muses. A new style of ornament and building commenced, it was a || corrupt imitation of Eastern, Grecian, and Roman models. The first experiments seem to have been made on tabernacles and Ciboria. Catching the flame of religion from their prince, and to complete their triumph over idolatry, christians would naturally reject those ornaments that decorated heathen temples, and employ whatever they could collect of the Jewish and Eastern feuillage. The Syriac MS. presents us with pillars spiral, fluted and covered with a lozenge net work, different frettes, chevrons, chalices, flower and angels heads, ornaments certainly prior to the date of that work. They were after transferred to stone buildings, and seem to be the true origin of those called Saxon ornaments."

Christ, the Virgin and the apostle, are represented within the Ciboria of the Syriac MSS. but these were soon supplanted by reliques and the sacrament. As the mysterious doctrine of the eucharist was perfected, the most daring and the most successful mystery that ever craft invented, more ornament was bestowed on the Ciboria. Inverted, they formed the cupolas of the Greek churches, and their monuments were of the same shape. The grotesque figures so common in our old churches, Dr.

Ledwich explains as imitations of the Egyptian style, borrowed immediately from Rome, where the superstitions of Egypt, under the emperors, had slowly gained ground, for those wretches were made superstitious by their crimes. This is the most valuable part of the volume.

On the ancient Irish coins. The first mint in Ireland was established by the Ostmen; their coins were only current among themselves, and are, therefore, only found in their settlements. English money did not pass among the Irish before the middle of the fourteenth century. This appears extraordinary, but the proofs are decisive. In the Brehon laws every thing is appreciated by cattle. In 1331, amerciements were ordered to be received no longer in heifers, but in deniers. Edward the third past this decree in the hope of improving the trade of Ireland, and the revenue; and he ordered a coinage for Ireland, but no specimens of it have been found. Seventy years after, the prince of Leinster's horse was rated at 400 cows, and the relator of this fact expressly adds, that, in Ireland, they barter by exchange, one commodity for another, and not for ready money. Even so late as 1570, Campion says, they exchange by commutation of wares for the most part, and have utterly no coin stirring in any of the great lord's houses.

The coupé arm occurs on many of the Danish, Irish, as well as on the Saxon coins. It is well explained by the law of Athelstan, 'if any coiner adulterates money, let his hand be cut off and fixed over the mint.' A coin of Sihtric, found in Queen's county, shows the hand, with a nail through the palm. It is remarkable that Dr. Ledwich, when speaking of the Irish mines, should say, it is probable there are some of gold or silver, and take no notice whatever of the Wicklow mine.

Observations on the harp, and ancient Irish music.—Though Scotlan^d, says Irevissa, the daughter of Irlonde, use harpe, tymbre, and tabour, nethelesse Irysshe men be connyng in two maner instruments of musyke, in harpe and tymbre, that is armed with wyre and stenges of bras. In whiche instrumentes, though they playe hastily and swyftely,

* Salmas. Plin. exercit. p. 1310. who shew Rhodoginus is much mistaken in the account of the Ciborium.

† Poculi vicem et usum præbebat. Salmas. sup.

§ Vit. Constant. l. 1. c. 8.

|| Wren has well observed in his Parentalia, that orders were Hebrew, Phœnician, &c. The account of the Jewish tabernacle is a proof.

‡ Li pitture d'Ercolano. t. 2. p. 211.

they make ryght mery armonye and melodye, with thycke tewnes, werbles, and notes. And begynne from bemoll, and playe secretly under dymme, sowne under the grete strenges, and torne agayn unto the same: so that the gretest partye of the crafte hydeth the crafte, as it wolde seme as though the crafte so hydde sholde be ashamed yf it were take. Giraldus, a Welshman himself, confesses the superiority of the Irish in music. ' Their skill, he says, is, beyond comparison, superior to that of any other nation. For their modulation is not slow and solemn, as in the instruments of Britain, to which we are accustomed; but the sounds are rapid and precipitate, yet sweet and pleasing. It is extraordinary in such rapidity of the fingers, how the musical proportions are preserved, and the art every where unhurt, among the complicated modulations, and the multitude of intricate notes, so sweetly swift, so irregular in their composition, so disorderly in their concords, yet returning to unison, and completing the melody. Whether the cords of the diatesseron or diapente be struck together, they always begin in dulce, and end in the same, that all may be perfect in completing the delightful sonorous melody. They commence and quit their modulations with so much subtlety, and the tinkling of the small strings sports with so much freedom under the deep notes of the bass, delight with so much delicacy, and sooth so softly, that the excellency of the art lies in concealing it.'

Mr. Beauford, who has likewise given an essay on the musical instruments of the ancient Irish, in this volume, says, that we have no just information concerning the materials of which their harps were composed: they were most probably of wood, and the strings either of thongs of leather or of brass wire. The latter were played on with a plectrum or crooked nail. Latterly they were strung with hair, for Borde says, in his *Introduction to Knowledge*,

" My harp is made of a good mates skyn,
The strynges be of horse-heare, it maketh a
good dyn."

Both Dr. Ledwich and his friend suppose that the harp came into Ireland from Scandinavia, and that originally the crwth was the Celtic instrument. They notice David's harp, observing that the dreams of modern rabbis, and the fanciful drawings of Kircher, their blind

follower, are of no weight. But they do not mention the drawings discovered in Upper Egypt by Bruce, which bear a nearer resemblance than any other ancient instrument to the Welsh and Irish harp. Henry VIII. made the harp the armorial bearing of Ireland. The English, says Dr. Ledwich, allowed us eminence in nothing but music. He therefore selected this instrument as being our favourite one, and to perpetuate the celebrity of our performance on it in former times. Such a bearing was a judicious compliment: it neither reminded us of our present dependance, nor upbraided us with our former rebellions.

Of the ancient Irish dress.—Before the eighth century, very little is to be found concerning their dress; and the reason appears in an Irish canon of that age. It was found necessary to decree that every clerk, from the door-keeper to the priest, who should be seen without his tunic, and who did not cover his nakedness, should be separated from the church. The clerical tunic was at first a long loose garment with sleeves, and afterwards, when it was shortened, it came to the knees, so that it was still a decent covering. The canon therefore implies, that the Irish ecclesiastics wore the secular dress, which was only a rhenos, a lambskin or woollen mantle, covering the shoulders, and reaching to the elbows, leaving the rest of the body naked. It is not known who introduced breeches into the country, but they were so far advanced in civilization as to wear them before the English conquest. Their clothing was usually black, being the colour of the bogs, their constant retreats. For other occasions they had their finery; their mantles were of various colours sown together, a striped patch-work like the Gallic caracalla. In Elizabeth's reign, when ruffs became fashionable, the Irish thus imitated them; instead of a cape to the cloak, they wore a great quantity of thrums or yarn fringe, so that when the mantle, according to custom, was put up close to the nape of the neck, the fringe hung down near a foot long.

A statute of Henry VIII. informs us what was the dress of the Irish in 1599, and which the Hiberno-English had adopted.

" It forbids any to be shaven or shorn above the ears, or to wear long locks called glibbs. At the arrival of the English the Irish wore long hair and beards, these the

Normans* esteemed barbarous, as they 'were all† gallant, with coats to the mid knee, head shorn, beard shaved, arms laden with bracelets, and face painted.' Hen. I. abolished long hair with locks and perukes. A very curious‡ inedited statute of the 24 Edw. I. A. D. 1295, tells us that the English having degenerated in the present times, clad themselves in garments like those of the Irish, having their heads half shaven, their hair behind they let grow, tie up and call it *culan*, being thus in dress and appearance perfectly Irish. It is therefore agreed, that no Englishman, at least so far as regards the head, shall any longer presume to throw back his hair into the coolen, but observe the custom and tonsure of the English. Mr. Harris's note on this act or ordinance of state is, that what is here called *culan*, was afterwards called *glibb*. These *cooleens*, as they are commonly pronounced, are § derived from *culam* or *culan* to push or thrust back, and are well explained by a passage in || Hector Boethius, where the Scottish *cooleen* is a twisted lock of hair, the *glibb* running from the front to the back of the head, the rest shaven. This resembled in some sort the crest of an helmet, and had no inelegant appearance. Spencer remarks how convenient this *glibb* was for a thief; by cutting it off he became unknown, as well as by bringing it over his face."

The custom of wearing their hair long is curiously noticed by Bulwer, in his *Artificial Changeling*. To what use or purpose, says he, should that superfluous crop of hair serve, or what emolument it can bring, none can see, unless it be to breed lice and dandro, after the manner of your Irish; who as they are a nation estranged from any human excel-

lency, scarce acknowledge any other use of their haire, than to wipe their hands from the fat and dirt of their meales, and any other filth, for which cause they nourish long fealt locks, hanging down to their shoulders, which they are wont to use instead of napkins to wipe their greasie fingers! To this day the lower class of women in Ireland never cut their hair, and never clean it.

"The statute of Henry VIII. goes on to forbid any shirt, smock, kerchor, bendel, nockerchor, moeket or linen cap to be dyed with saffron, or to have in a shirt or smock above seven standard yards of cloth. This act gave rise to various ridiculous notions: the Irish, it was said, used this as it¶ strengthened the body and limbs. This was on the supposition that saffron was the tincturing substance, which from its scarcity and dear-ness it was not: there were abundance of other vegetables known** that gave a fine yellow colour. A Portuguese†† physician asserted that saffron was selected as a vermifuge, and that the Irish as well as the Islanders, wearing their shirts six months without changing them, used it as such. The faculty, whose decisions are always accepted as oracular, gave an extensive circulation to this idle tale, which was eagerly caught up by Moryson‡‡ and others; whereas had these learned writers consulted Vopiscus, they would have seen the cause of this predilection in favour of yellow, from the fondness of the Belgio Gauls for it. The emperor Tetricus is represented as dressed after the manner of these people: he has his §§ mantle of imperial purple, his tunic or vest yellow, and he wore the trowse.

"Bendel in the statute is the Anglo-Saxon or Teutonic *bendelan*, from *bende* a swathe,

* Gens hæc barbara, quia non tantum barbaro vestrum ritu, verum comis et barbis luxuriantibus juxta modernas novitates incultissima. Gir. Cambrens. .p. 739.

† Camden's Remains, p. 198—199.

‡ Anglici etiam quasi degeneres modernis temporibus, hibernicalibus se induunt vestimentis, et habentes capita semirasa, capillos a retro capitis nutantur et alligant, et illos *Culan* vocant, Hibernicis tam habitu quam facie conformantes. Concordatum est, quod omnes Anglici in hac terra, saltem in capite quod plus visui se præsentat, mores et tonsuram gerant Anglicorum, nec amplius præsumant avertere comas in Colanum. Harris's MSS. apud Dublin Society.

§ O'Brien in voce.

|| Nudis semper capitibus idque tonsis, relicta modo in fronte tortula capillorum ac cirro quodam, nisi ægritudo obstaret, Scoti incedebant. Pag. 11. The German circus was pre-verbial. Tertull. de vel. virg.

¶ Threlkeld's Synopsis, voc. *Crocus Sativus*.

** Sambucinis baccis ad lanas flavas inficiendas. Ramis, cortice et foliis populi arboris contusis, indusia ista crocea afficiunt. Bleau's Atlas, T. 6. p. 47. Other vegetables are enumerated by Rutt, Nat. Hist. of Dublin, V. 1.

†† Porro apud Hiberniam et Islandium scimus nos homines semiferos subunculis croco infectis vestiri, ut pediculos fugant, quas per sex menses et amplius gestare solent, Amat. Lus. cur. morb. cels. 7. p. 311. This was written in 1654. See Salmas. Exerc. Pila. p. 1063, 1064.

‡‡ Moryson's Travels, p. 180. Spenser, p. 48. Lauremberg, apud Threlkeld, sup.

§§ Chlāmyde coccinea, tunica galbana, braccis Gallis. Vopisc. in Aurel. et Salmas. in loco, p. 372. Martin's Western Islands for the Leni Croich. p. 206.

or bandage, and expressed very well the Irish word *bannlaibh*, similar to it in sense and sound, and signifying a narrow cloth of a cubit or eighteen inches in breadth, though little at present is so wide. This is vulgarly called *handies* or *bendel linen*. Two *bandies* and an half, or six yards and three quarters in length of this narrow linen make now a shirt for a common labourer. The act allows seven yards, which is equal to about three yards and an half of yard-wide linen, which is the allowance for the finest shirt*.

"The Irish, says Moryson writing in 1588, had in their shirts twenty or thirty ells, folded in wrinkles and coloured with saffron. Campion makes the quantity thirty yards. We are not certain whether the first means English or Flemish ells, there being between them a difference of eighteen inches in each ell. If we take the thirty yards of the last, there were in an Irish shirt or smock, six *bandies* or fifteen yards of yard-wide linen. No one has attempted to explain how so much linen could conveniently be disposed of. Cotemporary writers supply some hints. Camden† describing the appearance made by Shane O'Neil at the court of Elizabeth, A. D. 1562, attended by his Galloglasses, says, 'the latter bore battle-axes, their heads were bare with locks curled and hanging down, their shirts stained with saffron or human urine, and the sleeves of them large, their vests rather short, and their cloaks shaggy.'"

Many vain attempts were made to make the common people lay aside their mantles, for a dress under which weapons could so easily be concealed, was not to be suffered in so barbarous a country. Cromwell's officers, who effected every thing they undertook, succeeded. Happy had it been for Ireland had his system continued! The people, who were obliged to leave off the mantle, and had no other garment at first to supply its place, went about half-naked, muffled with table-cloths, pieces of tapestry, and rags of all colours and forms, so that they looked as if they had just escaped from Bedlam.

The essay on the military antiquities of Ireland contains one curious anecdote from Strada. Sir William Pelham led into the Low Countries in 1586, fourteen hundred wild Irish, *e sylvestri omnes genere atque firino*, clad only below the navel, armed with bows and arrows, and mounted on stilts which they used in

passing rivers, *grallis seu peticis, quarum unus in trajiciendis amibus alii impositi, longe aliis superstant*.

On the political constitution and laws of the ancient Irish.—The Brehons laws are now wholly unintelligible; so Dr. Ledwich asserts, notwithstanding the translated specimens in the Collectanea, and he supports his assertion by cogent reasons. Charles O'Connor, who was confessedly the best Irish scholar then in the kingdom, was applied to for his opinion, and the following is an extract from his answer.

"Our Irish jurisprudence was almost entirely confined to the Phœnian dialect, a dialect understood only by the Brehons, the law-advocates, and a few who had curiosity to study our law language. I have seen and possessed some of our Phœnian tracts; and having an opportunity in my youth of conversing with some of the most learned Irish scholars in our island, they freely confessed to me, that to them both the *text* and *gloss* were equally unintelligible. The key for expounding both was so late as the reign of Charles I. possessed by the Mac Egnans, who kept their law-school in Tipperary, and I dread that since that time it has been lost. But I have been informed, that Duaid M'Furris, the ablest scholar instructed by these Mac Egnans, was employed on a law-lexicon, in which, it has been said, he made a good progress. Possessed of such an expositor, our law-learning, the product of many ages, might be discovered, and become a valuable acquisition."

Of the many Celtic scholars whom Dr. Ledwich consulted, not one could understand their laws; it was therefore fully established, that they were not to be explained without a glossary or key. He is of opinion, that this impenetrable obscurity is in a great measure to be attributed to the technical jargon in which, like most other laws, they may have been composed, and which are utterly unintelligible to any unacquainted with the profession. But if this theory were true, so many connecting words would be understood as immediately to manifest it.

A clear account of this political system is given in his able dissertation. At the head of all was the Ard-riagh, or supreme monarch, whose principal revenue arose from the tribute paid him by the

* In 1542, it was proclaimed, that noblemen should have but twenty cubits or bandies of linen in their shirts; horsemen eighteen; footmen sixteen; garçons twelve; and clowns ten: and that none of their shirts should be dyed with saffron, on pain of twenty shillings. Cox, 1, p. 272.

† Cum securigero Galloglassorum satellitio, capitibus nudis, crispatis cincinnis dependentibus, camisiis flavis croco vel humana urina infectis, manicis largioribus, tuniculis brevioribus et lacernis villosis. Hist. Eliz. p. 69.

provincial kings. The next in dignity was the Tanist, or chosen successor, for the office was hereditary in the family. The people appointed themselves which of that family should succeed. The next order were the Riagh or provincial kings, under whom were the Tiarna, as feudatory heads of clans. The remaining classes were soccage and villenage tenants, and slaves. Every inferior chief had also his tanist; a most pernicious custom! and so loose was the general bond of subordination, that of 200 monarchs, 170 died violent deaths. The system of property was even more barbarous. On the death of any of his *sept* or clan, the tiarna assembled all the sept, threw all their possessions into hotch-pot, and made a new partition of all, allowing to each, according to his seniority, the better portion. This was to be done whenever a tenant died, of course the land was perpetually changing its owner; and remained unclosed and unimproved, and no decent habitations were erected. A native and genuine Irishman's idea of a happy country may be found in a lamentation by Fearflatha O'Gnive over the state of Ireland, of which Mr. Walker has given a translation in his Historical Memoirs of the Irish Bards. "These strangers, says he, have hemmed in our sporting lawns, the former theatres of glory and virtue. They have wounded the earth, and they have disfigured with towers and ramparts those fair fields which Nature bestowed for the support of God's animal creation." The lands of the tanist alone were never divided; he who was elected to the office, swore to deliver them peaceably to his successor. In this essay Dr. Ledwich notices the profound erudition of our Spenser. It is indeed remarkable, that the two ablest treatises which have ever been written upon Ireland, should have been written by poets.

On the Ogham characters, and alphabetic elements of the ancient Irish.—The history of the Irish language, which Keating gives, is a noble specimen of his work. The celebrated Feniusa Farsa, son of Magog, and king of Scythia, where he reigned over the primeval empire of Mr. Pinkerton and the astronomers of Baillie, sent seventy-two persons to Babel, to learn the seventy-two languages which were created there at the

confusion of tongues. The Spanish romance of Alexander says, that seventy-two were produced, because the overseers of the building were just so many in number; and that when Semiramis (who is there called Saravis) peopled the city, she built seventy-two streets, one for each language, so that the inhabitants of no two streets could hold any communication with each other; a happy invention in a despotic government. Here, says the Spanish poet, is the place to learn all languages: but a man would grow old before he could get through a third part of them. If this legend be originally Arabic, it affords some support to Warton's hypothesis of the origin of romance, which Dr. Ledwich has adopted. But it is more probably a rabbinical fiction, and probably the oriental character of romance may be attributed to the intimate intercourse in the early ages of Christian Europe, with the Jews, who have acted a more considerable part in literary history than has yet been assigned them. Our comment has led us astray from the text. This Feniusa Farsa established a university at Magh-Seanair near Athens, over which he and Gadel and Caoith presided. There they invented the Greek, Latin, and Hebrew letters. Gadel was ordered to digest the Irish into five dialects, the Finian to be spoken by the soldiery, the poetical and historical by the bards and senachies, the medical by physicians, and the common idiom by the vulgar.

Much has been said of the Ogham characters, in which all matters relating to the church and state were recorded. They are clearly explained here; the explanation is very curious, and cannot be given more briefly than in the author's own language.

"In 1669, O'Molloy, in his Irish Grammar, enters more fully into this subject, and is literally copied by every writer since. He informs us the Oghum was divided into three kinds: 1. Oghum beith, when bh, or the Irish letter beith being part of the first consonant, is placed instead of the vowel a. This Oghum is also called Oghum consoine, or the Oghum made out of consonants. Here is an example*:

a e i o u
bh. fc. ng. dl. ft.

The same method may be observed in substituting consonants for diphthongs. Thus,

ae ia ua io oi
mm. ll. bb. cc. pp.

"The second sort is Ogom coll, or the Ogom composed out of the letter c: when for all the vowels, diphthongs and triphthongs, the letter c is substituted, variously repeated, doubled and turned, as thus:

a	e	i	o	u
c.	cccc.	cccc.	cc.	ccc.
ea	ia	oi	io	ua
eo	uo	oo	oo	oo

"The third sort is the Ogom croabh, or the virgular Ogom; it has an horizontal master-line, through which and on each side are perpendicular strokes which stand in the place of vowels, consonants, diphthongs and triphthongs. This is exhibited in the plate No. 1. as the perpendicular master-line with horizontal strokes is seen in No. 2. and the Callan inscription in No. 3. What is now produced from Molloy is rational and intelligible; nor can there be any doubt but all these * cryptographic modes were practised in all the northern countries of Europe: for, in the celebrated † Icelandic Edda at Upsal, is an instance of the Ogom consoine, where, instead of the vowel, that consonant which followed next in the alphabet is placed: as Dístfrt scrkptprks bñsfdkth skt pmnkbxs hprks. Instead of a, e, i, b, u, y; the letters b, f, k, p, x, and z were put, so that it reads thus:

"Dextera scriptoris benedicta fit omnibus horis.

"Von Troil remarks, that a similar Ogom may be seen in Rabanus Maurus's tract, *De Usu Literarum*, written about the middle of the ninth century. Verelius, Wormius, with many existing monuments prove, that the Northerners writ their runes in every possible form; in circles, in angles, from right to left, and vice versa. Wormius † enumerates 12 different ways of making runic inscriptions. The German § buchstab or runes were drawn sometime in horizontal, and sometimes in perpendicular lines. Here we have, if not the original of our Ogom croabh, a practice exactly similar. In a word, these wonderful Irish Ogums were nothing, as we see, but a stenographic and steganographic contrivance, common to the semibarbarians of Europe in the middle ages, and very probably derived from the Romans."

The Callan inscription, which is given in the *Archæologia*, is in the third mode,

* The ancients disposed letters variously for secrecy and amusement. For the scytale of the Greeks, see Schol. Thucyd. lib. 1. Plutarch in Lysand. A. Gell. l. 17, c. 9. For Roman contrivances, see Suet. in Aug. c. 88. in J. Cæs. c. 56. Dio. l. 39. Morhoff. Polyhist. T. 1. p. 624. Salmuth in Pancipol. tit. 14.

† Von Troil's Letters on Iceland, p. 299.

‡ Literat. run. p. 138, 139.

§ Pelloutier, Hist. de Celtes. T. 1. p. 402. Mallet, V. 1. p. 363.

the complest, or rather rudest of the three, which requires fifteen lines to express the first five letters of the alphabet. As this inscription is translated in five different ways, it is very evident that no reliance can be placed upon either. Dr. Ledwich thinks the Irish alphabet was originally Roman, and received from the Anglo-Saxons. This is a very interesting and erudite essay.

A review of Irish literature in the middle ages.—Here many of the opinions illustrated in the preceding dissertations are applied. Ireland made a rapid progress in letters in the fifth and sixth century, because many of the British clergy fled thither from the Saxons. There are, however, no genuine remains of these centuries. A communication was kept up with the East, and the superiority which their learning gave to the British and Irish clergy in their disputes with the Romanists, so galled them, and impeded their success, that Theodore archbishop of Canterbury, against the spirit of his religion, and the order of his superiors, was forced to set up schools and promote the study of letters. Columbanus and Cummian flourished in the seventh century, and their works still exist. In the eighth Virgil, an Irish bishop, was persecuted by Boniface archbishop of Mentz, for believing the sphericity of the earth. The scholastic theology arose in Ireland about this period, caught from the Greeks, and in the next century that country had the glory of producing Scotus Erigena. After this age her literature declined, and the English conquest extinguished it.

The remaining essays chiefly relate to Irish topography, and are therefore of less value. The account we have given of this very able work, renders it unnecessary to speak farther in commendation of it. We will only add, that it has the rare merit of being a cheap book, as well as a good one.

ART. XII. *Antiquities of the Inns of Court and Chancery; containing Historical and Descriptive Sketches relative to their original Foundation, Customs, Ceremonies, Buildings, Government, &c. &c. With a concise History of the English Law.* By W. HERBERT. Embellished with 24 Plates. 8vo. and 4to. pp. 389.

ALTHOUGH topographical and antiquarian works are seldom overcharged with originality, yet every new book should have a portion of that in its composition; the quantity and quality of which desirable article constitutes its relative value. Deprived of this, it can only be useful to a few, as it increases the stock of books, without adding to the stock of knowledge. Walpole has the following very pertinent remarks on book-making, which we strongly recommend to the attention of booksellers and editors. "Never was the noble art of book-making carried to such high perfection, as at present. These compilers seem to forget that people have libraries. One vamps up a new book of travels, consisting merely of disguised extracts from former publications. Another fills his pages with Greek and Latin extracts from Aristotle and Quintilian. A third, if possible, more insipid, gives us long quotations from our poets, while a reference was enough, the books being in the hands of every body. Another treats us with old French *ans* in masquerade: and, by a singular fate, derives advantage from his very blunders, which make the things look new. Pah! I, and an amanuensis could scribble one of those books in twenty-four hours." Though we do not level the whole of this at Mr. Herbert, yet we conceive he ought to have made a better book, enriched it with more original matter from himself, and not depended so much on the writings of others. It now stands a modernized abridgement of the scarce and valuable *Origines Juridicales* of Dugdale; all of whose works are highly useful and interesting. They were complete at the time; and had Dugdale wrote now, he would have made them keep pace with the improved literature of the age. In the following extract (the preface) the author candidly acknowledges his obligations to that great antiquary, and characterizes his own work; but does not display equal candour in alluding to, and not specifying Mr. Ireland's work on the inns of court; the embellishments of which, Mr. Herbert invidiously reprobates, not considering that most of the plates in his own

volume are much worse than the aquatinted views in Mr. Ireland's.

"The following work is presented to the public as a compendium of valuable, rather than original information. In its composition the author has freely availed himself of what was before written on the subject, and is very ready to anticipate the scrutiny of criticism, by avowing, that the greater part of his materials have been extracted from the well-known and justly celebrated performance of sir William Dugdale, published in folio in 1666, 1667, and 1680, under the title of '*Origines Juridicales*.'

"To give the substance of that expensive and interesting work, with the additional advantage of views of the places described, was the primary, and, in fact, the only object here aimed at. But many alterations and improvements presented themselves in proceeding; by the adoption of which the present volume will be found to differ very materially from an abridgement. Valuable as the *Origines Juridicales* certainly is, it must be acknowledged to be a repulsive book to modern readers. Many of its details are dry and prolix; much matter is interwoven with the text, which, being but remotely connected with it, might have been with more propriety put into notes; and it abounds in redundancy of expression, a fault imputable to the style of the age.

"By taking advantage of these circumstances, what is really of importance in that book, is not only here preserved, but room has been afforded for a great quantity of additional information; and the whole, while it assumes a more attractive form, it is hoped will be found of increased utility.

"Two publications on this subject have already issued from the press: one published in 1790, and called '*Historical Memorials of the English Laws, Inns of Court, &c.*' is a mere reprint of part of Dugdale; the other (a very recent performance), though it may, perhaps, have the advantage of the former in point of embellishment, is so extremely superficial, as by no means to answer the purpose of an History of the Inns of Court and Chancery: neither of them possesses good plates. This is said not to depreciate, but to apologize for the appearance of a third work; of whose superiority, after having thus fairly stated its claims, the public must judge.

"Of the engravings, it is unnecessary to speak; their number and the accuracy with which they are executed, will best plead for any deficiencies which may be found in the letter-press."

If the History and Antiquities of the Inns of Court, &c. was an object worthy the talents and industry of a Dugdale in 1660; surely in the present advanced age of refinement and civilization, when the inns are more crowded, and literature more encouraged, such a work must be a desideratum of peculiar importance; the materials being now more ample, and the sources of information more easily accessible. With such assistance, and such advantages, Mr. Herbert has compiled a volume which should not only be superior to all former works on the same subject, but ought to approximate excellence. Its information should be copious and correct, its style perspicuous and chaste, and its embellishments executed with taste and accuracy. We proceed to show how far these objects have been accomplished. The prominent subjects of consideration and narrative in this volume are, an historical review of, with observations on the antiquity of the common law of England; also an account of its parliaments; its public law offices and officers; with descriptions of the creation, dress, salaries, &c. of the justices of the king's courts in Westminster-hall. We are next made acquainted with the modes of trial in cases civil and criminal, by jury, combat, fire, and water, ordeal, and wager of law. Mr. Herbert next describes the antiquities of the inns of court and chancery, under the heads—"Origin and customs of the several courts, Inner Temple, Middle Temple, Inns of Chancery belonging to the Temples, Lincoln's Inn, Inns of Chancery belonging to Lincoln's Inn, Gray's Inn, Inns of Chancery belonging to Gray's Inn, Serjeant's Inn;" and concludes the volume with a dissertation on the antiquity and dignity of serjeant at law.

Considering, however, that a full review of all the above particulars would satisfactorily occupy three or four large volumes of legal history, and that it is comprized within the compass of one octavo volume, printed open, much cannot be expected, either with respect to extent of information, or a regular deduction of events. The editor has, however, given the substance of an expensive and interesting work, and occasionally introduced a few remarks or descriptions, which may be found of some utility, and will certainly recompence the reader for an attentive perusal. After the modest apologies which he has

given in the advertisement, we forbear to scrutinize his work with minute particularity: though we cannot account for his want of precision in leaving out the history of *Symond's* Inn, altogether. It is mentioned by Stow, and surely ought not to have been omitted in a work expressly appropriated to the subject.

In addition to the preceding extract, we lay before the reader another quotation, as a fair specimen of the author's general style, and of his mode of communicating his ideas, in describing the antiquity of the court of Chancery.

"It is the opinion of several learned men, as Gambden, Dr. Cowell, in his *Interpreter*, &c. that this court had its name originally from certain bars of wood or iron, laid one over another crosswise like a lattice, with which it was environed to keep off the press of people, and yet afford a view to the officers who presided therein, such gates or cross-bars being by the Latins called *cancelli*, which, as some think, was the reason why those places that were only peculiar to the priest, being by the appointment of pope Felix severed from the body of our churches for that purpose, with certain grates or lattices, were called chancels.

"It has been thought that the chancellor's office originally was to register the acts and decrees of the judges, *qui conscribendis et excipiendis iudicium actis dant operam*, as says Lupanus. Pytheus also supposes that he was anciently the same as we now call secretarius. But the office and name of chancellor, however derived, was certainly known, not only in this kingdom, but in the courts of the Roman emperors, where it originally seems to have signified, according to the above opinions, a chief scribe or secretary, who was afterwards invested with several judicial powers, and a general superintendency of the rest of the officers of the prince.

"With respect to its antiquity in this realm, it is no less, as the learned Selden conceives, than the time of the first Christian monarch Ethelbert; for a charter of his to the church of Canterbury, bearing date A. D. 605, amongst other witnesses thereto, mentions *Augemundus referendarius*: where '*referendarius*,' says he, 'may well stand for *cancellarius*;' and that the office of both (as the words applied to the court) 'is used in the *Code*, *Novells*, and story of the declining empire, signifying an officer who received petitions and supplications to the king, and made out his writs and mandates as a *custos legis*: for though,' says he, 'there were divers *referendarii*, as sometimes thirteen, then eight, then more again, and so divers chancellors in the empire; yet one, especially here exercising an office of the nature of those many, might well be styled by either of those names.'"

The volume contains twenty-four engravings; some of which, representing the interior views of the halls, are neatly engraved, and display a few interesting specimens of ancient architecture; but the greater portion of the plates are not only of uninteresting subjects, but so

badly drawn and engraved, that they disgrace the book, though at the same time they enhance its price. The artists, however, seem *ashamed* of their works, and therefore have suppressed their names.

ART. XIII. *Picture of Worthing; to which is added, an Account of Arundel and Shoreham, with other Parts of the surrounding Country.* By JOHN EVANS, A. M. 8vo. pp. 118.

WORTHING, a small fishing-town on the coast of Sussex, has of late been resorted to by our summer idlers for relaxation and sea-bathing. It had not, however, attracted the notice of a topographer, till Mr. Evans visited the place in July last, and determined to become its historian. Worthing, in the space of a few years, has become an assemblage of lodging-houses, and is furnished with hot and cold sea baths and bathing machines; it possesses two circulating libraries, to supply the longings of the

imagination, and two hotels kept by two widows of the names of Hogsflesh and Bacon, to scare away the Jews, and minister to the cravings of Christian stomachs. The neighbourhood presents but few attractions either to the antiquary or lover of the picturesque; and even Mr. Evans, diligent as he has been in gleaning every scrap of information which was to be had, has not been able to complete his little volume without wandering to Steyning and Arundel.

ART. XIV. *Observations on a short Tour made in the Summer of 1803 to the Western Highlands of Scotland: interspersed with original Pieces of Descriptive and Epistolary Poetry.* 8vo. pp. 208.

THIS tourist commencing the account of his journey in Warwickshire, proceeded through Derbyshire, the Craven district of Yorkshire, the picturesque part of Cumberland, to the falls of the Clyde, near Lanark. Hence he went by Glasgow, Loch Lomond, and the West Highlands, to Fort William; then passing in an eastern direction, he coasted the southern shore of Loch Ness to Inverness, and proceeded through the Mid Highlands and Perth to Edinburgh, and re-

entered England at Carlisle, where the journal ceases.

We could not have thought it possible for a man of education to describe the interesting scenes included in this itinerary in so tasteless and thoroughly uninteresting a manner as characterizes the work before us. The verses, for we will not profane the name by calling them poetry, are consistent with the rest of the book, being entirely worthless.

ART. XV. *A Sporting Tour through the Northern Parts of England, and great Part of the Highlands of Scotland.* By Colonel THORNTON, of Thornville Royal in Yorkshire. 4to. pp. 312.

NO man is better known in the sporting world than colonel Thornton. In the republic of letters he is *novus homo*, an unknown candidate for fame, who has no previous claim to distinction, and must take his rank according to the manner in which he supports his new character. But ill would it become a bench of critics to refuse a stranger a courteous greeting. Stern and unrelenting must be the brow which can meet with a sullen frown, the good humour and hilarity, the frankness and ease, the unaffected politeness of heart, and the enthusiastic warmth in a favourite pursuit

which appear in whatever that stranger says or does. He comes, moreover, without disguise. He assumes no air of learned importance, but fairly tells us what he is. For the execution of his professed design, he possessed every possible advantage. His fortune enabled, and his spirit inclined him to conduct it in a princely style. That nothing might be wanting to ensure its success, he hired a house in the centre of the most extensive native woods and the wildest mountains of the Scotch Highlands, and engaged a cutter to sail from York to Forres, the nearest port to his intended sum-

mer's residence. On board this vessel he embarked two boats to navigate the lakes, with a complete camp equipage, guns, dogs, hawks, fishing-rods, nets, beans, oatmeal, a captain or master, two sailors, a falconer, waggoner, groom, boy, and last, though not least, we will not say in love, but in esteem and usefulness, a female domestic, "whose solicitations to go he could not resist, and who, he thinks it justice to acknowledge, outvied in spirit even the men." One of the boats he named the *Ville de Paris*, and the other the *Gibraltar*; for he loves to speak, as well as to act, upon a large scale. Through the whole of the expedition, he accordingly issued his orders in the language of a commander in chief, makes regular returns of the killed in each day's engagement, calls his horses cavalry, sleeps part of the summer under canvas, gives names in honour of his friends to some lakes which are too small to have a place in Ainslie's nine sheet map of Scotland, and speaks with as much exultation of having been the first navigator on one of them, as was felt by lieutenant Grant, whose voyage of discovery we have reviewed in a former part of our present volume, when he had made, what was never before achieved, a successful passage through Bass's Straits from the west. Nor does he forget to tell of what, how much, and with what glee he eat, after the toils and perils of the day: in imitation, no doubt, of Homer's heroes;

"Whose greatest actions we can find
Are that they did their work; and din'd."

The colonel had originally entertained an idea of being a party in the voyage himself, but afterwards preferred a land journey as affording more opportunities of employing the talents of Mr. Gerrard, a young artist, formerly pupil to Mr. Gilpin, whom he had engaged to draw the different kinds of game, and "to take views of such scenes as are best adapted to sport."

On the 5th of June the campaign commenced, and the sporting army marched towards the place of its final destination, by a kind of circuitous route through Bedal, Richmond, Darlington, Durham, Newcastle, and Wooleshaugh-head, of all which places colonel Thornton gives concise and lively descriptions. As yet he had seen nothing to call his prowess into action: but when he came to the neighbourhood of the Cheviot, which, by a

mistake probably of a transcriber, is mispelt *Teviot*, our eager sportsman could not resist the temptation to skirmish a little in a stream which takes its rise on the side of the mountain, and which he calls by the same name. Edinburgh introduces him to the society of some old friends; and Glasgow, where he had received part of his education, recalls to his memory the studies and amusements of his youth. The neighbourhood of Loch Lomond is the scene of more active operations, and a kind of desultory warfare is carried on at Taymouth, Dunkeld, Blair Athol, and Dalnacardoch, till on the 10th of July the party arrived at Raits in Strath-Spey, opposite to Cairngouram, and not far from the venerable forests of Rothemurchus and Glenmore. The lovers of mountain scenery in all its savage wildness will deeply regret that since the time when this tour was made, the latter has been nearly stripped of its native wood, and in consequence the number of red deer greatly diminished. It was with equal mortification that we ourselves, a few months since, saw advertised for sale the charming woods on the banks of the Findhorn near Dulsie bridge, of which we had lately taken leave with a sigh, extorted from us by the thought that we should probably never see them again, but lightened by the fond persuasion that they would still flourish year after year, to brighten many a delighted eye, and to quicken the movements of many an enraptured heart.

The jovial band continued at Raits, or encamped at no great distance, scouring the country with hawks and guns, fishing the streams and lakes, and closing the labours of the day with delicious dinners or suppers, prepared by the hands of "*a good cook*," and received with a peculiar relish, in consequence of appetites which had been whetted to extreme sharpness by the pure air of the highland mountains, till the beginning of October, when the weather becoming less pleasant, and the grouse growing very wild, colonel Thornton began to think of his winter quarters at Thornville, and returned to England by the way of Inverness, the line of the forts, Inverary, Glasgow, Hamilton, Edinburgh, and Kelso. In this route he found some sport in pursuit of game, and much romantic scenery on which he bestows its merited applause; but unaccountably passes over in silence Loch

E e

Leven and Loch Creran, which he must have seen, and which afford a more striking combination of beauty, grandeur, and sublimity than, perhaps, any other part of the western highlands.

We have been diligent, or, as many of our readers will probably think, idle enough in our perusal of the work, to mark down with our pen the numbers of the killed as they stand in the returns which generally close the account of every day's exploits. And that our labour may not be altogether lost, we will lay the result before the public. Trout, 1063—pike, 135—perch, 191—salmon, 9—char, 1, caught July 10, in a small lake near Dalnacardoch; an uncommon circumstance, colonel Thornton not having heard during his stay in the highlands of any fisher who had been so fortunate as to kill a fish of this kind either by fly or worm—eels, 10—moor-game, 882—black-game, 16—ptarmigans, 19—partridges, 83—snipes, 6—wild-ducks, 66—mallard, 1—scart, 1—plover, 15—seagulls, 4—dottrel, 1—goat-sucker, 1—raven, 1—sea magpie, 1—hares, 6—roebuck, 1. This, however, is not the whole amount, for there is no detailed return of some days, when it appears that considerable slaughter was made. As colonel Thornton saw no cocks of the wood (tetrao urogallus) in the forests of Glenmore and Rothemurchus, we may conclude, that Mr. Pennant is right in stating that there are none south of the river Beaulley. We were disappointed in the number of black game and ptarmigans, the former of which, at least, we expected would have been found in greater abundance.

Colonel Thornton has a strong relish for every species of rural amusement, but his favourite diversion seems to be fishing; and we were not a little surprised when we read that he employed in it not only the usual implements, but such unlikely assistants as fox-hounds. Our surprise, however, and the inclination to incredulity which attended it, entirely vanished, as is usually the case, when the matter was properly explained. Our readers shall have the explanation in his own words.

"In order to describe this mode of fishing, it may be necessary to say, that I make use of pieces of cork of a conical form, and having several of these all differently painted, and named after favourite hounds, trilling wagers are made on their success, which rather adds to the spirit of the sport.

"The mode of baiting them is, by placing a live bait, which hangs at the end of a line, of one yard and a half long, fastened only so slightly, that on the pike's striking, two or three yards more may run off to enable him to gorge his bait. If more line is used, it will prevent the sport that attends his diving and carrying under water the hound; which being thus pursued in a boat, down wind, (which they always take) affords very excellent amusement; and where pike, or large perch, or even trout are in plenty, before the hunters, if I may so term these fishers, have run down the first pike, others are seen coming towards them, with a velocity proportionable to the fish that is at them.

"In a fine summer's evening, with a pleasant party, I have had excellent diversion, and it is, in fact, the most adapted, of any, for ladies, whose company gives a *giusto* to all parties."

As an instance of his ardour in this pursuit, and also because it is curious in itself, we have selected his relation of a victorious contest with the monarch of the stream.

"July 30.—Day changeable and stormy. After breakfast went again to Loch Alva, having got a large quantity of fine trout for bait; but for many hours could not obtain a rise. Captain Waller baited the fox-hounds, and as his boat was to be sent forward, I came down to him, having killed a very fine pike of above twenty pounds, the only one I thought we had left in the loch. The captain came on board, and we trolled together, without success, for some time, and, examining the fox-hounds, found no fish at them. At length, I discovered one of them which had been missing though anxiously sought for, from the first time of our coming here: it was uncommonly well baited, and I was apprehensive that some pike had run it underneath a tree, by which means both fish and hound would be lost. On coming nearer, I clearly saw that it was the same one which had been missing, that the line was run off, and, by its continuing fixed in the middle of the lake, I made no doubt but some monstrous fish was at it. I was desirous that captain Waller, who had not met with any success that morning, should take it up, which he accordingly did, when, looking below the stern of the boat, I saw a famous fellow, whose weight could not be less than between twenty and thirty pounds. But notwithstanding the great caution the captain observed, before the landing-net could be used, he made a shoot carrying off two yards of cord.

"As soon as we had recovered from the consternation this accident occasioned, I ordered the boat to cruise about, for the chance of his taking me again, which I have known frequently to happen with pike, who are wonderfully bold and voracious: on the second trip, I saw a very large fish come at

me, and collecting my line, I felt I had him fairly hooked; but I thought he had run himself tight round some root, his weight seemed so dead: we rowed up, therefore, to the spot, where he soon convinced me he was at liberty, by running me so far into the lake, that I had not one inch of line more to give him. The servants, foreseeing the consequences of my situation, rowed, with great expedition, towards the fish, which now rose about seventy yards from us, an absolute wonder! I relied on my tackle, which I knew was in every respect excellent, as I had, in consequence of the large pike, killed the day before, put on hooks and gimp, adjusted with great care; a precaution which would have been thought superfluous in London, as it certainly was for most lakes, though, here, barely equal to my fish. After playing him for some time, I gave the rod to captain Waller, that he might have the honour of landing him; for I thought him quite exhausted, when to our surprise, we were again constrained to follow the monster nearly across this great lake, having the wind too much against us. The whole party were now in high blood, and the delightful Ville de Paris quite manageable; frequently he flew out of the water to such a height, that though I knew the uncommon strength of my tackle, I dreaded losing such an extraordinary fish, and the anxiety of our little crew was equal to mine. After about an hour and a quarter's play, however, we thought we might safely attempt to land him, which was done in the following manner: *Newmarket*, a lad so called from the place of his nativity, who had now come to assist, I ordered, with another servant, to strip, and wade in as far as possible; which they readily did. In the mean time I took the landing net, while captain Waller, judiciously ascending the hill above, drew him gently towards us. He approached the shore very quietly, and we thought him quite safe, when, seeing himself surrounded by his enemies, he in an instant made a last desperate effort, shot into the deep again, and, in the exertion, threw one of the men on his back. His immense size was now very apparent; we proceeded with all due caution, and, being once more drawn towards land, I tried to get his head into the net, upon effecting which, the servants were ordered to seize his tail, and slide him on shore: I took all imaginable pains to accomplish this, but in vain, and began to think myself strangely awkward, when, at length, having got his snout in, I discovered that the hoop of the net, though adapted to very large pike, would admit no more than that part. He was, however, completely spent, and, in a few moments, we landed him, a perfect monster! He was stabbed by my directions in the spinal marrow, with a large knife, which appeared to be the most humane manner of killing him, and I then ordered all the signals with the *sky-scrappers* to be hoist-

ed; and the whoop re-echoed through the whole range of the Grampians. On opening his jaws, to endeavour to take the hooks from him, which were both fast in his gorge, so dreadful a forest of teeth or tusks, I think I never beheld: if I had not had a double link of gimp, with two swivels, the depth between his stomach and mouth would have made the former quite useless. His measurement, accurately taken, was *five feet four inches*, from eye to fork.

"On examining him attentively, I perceived that a very large bag hung deep below his belly, and, thinking it was lower than usual with other pike, I concluded that this had been deeply fed but a short time before he was taken. After exhibiting him, therefore, to several gentlemen, I ordered that my housekeeper, on whom I could depend, should have him carefully opened the next day, and the contents of his stomach be reserved for inspection; and now ordering the servants to proceed with their burden, we returned to Avemore, drank tea, and afterwards went on to Raits, where we produced our monster for inspection, to the no small gratification of the spectators, whose curiosity had been strongly excited to view a fish of such magnitude.

"July 13.—Day warm, went to church, and afterwards had a large party to dinner. Agreeable to the orders of the preceding day, Mrs. C. opened the pike, and sent to us the contents of his stomach, which, to our surprise, consisted of part of another pike half digested. The tumour, or bag, arose from his having, no doubt many years since, gorged a hook, which seemed to us better calculated for *sea* than for *fresh-water* fishing. It was wonderfully honey-combed, but free from rust, so that I cannot doubt its having been at least ten years in his belly. His head and back bone I ordered to be preserved in the best manner I could devise, and the rest to be salted down.

"The weight of this fish, judging by the trones we had with us, which only weigh twenty-nine pounds, made us, according to our best opinions, estimate him at between forty-seven and forty-eight pounds."

Of the sport afforded by hawking the following specimen shall suffice.

"We rode, and the falconer attended with a cast and a half of hawks, one of which I took on my fist, and hunted, to oblige Mr. D. with a brace of my pointers. The road, as I imagined, he would find very indifferent: game abounded. I had long resisted the solicitations of Mr. D. to fly a hawk whenever we happened to mark in a pout near us, which was frequently the case. At length we came so near, that I could not deny him this breach of the law, in a country which requires none. I consented. Determined to follow up the bird, a tercel was unhooded, and took a very handsome place, and killed his bird at the first flight. Having

once broken the law, grown bolder in iniquity, as is usually the case, we stuck at nothing, and had a very pleasant day's sport indeed; for the hawks were well broke in to ptarmigans, and flew well. We killed twenty-two birds, and had a most incomparable flight at a snipe, one of the best I ever saw, for full sixteen minutes. The falcon flew delightfully, but the snipe got into a small juniper-bush near us, her only resource. I ordered the tercel to be leached down, and I took the other falcon, meaning at any rate that they should succeed with this snipe. When flushing it, I flew my falcon from the hood, the other was in a very good place, and on the falconer's head. A dreadful, well-maintained flight they had, and many good buckles in the air. At length they brought her, like a shot from the clouds, into the same juniper-bush she had saved herself in before, and close to which we were standing. Pluto soon stood it, and so closely, that I fortunately took it alive; and throwing out a moor-poult to each falcon as a reward, and preventing, by this means, the two hawks fighting for the snipe and carrying it away, we fed them up, delighted beyond measure at this noble flight. We minuted them very accurately, both times, when they took to the air, and the last flight was eleven minutes; during which time, moderately speaking, they could not fly less than nine miles, besides an infinite number of buckles, or turns.

"The falcons being hooded, and the tercel not quite fed up, it was proposed by the falconer, keen after blood, that I should give him a flight with the snipe. This we thought ungenerous, after having afforded us so much sport. We marked him so, that we might know him again, should he ever come into our hands, and gave him his reprieve, and turned him off. He flew very stiff indeed, but would soon recover, as he had received only a very slight stroke from one of the falcons. I once saw a falcon of mine hawking near Thornville, with captain Barlow, at one stroke cut a snipe in two parts, so that they fell separate."

The description of the only raven which fell in the whole campaign we think worth transcribing.

"As we thus sauntered along by a very lonely spot, a raven, ragged in his plumage, rose quite near me: I shot at him, and plainly saw I had wounded him severely, but he turned round the shoulder of a hill, so that I soon lost sight of him: as I knew he could not attempt to leave the island, I watched my opportunity anxiously, which he perceived, and moved on much cut. Determined, however, to destroy him, we hallooed, when Mr. Gerrard coming up to me, pointed out the place he seemed to light at, and having got near the spot, undiscovered, he rose, and I dropped him.

"When we took him up, I think I never,

in my life, saw such symptoms of decay, the consequence of extreme old age. All his joints were rotted, and on examining his plumage, we found, by some quills of the last year, that he had not had even sufficient strength of constitution to drive them to their former size. Every symptom convinced me that, finding his powers unequal to procure him his necessary subsistence, he had discovered this island, where he knew he might feed without much difficulty on the plenty of eggs and young water-fowl."

But colonel Thornton is not a mere sportsman. He was, by no means, a careless observer of the rocks, the woods, and the waters, the delightful scenes of his diversion. We have, indeed, generally observed that the gentlemen who are strongly attached to field exercise have a lively relish for rural grandeur and beauty. This may in part be accounted for by the strong association which is naturally formed in their minds between these objects and their favourite pleasures: but it is, perhaps, to be attributed to the gradual development of those internal senses which in many cases continue latent through life for want of objects and occasions to call them into action. Nor does the colonel possess merely a taste for picturesque scenery. He has also a talent for clear and distinct description which does not often fall to the lot of professed writers. By a few well selected master strokes he gives a lively picture of the view from Taymouth, which cannot fail to produce a pleasing recollection in all who have ever seen it.

"To the west, the eye following the park, is obliged to stop and admire the very elegant subordinate village of Kenmore, and the bridge, over which is seen the noble Loch Tay, its banks covered with wood and cornfields. Through these are indistinctly viewed the two excellent roads, leading to Killin, meandering on each side of the lake. At the end of this noble sheet of water, whose termination is happily interrupted by the bold breast of a hill pushing itself into the lake, and breaking the lines, is seen very faintly Ben More, and following the northern shore, arises the hill of Lawrs. Looking across the park, and appearing to ascend from the river, lost in foliage, rises, in variegated splendour, the smiling hill of Drummond, and above it, claiming pre-eminence over all surrounding objects, is seen the cloud-capt Sheehalion."

The description of the vale of Spey in the neighbourhood of Raits is more finished, and enriched with a greater variety of objects.

"Immediately beneath the Raits is a flat, of near three miles long, having large meadows, intermixed with wood and corn, and gentle risings, many of their surfaces covered with trees; others partially so, with weeping birches scattered, either over a fine verdure, or the purple bloom of the heather.

"In the centre of this enchanting vale runs the winding Spey: a little beyond Baldnespeck, the beautiful Loch Luch, an expanse of water, three miles long and two broad, through which the Spey runs, bursts at once upon the eye, varied with all the softer beauties which nature can exhibit. Numbers of apparent islands are dispersed over this lake, chiefly of the same elevated forms as little knolls, and wooded in the same manner: others again just peep above the surface, and are tufted with trees; some are so happily disposed, as to form magnificent vistas between.

"Continue our ride over a flat, dusky moor, half a mile long, the soil a fine red gravel, passing by Loch Alva, so famous for its pike, which we leave on the left: nothing can equal the contrast of the next five miles to Avemore.

"Following the banks of the Spey, a most romantic and beautiful scene unfolds itself; woods of weeping birch, white thorn, aspen, mountain-ash, and oak, intermixed with junipers, grey rocks, but open enough in all parts to admit a sight of the water, wantonly forming itself into apparent lakes; the whole much enriched by three pretty, neat, white villas. Sometimes the way was straight for a considerable distance, and appeared like a fine and regular avenue; at others, it waved on the sides of the gentle declivities, at a pleasant distance from the water; in one part, as we entered, we were immersed in a wood, so dark, that the very sky was totally hid from us. Nothing here could equal the beauty of the road, which, quite to the water's edge, ran perfectly smooth and even; its borders covered with a fine velvety verdure, while the immense large weeping birches, with their rough, irregular coating, formed an impenetrable arch above; here and there, to the left, is a partial view of the overhanging rocks, as wild as those of Salvator. To the right, the murmuring Spey glides in curling eddies, and falling into a deep, dark pool, rendered more solemn, if I may use the expression, by the total want of light, together with the notes of the different choristers in the branches above, force the traveller to stop and minutely admire their contrasted beauties. No effect of art can possibly equal this terrestrial Paradise. I was quite absorbed, as was Mr. P. and indulging the different ideas, created by these various inimitable charms, we proceeded on scarcely speaking.

"The road still follows the Spey, which, in about one hundred yards, again changes her form, becoming now as terrific as she was before pacific. The torrents here breaking

over rugged, detached fragments, which have been whirled from the adjacent mountains, mark, and but too distinctly, the devastation that she commits when swelled and enraged by the melting snows or heavy rains, at which time her width must be equal to a small-arm of the sea, no doubt, carrying away all that shall attempt to resist her.

"In about two hundred yards, at the end of this charming avenue, the inn at Avemore opens to your view, situated at the entrance of a large, wide, even plain, bounded by grey, rocky, stupendous mountains, and intermixed with woods, yellow corn-fields, pastures, and black unprofitable heath."

We will trespass on our readers by giving another short quotation of this kind, as it affords a remarkable instance of the ready submission of a subordinate to the ruling passion.

"As we had no time to spare, Mr. D. was pleased to order his horses, and attend us over a ridge of moors that divides Loch Lomond from the Frith of Clyde. Here, as we ascended, the day continuing fine, and the soil being dry, we got down and walked, and, in a few minutes, gained a peep at the magnificent Loch Lomond, so highly and deservedly celebrated by all travellers. I now recollected the view behind us, and desired my friends to turn round, when a scene, worthy the pencil of Claude, burst on the eye. Before us lay the Frith of Clyde, crowned with shipping; beyond, Port Glasgow, gilded by the rays of the rising sun; then Greenock, Gunock, the Isle of Bute, Roseneath, the seat of the duke of Argyle, with the blue hills in the distance, half wrapt in vapours; a landscape, unequalled almost by any I ever beheld. Carrying the eye round to admire Loch Lomond again, and not sufficiently satiated with either view, we were about to sit down, in order to examine both more minutely, when we discovered Pero, whom we had not attended to before, pointing. I remembered having shot two brace and a half of black cocks, and several moor-game, some years since, on this very ridge; and I hoped this point would produce black-game, rather than grouse, though my friends had never seen either, and were extremely anxious to gratify their curiosity. We soon came up to the dog, who still maintained his point; and so interesting was his attitude to Mr. Gerrard, that he immediately set about preserving it by a sketch. He had just accomplished this, when Pero moved forward, and, after footing a little, we sprang the brood, which consisted of twelve well-grown grouse.

"Mr. D. much pleased with the dog's performance here, wished us a good morning, and we descended a little lower down the ridge, to a spot called *Kelster*, where, being nearer the lake, we conceived the view would become more interesting.

While Mr. Gerrard was drawing, I took a ride with Mr. P. to show him the different glens hereabouts, which are so finely situated for woodcock-hawking, that I have killed with my hawks, in one week, no less than forty-nine woodcocks."

The characters and manners of the Highlanders are pleasingly pourtrayed in the account of a ball given by colonel M'Pherson, on his recovering the family estate, which had been forfeited in 1745.

"On our arrival, we found a large party of gentlemen already assembled; and the area full of the lower class of the clan of M'Pherson. Other gentlemen were likewise ushering in from all parts; some of whom came above sixty miles: so happy were they to testify their regard for the present possessor of the estate; in short, no words can express the joy that was exhibited in every countenance.

"The ladies too, not that I think it singular, seemed to me to enter more heartily, if possible, into the joys of the day than the men: the *toute ensemble* made this scene interesting enough.

"At most public meetings there are some discontented mortals, who rather check than inspire mirth; the case here was quite the reverse; with that perfect innocence which abounds in the Highlands, joined to the *clannish* regard, not totally removed by luxury and knowledge of the world, every individual added something, and exerted himself to promote the common cause.

"At five o'clock dinner was announced; and each gentleman, with the utmost gallantry, handed in his tartan-dressed partner. The table was covered with every luxury the vales of Badenock, Spey, and Lochaber could produce, and a very substantial entertainment it was; game of all kinds, and venison in abundance, did honour to Mr. M'Lean, who supplied it.

"I had no conception of any room at Pitmain large enough to dine one-tenth of the party; but found that the apartment we were in, though low, was about fifty feet long, and was only used, being a malt-kiln, on such occasions.

"When seated, no company at St. James's ever exhibited a greater variety of gaudy colours, the ladies being dressed in all their Highland pride, each following her own fancy, and wearing a shawl of tartan; this, contrasted by the other parts of the dress, at candle-light, presented a most glaring *coup d'œil*.

"The dinner being removed, was succeeded by a dessert of Highland fruits, when, I may venture to say, that "George the Third, and long may he reign," was drank with as much unfeigned loyalty as ever it was at London; several other toasts were likewise drank with three cheers, and re-echoed by

the inferiors of the clan in the area around us.

"The ladies gave us several very delightful Erse songs; nor were the bag-pipes silent: they played many old Highland tunes; and, among others, one which is, I am told, the test of a piper's abilities; for, at the great meeting of the pipers at Falkirk, those who cannot play it, are not admitted candidates for the annual prize given to the best performer. After the ladies had retired, the wine went round plentifully; but, to the honour of the conductor of this festive board, every thing was regulated with the utmost propriety, and, as we were in possession of the only room for dancing, we rose the earlier from table, in compliance with the wishes of the ladies, who, in this country, are still more keen dancers than those in the southern parts of Britain.

"After tea, the room being adjusted, and the band ready, we returned; and the minuets being, by common consent, exploded, danced, with true Highland spirit, a great number of different reels, some of which were danced with the genuine Highland fling, — a peculiar kind of cut.

"It is astonishing how true these ladies all dance to time, and not without grace: they would be thought good dancers in any assembly whatever.

"At ten o'clock the company repaired to the terrace, adjoining to the house, to behold as fine a scene, of its kind, as perhaps ever was exhibited.

"Bonfires in towns are only simple assemblages of inflammable matter, and have nothing but the cause of rejoicing to recommend them; but here the country people, vying with each other, had gathered large piles of wood, peat, and dry heather, on the tops of the different hills and mountains, which, by means of signals, being all lighted at the same time, formed a most awful and magnificent spectacle, representing so many volcanos, which, owing to their immense height, and the night being totally dark and serene, were distinctly seen at the distance of ten miles; and, while our eyes were gratified with this solemn view, our ears were no less delighted with the different bagpipes playing round us; when, after giving three cheers to the king, and the same to Mr. Pitt, &c. we returned into the ball-room.

"At one I withdrew, took some refreshment, and then returned home, highly delighted at having passed the day so very agreeably."

We have observed a few mistakes in the names of places, &c. occasioned probably by the length of time since the tour was performed, though there is abundant internal evidence that much of the work was written at the moment, when every impression was distinct and vivid. Crien Larick, between Loch Lo-

mond and Loch Tay, appears under the frenchified form of Cree in La Roche. It is the Spean, and not the Brander, which runs under High Bridge, in Lochaber. The assertion, that Dr. Smollet erected a monument on the banks of the Leven to his own memory, has in it more of an Irish bull than that of truth. It was, in fact, erected some time after his death, by a relation who resided near the spot. That relation is since dead; and the monument, when we saw it in 1801, was fallen into neglect, the marble

tablet broken, and all access to it hedged up. To colonel Thornton's exclamation—"O vanitas vanitatis, & omnia vanitas," we may add, sic transit gloria mundi. No naturalist, we believe, will subscribe to colonel Thornton's opinion, that ptarmigans are moor-game, stinted in their growth, and varying in their colour from local situation only.

The work is embellished with several pleasing and very accurate views from the pencil of Mr. Gerrard, and an etching of the heath or black cock and hen.

ART. XVI. *The History of Cheltenham and its Environs; including an Inquiry into the Nature and Properties of the Mineral Waters, &c. &c. &c. and a concise View of the County of Gloucester.* 8vo. pp. 374.

THIS volume, we must inform our readers on the threshold, is what is generally called a guide; but, from its form, price, and the publicity of the place to which it refers, we are induced to pay more attention to it, than such works are usually entitled to. The confined nature of this volume opens no wide field for investigation; and the desultory subjects alluded to, admit of little embellishment. We, however, expect in local histories and guides, judicious selection, and accuracy of statement. The assumption of the task demands the one, and locality induces the expectation of the other. When these are not properly attended to, we strongly lament that every thing under the name of a guide, or equivalent title, is not undertaken by men of talents and learning. We eagerly look up for instruction in these cases; and, if not properly informed, we are not only disappointed ourselves, but become the innocent misleaders of others. Intelligent writers on towns and districts, while they furnish the public with appropriate information, may also considerably contribute to the general stock of topographical knowledge. But such publications are too generally the productions of persons unable to fulfil these necessary requisites: so that, instead of a full and impartial history and description of the place, with interesting details of its ancient and present state, relative importance, &c. we are, after a very cursory view, led away to distant places for the pleasure we expected to receive on the spot; to remote scenes for the fulfilment of the expectations raised, and the local guide becomes a *rambling literary*

either in size, form, or substance. It is a full sized octavo, assuming the title of a history, and dedicated to the most noble marquis of Worcester. The author is a Mr. Ruff, who thus introduces himself to our notice:

"I hope the presumption will not be too great, if the present volume is recommended as embracing all the information that will be looked for, in a work purporting to be as well a guide as a history." (*Vide* preface.)

A Cheltenham Guide was published about six years previous to this by a Mr. Moreau, who, we believe, was the late master of the ceremonies there. Mr. Ruff has taken nearly the whole of that work, and very modestly observes, "that were his book collated with Mr. Moreau's, more would appear to be borrowed from him than I am prepared to allow." He "freely acknowledges to have transcribed from him the royal tour, part of the account of the waters, and some few of his multifarious notes," which he observes were selected from Atkins and Rudder.

Thus, after transcribing, extracting, &c. he wishes to acquit himself of purloining, by casting an oblique slur upon the preceding author, for enriching his work with observations and facts taken from the celebrated historians of the county. We strongly dislike arrogance, when accompanied by notorious plagiarism. The work is, however, published, and it is our duty to give an outline of its contents. Mr. Ruff commences with a brief description of the situation of the town, and a dissertation on the origin of the name, which occupies four pages. In this he gives us his learned derivation of Cheltenham—

"*The town under the rising ground or hills.*" Here, as the leading title was *history*, we expected much information, and some of an important nature we have received. We are told, p. 5, that, "A. D. 1219, in the reign of Henry III. the manor and hundred were granted to William Long Espee, (otherwise Longsword, a natural son of Henry, (we suppose the Third,) by the celebrated Fair Rosamond), who was afterwards earl of Salisbury, in right of his wife Elizabeth, only daughter to William, son of Patrick D'Eurieux, first earl of Salisbury. In the seventh year of Henry's reign, William Long Espee leased the benefit of the markets, fairs, and hundreds of Cheltenham, to the inhabitants of the town, which lease, three years afterwards, was renewed, with certain reserved rents. About the tenth year of the same reign, Long Espee died, and was succeeded by his son William, who forfeited his estates for going out of the realm without leave from the monarch. William was slain abroad by the Saracens; and, his only son dying an infant, the title became extinct, and fell to the crown. Henry, in the twenty-seventh of his reign, 1243, granted the manor of Cheltenham, in dower, to his queen Eleanor: thus were the same lands, by a singular train of events, granted to the offspring of his paramour, and to his lawful wife!" We at first thought III. might have been a mistake for II. as we understood that Henry III. was the religious, and Henry II. the gallant, character: but the date of 1219, and twenty-seventh of his reign, 1243, as well as other circumstances, put it beyond all doubt, that III. was the intended reading. Yet, in vain, we sought to find the labyrinth at Woodstock, or the interesting memoirs of *Rosamond*, connected with the events of *this period*. The remains of that unfortunate lady, if report of the place be true, had long silently reposed in the cloisters of Godstow. Nor can we understand how Cheltenham could have been granted to the abbey of Fischam (*Fischam*) in Normandy, 1252; and, after being in possession of John Limel, 1309, should subsequently belong to an alien monastery in Normandy. We must ask Mr. Ruff, how the manor could be granted by James I. to William Dutton, esq. when Charles I. sold it at the commencement of his reign to certain feoffees for the sum of 1200*l.* to be paid by four instalments, as appears by the journals of the house of commons; and

John Dutton, esq. the ancestor of the noble house of Shirebourne, purchased it of the aforesaid feoffees; and, in consequence of the purchase, held his first court here June 3, 1629? We have briefly stated this to shew the historical abilities and accuracy of this historian of Cheltenham.

In the general account of the town, we have a description of Leckhampton Cliff, the abrupt termination of the Coteswold Hills, and of a grotesque chimney built by preternatural hands, which Mr. Ruff informs us in a note he supposes to be *shepherds*. He also states that Gloucestershire farmers worship a Coteswold sheep more than the Egyptians did their favourite idol Isis; that poultry and cattle are not among the *least good things* which the vicinity of Cheltenham affords; and that the delicate and cheap provision of rabbits bred at Postlip, a neighbouring common, "will not fail to recommend itself to the visitor, notwithstanding the absurd law of modern fashion, that *tame rabbits* are to be preferred." All this is news! But what has a long letter, supposed to have been written by Dr. Johnson, relative to Buxton, and which appeared in the Public Advertiser, to do with a description of Cheltenham? Mr. Ruff's account of a fair for hiring servants may serve to amuse our readers, while it furnishes a specimen of the author's descriptive and erudite abilities. "There are two statute fairs, called (according to the custom of the country) by the emphatic name of *mops*, for the hiring of men and women servants. These fairs are held on the Thursday before Michaelmas-day, and the Thursday after; at both which, as at the other fairs, there is a profuse display of pedlary, toys, and all the paraphernalia requisite to adorn the bonnets and stomachers of country lasses. It forms a curious and amusing sight, (and which a philosopher may contemplate with satisfaction), to behold the mixture of London elegance with Gloucestershire fashion; to view the street, decorated with booths, and those booths decorated in their turn with ribands and trinkets, and the crowding together of rustic lads and Bond-street beaux—of rural lasses and Westminster belles. This union of opposite characters produces a singular effect, and gives equal pleasure to both parties. The refinement of London is gaped at, and imitated, by the ignorance of the country; and many a lass, on her return to the dairy, has learnt a new method of decorating her bonnet,

which she thinks will surely entrap the heart of some admirer on the following Sunday."

To this our author subjoins (in a note) the following profound attempt to define the *emphatic term, mope*, which is the provincial term in Gloucestershire and Oxfordshire for these statute fairs.

"This uncouth term would startle many antiquaries: we do not profess to give the most accurate definition of it; but we lay claim to the merit of having suggested something. Might not this term have been originally *mob*, and the *p* somehow put for the *b*? If *mob*, we conceive it must have originated, not from their being called mobs in the usual acceptance, (as shallow wits would conceit), but from the girls wearing a particular kind of cap, called *mob-caps*. This definition will surprise a man who has seen nothing but *London caps*. On the contrary, if the word is to stand *mop*, might it not be so termed from the young women being called mop-squeezers? an appellation well known in the country, as attaching to raw unexperienced maid-servants."

The church of Cheltenham, Mr. Ruff says, was built in the year 1011, but he does not state upon what authority. The style of the building is of the middle ages; the turreted spire indicates the thirteenth century, and the pointed arch and Catherine-wheel, or marigold-window, would lead us to the time of Henry II. or lower down, for its erection. And it is not improbable but it might have been built by the assistance of Sion nunnery, when the manor was granted by Henry V. to that religious house. The cross, which, Mr. Ruff says, was set up when so many other crosses were throughout the kingdom, (in the reign of Edward I.), still remains: it is probably coeval with the building. But the places where crosses were erected by the monarch, in memory of his affectionate consort, were only where the body rested in its way to interment. The origin of crosses in church-yards is as high as the origin of sanctuary, of which they were sometimes a sign; and, in many cases, were continued from the custom of thus publicly (by the symbol of the cross) appropriating heathen places of worship to the service of the true God.

In chap. iii. our author adverts to the amusements and accommodations of the place; among which he enumerates inns, boarding and lodging-houses, assembly-rooms, billiard-rooms, backgammon-rooms, theatre, Sadler's Wells, or

puppet-shew, circulating libraries, musical library, summer concerts, china-shops, jewellers' repositories, and banks. Of the last, Mr. Ruff emphatically observes, as "much loose cash is wanting here, we may suppose an *accommodation indeed*." Here we meet with more information; and being local, we suppose it more accurate. Mr. Harward's library is represented as a grand repository of the most learned treasures; instructions are annexed for the arrangement of a library; and Mr. Selden, in addition to books, possesses all the *nick nackery* of Bond-street; and above all, that young and old may be gratified to their *utmost wish*; that when the world ruffles our spirits, the perturbation may be allayed by listening to the rich notes that flow from the *band-organ*, and happiness possessed by the "instantaneous striking up of what is called an *organ-grinder*." Mr. Cook's china-warehouse exhibits porcelain, we are told, far superior to foreign; and that the clumsy and insipid productions of China must fall, in comparison "with the delicacy of the Dresden, or the splendour of the British manufacture."

Chap. iv. treats of the discovery of the spring; the nature and efficacy of the water, with results of analyses undertaken by several scientific men. Here we noticed the omission of Drs. Linden, Smith, and Hulme. Mr. Ruff, in giving an account of this water, has extracted several pages from the writings of Dr. Saunders; because, as he elegantly observes, that "too much cannot be said on this important part of our work." p. 84. In reading this learned dissertation, we were happy, for the sake of our fair country-women, to be informed, p. 82, "that, notwithstanding the too frequent use of *transparent* clothing, if *timely application* was made to Cheltenham Spa, the celebrated waters of the hot well near Bristol might flow unregarded to the Avon." Though the *spring* yields, on the average, thirty-five pints per hour, yet such is the demand, that many persons often go unserved. A new spring, though not of precisely the same nature, yet a *saline-chalybeate*, was brought into notice 1802, which yields 130 gallons per hour: so that the future visitors to Cheltenham need not fear they should suffer from a scanty supply of *water*. We are informed also that the pump-room is opened every morning, and the description given of the appearance of the

promenades, almost induced us to consider this as the most bewitching spot ever described, for fascinating elegance, and uncommon beauty.—Such is the effect of exaggerating partiality.

An account is given of the warm, tepid, and vapour baths, with long extracts from count Rumford, on the nature and utility of various warm applications to the surface of the body.

From the statement given of the number of visitors, during twenty-two years, the celebrity of the place seems to be on the increase: in 1780, No. 374—1790, 1100—1802, 2038.

Though Cheltenham has scarcely one historical feature in it, yet the penetrating sagacity of our author has discovered enough matter to fill 126 octavo pages. The remaining part of the volume, its greatest portion, is taken up with an account of other places in the county, &c. The rides in the immediate vicinity are properly introduced; but we do not discover equal propriety in printing a long account of the city of Gloucester, containing fifty-four pages, the river Wye sixty-eight more, Worcester and Malvern twenty-three, Cirencester eleven, &c. &c. These, however, Mr. Ruff *properly* terms

excursions; and, if he had permitted his *excursive* genius to expand a little further, he might, instead of an octavo volume, have given the history and description of Cheltenham; and, under the *same title*, two quartos might have filled the vacant shelves of genteel libraries.

Sixty-three pages are occupied with a *concise display* of the county of Gloucester; but, as this is not a *county history*, we must decline the task of noticing this part. It, however, *ekes out* the book; and, to those who have little opportunity of reading more authentic documents, it may afford some information. An appendix, occupying eight pages, is copied from Cary's Itinerary, with a very curious advertisement, stating, that it was extracted by *consent*, with an *eulogy on its exclusive merits*. *Mr. Cary, we suppose, is one of the "many friends, whose aid" on behalf of Mr. Ruff "has not been confined to mere information."*

This description of Cheltenham, though far from being what it professes, or ought to be, may be useful to the insipid loungers of a watering-place, who are better employed, even in reading nonsense, than in gambling, scandal, or tantalizing honest tradesmen.

ART. XVII. *Picturesque Excursions in Devonshire and Cornwall.* By T. H. WILLIAMS, Plymouth. Part I. Devonshire. Royal 8vo. pp. 118.

THE interesting county of Devon, its romantic scenery, wild moors, beautiful vales, and picturesque cascades, are all peculiarly calculated to excite the admiration of the artist, and inspire the genius of the poet. These objects considered, we are not surprised to find a volume expressly appropriated to display certain parts of the scenery of this county. We only wonder that so little has been done to illustrate its history, and develope its bold and charming features. Devonshire is distinguished in the annals of the fine arts as the native soil of a Hudson, a Northcote, an Humphrey, a Cosway, a Reynolds, and some other artists. Yet it does not appear that either of these, or indeed any of its natives, have ever exhibited to the public eye, any of those commanding and interesting scenes with which the county abounds. Had a Wilson or a Gainsborough witnessed some of these, they would have transmitted them to the canvas, and thereby have produced some admirable pictures. A common-place maxim, founded on a

common failing of man, will partly account for this dereliction of genius.

"We search for curiosities and beauties abroad, at the same time neglect those of really greater attractions at home." The author of "*Picturesque Excursions*," &c. has endeavoured to prove himself an exception to this rule. Viewing the scenery of Dartmoor, and its environs, with the eye of an artist, he felt the laudable ambition of conveying delineations of some of their features to distant parts of the island. In conjunction, therefore, with another gentleman of similar taste, they jointly published a part of the present work in 1801; the descriptive parts of which appear to have been executed by Mr. J. H. Johns, and the sketches by Mr. Williams. Plates were engraved from the latter by a Mr. Anker Smith; but so extremely bad, that the young adventurers seem to have shrunk from, rather than courted, public scrutiny. Mr. Williams, anxious to make good his claims to public patronage, and avoid a similar imposition from another

engraver, determined to prosecute the work, and etch his own plates. The present volume seems to have resulted from this determination. It is dedicated to that engaging poet, Mr. Bidlake, and contains twenty-two etched views of various scenes in the western and northern parts of Devon, accompanied by short descriptions, written in the form of a tour. The former we can recommend for their artist-like style of execution; and as strikingly characteristic of the scenes they are intended to represent. In etching them, Mr. Williams has sometimes successfully imitated the style of Weirotter, though he has not produced the brilliancy of effect which so peculiarly distinguishes that artist's views.

The latter necessary requisite we would recommend to Mr. Williams's attention; and, as he promises a continuation of the work, we wish him to examine particularly the beautiful etchings of Perelle and Sylvestre. His descriptions partake of that principle which prevails in his views—want of effect. In writing, as in painting, the hero or leading subject should be kept prominent: whatever is introduced to detract from the consequence of this, greatly injures the composition. To Mr. Williams, and all other tourists, we cannot too forcibly urge the necessity of uniting brevity with perspicuity in language, and interest with accuracy in embellishments.

ART. XVIII. *Architectural Notices, in Reference to the Cathedral Church of Ely.* 8vo. pp. 24.

THE magnificent and highly interesting cathedral of Ely displays an important subject for the exercise of the pen and pencil; but, unless these implements are directed by the hand of taste, and regulated by judgment and knowledge, they are more likely to depreciate than dignify the subject. Mr. Bentham has already published a large quarto volume on the history and description of this structure; has accumulated a number of curious and satisfactory documents; but has failed in discriminating the various styles of architecture which are conspicuous in the building. Besides, his plates are extremely unsatisfactory and incorrect. The present work professes merely to contain a few architectural notices; therefore it is not to be viewed as a history, or a systematic essay on this magnificent cathedral. Its notices, however, are very concise, and very few; but they may serve to furnish useful hints to the curious traveller, when visiting this place for the purpose of ocular examination. Some of its statements are rather vague, and some are erroneous; but the writer (though anonymous) displays that knowledge of his subject, which makes us regret that he was not

more copious. At the end are some very judicious observations on the introduction and first use of transepts into English churches. To convey some idea of the plan, and of the author's style, we select the following short specimen:

“Ely cathedral is, upon two accounts, particularly interesting to the curious stranger: first, because it contains specimens of our church architecture, during a period of more than four hundred years; and secondly, because the most authentic documents remain of the era at which each of those specimens were erected. An accurate study, therefore, of this edifice, will be rewarded by the acquisition of a criterion of the utmost use, in enabling us to form a correct judgment on the age of other ancient buildings,—a criterion, not raised upon conjecture, but upon the authority of written records. With regard to those who may not be disposed to consider a cathedral as an object for serious attention, they yet perhaps will not be sorry at the expense of half an hour of their time, to trace with certainty the different periods of the construction of this venerable pile. It is a subject closely connected with the history of the arts, the progress in civilization, and, in some degree, with the state of religion, of our country, and therefore cannot fail of being interesting to every person of a cultivated mind.”

ART. XIX. *Archæologia; or, Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity. Published by the Society of Antiquaries of London.* Vol. XIV. 4to. pp. 311.

THE society, part of whose memoirs are here presented to the public, has been too long established to require any account of it; and the nature of the institution is of too much public importance to require praise. The study and

pursuits of antiquity, though by some held in very inferior estimation to many other departments of learning, is, when rightly considered, not only closely allied to the most important branches of erudition, but is illustrative of the most

useful and elegant arts of life. It is capable of, and should embrace an interestingly extensive field of investigation, and all dissertations on it should be the vehicles of the most solid and important information. The great objects of a national society, like this, should not be confined to the *minutiae* of antiquity, but should laudably direct all its funds and knowledge to those important purposes which tend to exalt the English character and nation. Instead of sacrificing time, paper, and money, upon dissertations and illustrations of *useless inscriptions, defaced coins, barbarous and unmeaning sculpture, or rather stone-cutting, and many other such trifling and completely insignificant objects, it would be more honourably noble to counteract vulgar prejudices, clear up and simplify the obscurities of history, call forth and foster indigent genius, and endeavour to elucidate every doubtful point which at present attaches to those historical antiquities, that are truly British, Anglo-Roman, Anglo-Saxon, Anglo-Norman, and English. As our antiquarian society is content to move in a more humble sphere, and is willing to be viewed as a small satellite, instead of being ranked as a primary planet in the western hemisphere; we will, therefore, contemplate it as it is, not finding it what it should be.*

In publishing its works, or "*Miscellaneous Tracts*," we think that the subjects should be arranged in some systematic order, and be judiciously selected. They should also be not only of utility to our own, but to foreign nations; not only of Europe, but to the world. A society of enlightened men, formed for such noble purposes as this, and in such a country as *ours*, the seat of the sciences, the favourite residence of knowledge, the "*punctum saliens in vitello ovi*," as the great Linnæus termed it after traversing Europe, should consider that the national character is implicated in all they do, and her fame committed in all they publish. When a foreigner takes up a volume of a *learned society in London*, he instantly conceives himself in possession of a treat which his own country is unable to furnish; and he sits down with a view of contemplating the great nation which has produced it. If in this case he be disappointed, the consequence must be that he adopts an unjust opinion both of the country and the inhabitants. We mention this to shew the imperious necessity of paying stricter

attention to publications of this kind than is usually done. We might say much more, but suppose a few well meant hints will be sufficient. In such cases, much often rests with the editor; or, in the instance of this society, with the director: and in multifarious papers the strictest attention should be paid to clear arrangement, as conducive to perspicuity. Thus "*miscellaneous tracts*" does not appear the most eligible mode of ushering into the world the collected communications of a learned body.

We mean not to depreciate the labours of this respectable society; we feel a veneration for the institution, and its members; and it is with reluctance that we are sometimes obliged to point out omissions, or rectify inaccuracies. Yet the work demands our attention, and our readers are entitled to expect a candid and undisguised report. We will endeavour to gratify that expectation, but in doing it we must necessarily be rather copious.

The present volume is the fourteenth of this kind since the society's incorporation in the year 1757; and though we consider it of superior value to any of the preceding volumes, yet we are sorry to observe that many frivolous articles are admitted, and others of an unimportant nature ostentatiously displayed.

The volume before us contains thirty-four tracts, with an appendix, and fifty-seven engravings, besides an additional plate intended to correct a bad one in a former volume. These tracts and prints are so inexplicably arranged, that it would be doing injustice to the work to follow them in their present order, as well as prevent our giving an adequate analysis. We shall therefore, to enable the public to judge better of the value of the contents, view them in the following classes. *Asiatic, or oriental antiquities; European, or western; historical and critical.* In the first class, we have scarcely sufficient to admit of a subdivision; but in the second we have British, Roman-British, Saxon, or Danish, with Norman and English: of these the latter very properly bear the greatest proportion. Under each of these heads we shall endeavour to give a fair, and we trust, satisfactory analysis, with such observations as will enable our readers to appreciate the merits of the volume, and the individual importance of its principal component parts. The first class,

or eastern, contains little that can either interest the mind, amuse the fancy, or inform the judgment.

Under this head, in article 10, page 55, we are presented with an account of a brick, *said* to be brought from the site of ancient Babylon, communicated by Nathaniel Hulme, M. D. F. R. S. and F. A. S. who reports, "That it was lately brought to Bombay, with some others of the same kind, from the ruins of the city of Babylon; but unluckily my correspondent omits to inform me by whom they were brought, or to give any description of the place or situation where they were found; but merely mentions it as a fact known at Bombay that they certainly came from the site of ancient Babylon." If such logic as this were generally admissible with the society, it need not want plausible subjects to fill its pages, or adorn its museum. Dr. Hulme, it appears, has made a chemical analysis of this *extraordinary curiosity*, and informs us that it is composed of "pure clay, with perhaps a little mixture of sand, which is changed to a light colour by dint of age." Now without any pretensions to chemical knowledge, every brickmaker could have told us, without a perhaps, that bricks are composed of clay and sand; and few, who have read at all, but know that the usual mode of hardening brick among the ancients was by compression and exposure to the sun and air; a practice still prevalent in the east, and has been adopted by other nations. Its having been changed into "a light stone colour by dint of age," is certainly a most ingenious and profound conjecture. A black substance was observable adhering to it, which the doctor pronounces to be what the Greeks call *ασφαλτός*, the Latins bitumen, and which he supposes they used instead of mortar. But what if this should have been part of the original composition of the brick, and merely oozed out by long exposure? The Egyptians obliged the Israelites to make use of stubble instead of straw to make, not to burn brick, using it as plasterers now do hair and other articles to give tenacity to more friable materials. Our countrymen in India will not thank the doctor for his compliment of saying, they "have now acquired great knowledge in the oriental languages," yet were unable to explain the inscription upon this, and other Babylonian bricks.

However, what our learned Anglo-In-

dians have been unable to do, we are told is satisfactorily done by the Rev. Samuel Henley, who in a subsequent part of this volume, art. 28, has given us much Greek and Hebrew, &c. about this "curious brick." This learned annotator considers the monument brought from the site of Persepolis, and the brick here alluded to, as allied. The latter is inscribed on one side with characters, and on the other with a lion and a man's head, according to Dr. Hulme; but according to Mr. Henley, with two rude figures of a dog barking, and the head of a water bird, accompanied by an inscription, or some marks like characters, which Mr. Henley makes, according to his interpretation, *עכנה*, a brick baked by the sun. Next follows a long dissertation, to prove that *EN* was once a name of the sun; but how will this prove the brick in question to be illustrative of Chaldean philosophy? And that this Babylonian brickmaker should devote one side of it for the purpose of informing us that it was baked by the sun, would lead us to conceive that it was a wonderful effort of human art, and this the first specimen. Now for the other side; *Audi alteram partem*; aye, there's the rub! the inscription has evidently alphabetic characters, and such as the Romans commonly used. But the alphabetic, says Mr. Henley, "occur on no other Babylonish bricks, yet the monogrammic occurrence on them all; yet Dr. Heber, who has professedly written on the subject, passes this topic unnoticed." Here Mr. Henley leaves us *very abruptly*, to deliberate on the subject of his dissertation, and we cannot help thinking that the brick is of Roman workmanship, and that the characters are rather notations, than narratives.

A small stone, with very similar shape and markings, is engraved in Horsley; but that, as well as Dr. Hulme's print, is so ill drawn, that we cannot safely make conclusions from such representations. The perusal of Mr. Henley's and Dr. Hulme's very learned dissertations on an unauthenticated subject, forcibly reminded us of a story related of king Charles the Second. This witty monarch having observed that the members of the royal society mispent their time, and misemployed their learning, in debating about trifles, proposed to them the following question, "Why is a dead salmon heavier than a living one?" When the day arrived on which the

question was to be solved, the king attended to hear the arguments. A learned dissertation was read, in which much physical, and more metaphysical, reasoning was displayed to account for the *well-known* phenomenon. But equal ingenuity was exerted to invalidate those arguments, and establish another hypothesis in place of the first: This was again refuted in its turn, and the debate became warm, without any indications being given that they were ever likely to come to a conclusion. At length a grave member, who had hitherto taken no share in the dispute, arose, and addressed the president with these words: "Sir, I beg leave humbly to doubt the fact; and therefore I move that all further arguments on this head be suspended, until the fact shall be proved to the satisfaction of this society, by the undoubted evidence of clear and satisfactory experiment." "Aye," said the king, smiling, "had you begun with this, you might have saved yourselves a great deal of trouble; but at the same time you would have deprived me of a luxurious entertainment."

Article 20 contains an explanation of an unpublished Phœnician coin, by Stephen Weston, B. D. F. R. S. and F. A. S. Mr. Weston says that the engraved coin on plate 10 represents "the head of Hercules on one side, with a club behind the head; and on the other a sea-horse, with Phœnician letters under the horse, an aleph, a nun, and a thau, making together the word anath." "N. B. Behind the horse are three globuli, signifying the golden apples of Hesperides, or the three heads of Geryon, which Hercules cut off." This is the very acme of antiquarian sagacity; and as Mr. Weston can so easily transform what he sees into "golden apples," &c. we presume that he possesses a self-made philosopher's stone. In writing about this coin, Mr. Weston supposes that he has discovered the era and country to which it belonged. From the characters beneath the horse, by him called אנה or aleph, nun, and thau, he concludes the word to mean an habitation on a rock; and as Tyre was so situated, he infers that the coin was struck there. The horse is made emblematic of the maritime situation of that ancient city. Further to confirm these conjectures, he finds that the historian of Alexander, Arrian, as quoted by Stephanus Byzantinus, called Tyre *Anatha*.

If the antiquarian society acquiesce in such arguments, we cannot; for we require something more than vague conjecture. Besides we do not feel inclined, on such evidence, to admit the application of the coin, the exposition of its characters, or that Tyre, either *old or new*, was called *Anatha*, *anatha* from its situation. After the dispersion of families, and division of lands, whether by divine appointment or otherwise, the first colonists usually gave the name of the leader to the first city they built. Tyre was part of the lot of the tribe of Benjamin. ענאח, or Anathoth, was the son of Bechir and the grandson of Benjamin, 1 Chron. vii. 8, who probably built Tyre, which, according to the Greek mode of softening and accommodating Eastern terms to the genius of their language, would be called *Anatha*. A confirmation occurs in Jeremiah l. 1, where the prophet is said to dwell in Anathoth, in the land of Benjamin. And Tyre was not only one of the most ancient cities of Phœnicia, but still more ancient than Mr. Weston makes it. Josephus says it was built 420 years before the temple of Solomon, (not 240, as stated by Mr. Weston); and the temple was built, according to the best chronologists, 1004 previous to the birth of Christ, vid. Bochart. The correction of this anachronism will bring us up to the period in which Anathoth lived;—for we find 1336 before Christ, Shamgar the son of Anath recorded as a successful warrior against the Philistines. Thus far we have remarked, supposing the coin to be Phœnician, and wishing to prevent the circulation of error. The mistatements of Mr. Weston, and other equally great men, are not single errors; such names are a *legion*: and *obsta principiis* is as necessary in history, as in morals. But suppose the coin should *not* be Phœnician. We are sensible that a horse was often on the reverse of Syro-phœnician coins, and we find two such emblems in the coins of the Seleucidæ. But the three dots behind the horse's head being the three golden apples of the Hesperidæ, and the head on the obverse side being that of Hercules, requires much credulous faith to admit, and the representation on the plate will not bear us out even in conjecture. A horse was a very common numismatic emblem. Many British coins bear it, and the present coin is not very unlike some we have seen of Cunobeline. The

inscription only in this case could decide, and this appears to have been too far obliterated to be a voucher on the occasion.

Article 3, page 14, is an illustration of an ancient Macedonian symbol, a goat with one horn, by Taylor Combe, Esq. F. A. S. who, from a variety of authorities, endeavours to prove this to have been the established emblem of Macedonia. It is a bronze figure in his possession, dug up in Asia minor. He traces the use of it to Caranus, the first king of Macedon, who commenced his reign 814 years prior to the christian era. On one of the pilasters at Persepolis, he finds the fact of the Macedonians becoming tributary to the Persians in the reign of Amyntus I. (547 before Christ), recorded according to the eastern manner by a goat with an immense horn, which a person arrayed like a Persian is holding in his left hand, emblematic of the subjugation of Macedon. But that a horn should be emblematic of power was not peculiar to Macedon: it was a symbol of power among almost all nations. "He will exalt the horn of his people," was a blessing frequently promised to Israel; Persia was represented by a horned ram; and we use the proverb "to take the bull by the horns," as equivalent to conquest. This conjecture is confirmed by the account given us in the eighth chapter of the prophet Daniel, and is admirably illustrative of that wonderful portion of scripture. The overthrow of the joint empire of the Medes and Persians by Alexander the Great, is finely portrayed in the description of the rough goat, with a horn between his eyes, the first king, and the king of fierce countenance, Antiochus IV. in whose time it became a Roman province.

In article 7 we again meet the labours of Mr. Weston, who gives an illustration of the second Arundelian marble, with observations on Mr. Robertson's attack on the first. The latter gentleman has endeavoured to invalidate the whole, by an attempt to prove the forgery of one specimen. His arguments are, however, very satisfactorily confuted by Mr. Weston, with whom we agree that the coupling the Archon of Paros with the Archon of Athens in the inscription, is, if not a conclusive, yet a presumptive proof, that the writer was a native, or a person resident in that island. We think that such inconclusive

remarks as Mr. Robertson's are not likely to shake the credit, or diminish the authority of these valuable records.

Mr. Weston derives his authority for the second marble, from the word *Sipylene* being found in the oath engraved on it. The subject is the famous league between the Magnesians and Smyrnæans to support Seleucus Callinicus in his attempt to recover his captured provinces for the hand of Ptolemy. The same oath which the Magnesians swore to the Smyrnæans, the Smyrnæans swore to the Magnesians, with the additional name in the list of deities of Venus Stratonice. It is probable that as the Smyrnæans worshipped Venus under the name of Stratonice, from the place where her temple was, so the Magnesians did the same under the title *Mother Sipylene*, from Sipylus, a mountain in Lydia, near which the Magnesians dwelt, and where probably a temple was erected to her worship. And a confirmation is furnished by a coin, engraved (plate 1, fig. 3), on the obverse of which is a female head turreted, with an inscription round it, which Mr. Weston prints ΣΙΠΥΑΗΝΗ, though engraved ΚΙΠΥΑΗΝΗ. On the reverse is a female figure standing, with a cornucopia in her left hand, and, according to our annotator, a patera in the right, accompanied by the word ΖΜΥΡΝΑΙΩΝ, which is printed ΣΜΥΡΝΑΙΩΝ.

This "municipal coin of Smyrna," observes Mr. Weston, "was struck at the time, and upon the occasion, and is an agreeable increase of testimony, and an elegant corroboration of the fact in question." We are rather surprised that Mr. Weston has not remarked, that the goddess Cybele is commonly represented crowned with turrets, in allusion to her presidency over cities, &c.

Article 32, p. 231, contains an account of the walls, &c. of Constantinople, by the rev. James Dallaway, who has already published a large quarto volume on the history and antiquities of that celebrated city. The present essay may therefore be considered as supplementary to that work. It is illustrated by four aquatinted engravings, representing three ancient gates of the city, and the seven towers, "so horribly notorious in the Turkish annals." Why the latter plate is given we cannot comprehend, as Mr. Dallaway declares that he "shall not offer any account of it, in this memoir." Indeed, if all the plates had been suppressed, it had been more creditable to

the author's taste and judgment, for views so ill-drawn cannot be accurate. His detail of the walls, &c. is introduced by the following observations.

"The whole city of Constantinople is at this time surrounded by walls, the ancient form of which is in some parts destroyed, but which are still in a state of continuity and repair. Of those *which* inclose the seraglio, *which* rise immediately from the sea of Marmara, or *which* protect the harbour on the other side, I have nothing to remark *which* might add to general descriptions of the city already before the public. This slight memoir will be therefore confined to an investigation of the vast fortress *which* extends over the land, from the mouth of the harbour to the sea. Following the direct road from (Tekir-seria) an imperial palace, to the shore, the distance is three miles, four furlongs, and thirty yards English, as measured by a pedometer. It would be impossible to ascertain the height of the walls with equal precision, from infinite interruptions *which* occur at present; but they appear to run parallel with the road, which is chiefly *formed* above the outer foss. A more admirable view cannot be presented than that from the first hill above the harbour, near the Tekir-seria, or imperial palace, where this single castle, if it may be so termed, is seen at once, as it is continued with little variation of outline to the shores of Marmara. This grand line forms a curve in a slight degree, and there is no remarkable inequality of ground, or intervention of hills, to divert or destroy its continued course. As it crosses a valley of inconsiderable depth between the gate of Adrianople and that of St. Romanus, and another of a similar description from the gate of Selimbria to that of the Seven Towers, it gains a more picturesque effect from a superior elevation, than as if the whole had been built on a plain. Its hundred towers, diminishing in perspective, offer a stupendous scene even to the eye of an Englishman, whose country abounds with so many venerable remains of a castellated kind. No single castle in England presents a continued front of more than 300 yards; nor can a comparison be drawn with any other Gothic fortification, which I had before considered as the utmost effort of strength and perseverance in construction.

Extent of the Wall.

	Yards Eng.
From Haivan to Tekir-seria	- - 800
Tekir-seria to Edrinch-Kapoussy	- - 800
Edrinch-Kapoussy to Top-Kapoussy	1200
Top-Kapoussy to Mebla-hana-yeni	- 800
Mebla-hana-yeni to Selivree	- - 800
Selivree to the Seven Towers	- - 1600
Seven Towers to Marmara	- - 200
	6200

This measurement is given in round numbers, following the line of the great road. Some hundred yards more must be allowed for the curvatures made by the wall where it would not be practicable to approach it."

Article 33, p. 244, introduces Mr. Weston to us again employed in attempting to find the derivation of the word Ogmian, as applied to Hercules by Lucian. He says that it is not a Grecian, but a Celtic word, and may be illustrated by the sense of ogham in the language of the Bramins or the *Shans-cree*. But although the Indian agham, and the Celtic or Irish ogham, may mean the "trick or knack of any art, and so far a mystery whilst it is artfully made difficult and kept religiously obscure," yet we cannot see that the account in Lucian bears any reference to this secret writing. He simply tells us that the Celts call Hercules by a word in their own vernacular tongue Ogmian, but in their pictures they make him a prodigy of rudeness. Lucian, however, recognizes Hercules which the Gauls and other Celtic nations made the god of eloquence, and states that his great strength was emblematic of his influence, and the picture alluded to is a beautiful illustration of his persuasive arts, (vid. Borlase's Cornwall). In all derivations founded upon the homogeneity of sound there must be great uncertainty. Perhaps, after all, *Ogmios* may be a translation of some Celtic word which signified *eloquence*, or persuasion, and this to distinguish him from the various other deities or heroes, under that name noticed or worshipped by various other nations. The dialogue between Lucian and the Celt appears to imply this.

The next class, or *western*, brings us first to article 1, which contains an account of a burial urn discovered at Colney, in Norfolk, by the rev. William Gibson. Here are six pages employed about a fragment of pottery, and a plate is also thrown away on this trifle: besides, the author refers to *three views* of this *extraordinary* relic, though we can find only *one*, which is quite enough.

Article 5 is an account by Thomas Walford, Esq. of some Roman antiquities found at Topesfield in Essex, about two miles west by south of the ancient Roman road from Camulodunum to Camboritum. These do not appear to be more curious than similar ones found in a variety of other places, and being

discovered near an acknowledged Roman road and station, are the less interesting. The metal vase and patera (pl. v. fig. 1, and pl. iv. fig. 2) should have been on the same plate. Mr. Walford says, these merit "attention, as none similar to the first have been *figured* or described in the works of the society. The vase is of that form which Montfaucon styles a *præfericulum*, used by the Romans at their sacrifices."

Article 11 is by the same gentleman. It contains an account of a Roman road in Essex, illustrated by a map. Dr. Salmon, in his unfinished History of Essex, first noticed this road, and said it led from Camulodunum to Camboritum. This is a more interesting paper than that on the Topesfield antiquities. The account of the road, with the stations marked in the map which accompanies the paper, is valuable information; and the various antiquities discovered in its vicinity tend to illustrate the Anglo-Roman history of this part of the kingdom.

Articles 8 and 30 are accounts, by the reverend Peter Rashleigh, of Roman antiquities found at Southfleet, in Kent. These accounts occupy six pages, and the objects are represented on seven plates: they might have been well displayed on three. And instead of the descriptions being printed in different parts of the volume, they should have come together. Mr. Rashleigh endeavours to prove from these, and the contiguity of the place to the Watling street, that it was the Roman station Vagniacz. Some of these relics are extremely curious, particularly the very elegant shoe, and the chain, resembling a modern watch chain.

Articles 14 and 15 are communications by Charles Joseph Harford, esq. of Bristol, containing descriptions of various Roman antiquities discovered at Polden Hill and Quantock Hills, in Somersetshire. Among many other learned remarks, Mr. Harford observes that the *Torques* (a plate of one is here given) was a badge of high distinction in the earliest periods, and continued to be so amongst most nations down to the time of the Romans. "No ornament," he observes, "perhaps was of more early or more general use than the torques. The first historical mention of it is in the book of Genesis, chap. xli. ver. 42, in

which it is related to have been one of the badges of distinction conferred on Joseph by Pharaoh, king of Egypt; it is noticed in other parts of scripture,* and we find it likewise in use among the Greeks,† Romans,‡ and almost all the barbarous nations of Europe." P. 97.

On the *Celts* he observes (p. 98), were "I allowed to hazard a conjecture, I should suppose that the metal celts in our museums were fabricated by foreign artists, and exported to this country, just as we have sent to the South Sea Islands an imitation of their stone hatchet." This conjecture is ingenious, but as in this and many other cases where celts are dug up, they are accompanied by coins of the lower empire, when the Britons had long been instructed in working mines and metals, they may as easily be supposed of indigenous manufacture. Nor is there a necessity of supposing the curious moulds for casting Roman coins, discovered at Edington, to be moulds for casting spurious coins, as the liberty of coining must have been allowed to the generals commanding in Britain, and more especially in the troublesome state of the empire, during the reign of the latter emperors. These papers are highly valuable, and the illustrative plates are interesting. They are evidently correct representations, and at the same time are drawn with taste. We are surprised that the society does not always employ professional draughtsmen. From the pencils of Carter and Underwood we may expect accuracy and taste, which are justly required in the present age, and are absolute essentials in all drawings. When we compare the plates in the present volume, there is such a manifest difference between those from Underwood and Wilkins, and those by the amateurs, that we are surprised the society and the latter are not ashamed of their works.

Under the *BRITISH* class we have the mixed papers of the reverend Malachi Hitchins, article 31, containing an account of coins, urns, and a cromlech, (cromlêch, Cornish) discovered in Cornwall. This gentleman remarks, that in the parish of Ludyvan there is a spring, celebrated for ages on account of its ophthalmic virtues, called Collurion, which, he says, could not have been given by the Phœnicians who traded here for tin, because that people spoke a

* Daniel v. 7. † Strabo, lib. iv. Amst. ed. p. 302. ‡ Livy, lib. xxxvi. cap. 40.

dialect of the Hebrew differing very little from the original. But had Mr. Hitchens appealed to history, he would have found that the Syro-Phœnicians who traded with Cornwall at that period, not only are acquainted with what is called the Grecian language, but used both it and the Greek characters even on their coins. The recourse, therefore, to Roman soldiers is unnecessary. Mr. Hitchens' paper is however curious, and written with much modesty.

Article 29 contains observations which formed the basis of a very valuable work, called the *Archæology of Wales*, by William Owen, esq. whose knowledge of the British language is universally acknowledged, and whose labours in British antiquities are deserving the highest praise. But as the two volumes are published, and the account of the sources whence the contents were derived are before the public, any extract would be superfluous. The archives where ancient Welsh MSS. may be found is valuable information.

Article 13 is an account, by sir H. C. Englefield, bart. of an old building in Southampton, which the learned baronet thinks was an ancient palace, and indulges "a fond conjecture" when he considers it "as possibly the hall from which Canute, surrounded by his courtiers, viewed the rising tide, from whence he descended to the beach, according to that most interesting narrative of our old historians, to repress, by a striking and impressive lesson, their impious flattery." This identification of place is to us information, though we require more satisfactory evidence than here adduced to prove the proposition.

Article 18 contains observations on Bridkirk font and a Runic column, at Rowcastle in Cumberland, by Henry Howard, esq. Of this remarkable font four plates, exhibiting the four sides, are here given; and these are highly interesting, as expressive of the arts and manners of our ancestors; but we do not consider the inscription *Runic* or the work *Scandinavian*, nor do we think it necessary to have recourse to professor Thorkelin at Copenhagen for its interpretation. The emblems are illustrative of the sacrament of baptism, and the inscription allusive, if rightly copied, to the same subject. The Danes were, at the time they made irruptions into this kingdom, *Pagans*, and the mode, as delineated in the plates, was a custom of

ornamenting crosses and fountains, used at a much later period. The column is similar to many British monuments; but the characters are too much obliterated to be ascertained by decyphering, or to support conjecture.

Under Norman, Anglo-Norman, and English antiquities, we have some very valuable, and some very frivolous, papers. The range is wide, and the inequality is great.

Article 9, page 40, contains some very interesting remarks on the *stone cross* at Hembsley in Norfolk, by the reverend William Gibson, and the small church of Hembsley, and remains in its vicinity, become highly illustrative of a subject which has long been the opprobrium of the virtuoso and the antiquary. The cause of erecting crosses, the account of the building, endowments, and those privileges secured to churches, called sanctuary, in the feudal ages, does great credit to the author.

"It is well known," observes Mr. Gibson, "that lords of large demesnes were the original founders of churches on them, for the use of their respective vassals; endowing them with lands and tithes, of which at first the bishops receiving the profits, provided them with priests, who went from one to another to perform the several duties. At length the bishops beginning to affect the temporal dignity of the barons, they imitated them also in this particular, and erected and endowed churches on their own estates; consenting, besides, to leave to a priest, seised in each of them, the enjoyment of such revenues, or the quarter part of them, as had been assigned to each church by its respective founder; and granting to them the power of administering the sacraments, with other privileges which were added to them by the munificence of successive kings, especially the privilege of asylum."

"While, therefore, the large and capital demesne of Hembsy was in the possession of persons high in rank, consideration, and royal favour, it is not improbable that many privileges and advantages should be obtained for the church there founded, beyond those enjoyed by other churches on the estates of persons of inferior dignity and weight."

"The portions of church yards towards the south, east, and west, are by the inhabitants of these neighbourhoods, and by those I believe of other places, held in superior veneration, being still emphatically and exclusively styled the 'sanctuary.' Opinions are seldom, perhaps never, generally established, without some basis. Whencesoever this prejudice arose, it is now become traditional among the lower ranks of people, and is indeed so strong, that if in my contiguous

parish of Winterton I were, on any occasion, to urge a parishioner to inter a deceased relative on the north side of the church, he would answer me with some expression of surprise, if not of offence; at the proposal, 'No, sir; it is not in the sanctuary!' Hence happens it that there are scarcely any graves visible in that portion of most of our church yards, except in towns, or in some very populous villages, where necessity may have overcome choice, or the sanctuary, for obvious reasons, has been originally extended quite around the church; or where, from peculiarity of situation, the principal approach to, and entrance into it have always been on that side."

Article 21 is an account of ancient sculptures and inscriptions in the abbey church of Romsey, Hants; but here is nothing entitled to detain us, as many similar ornaments may be seen in Strutt and Gough. The drawing is extremely bad, and the dissertation equally indifferent.

Article 23 is observations on some of the tombs in the abbey church of Tewkesbury, Gloucestershire, by Samuel Lysons, esq. Though we have already a very good history of Tewkesbury, yet the observations of Mr. Lysons are interesting, and are calculated to furnish some new information on the fine tombs which ornament this structure.

The 17th article embraces an account of the prior's chapel at Ely, by William Wilkins, jun. esq. This interesting paper is illustrated with some representations of the structure, which are drawn and engraved with great taste and accuracy: such embellishments are viewed with pleasure; and such communication is worthy of its author, and of the society.

The following remarks on ancient architecture will shew that Mr. Wilkins is not a superficial observer.

"The style of architecture, whose chief characteristic is the pointed arch, has indiscriminately been called *Saracenic* and *Gothic*, without much foundation for either appellation; and as nothing perfectly satisfactory has been discovered to justify any determinate one for it, it may be as well to allow it to pass under its adopted name Gothic; provided we mean to distinguish it from the *Saxon* and *Norman*, of the latter of which it may be possibly a refinement. This remark is made to excuse the usage of the term to those who think it an impropriety, and who otherwise might consider the frequent occurrence of the term, as challenging a contention on the subject. The few following observations may not, indeed, be

entirely new; but it is to be hoped that whatever is said with a view of confirming remarks that have already been made, will not be looked upon in the light of plagiarism.

"The Norman and Gothic styles of architecture are observed chiefly to differ in the construction of the arches, in the division of the windows into several lights by mullions, and in the piers supporting the arches. The common method of accounting for the origin of the pointed, for the intersection of the circular arches, of which we have numberless instances, is as satisfactory, perhaps, as any which have been offered, and will render the variation in this point from the Norman, an immediate derivation from it; especially when it is considered, that in many of our Gothic churches the form of the arches is nearly *equilateral*; by this expression is meant those arches whose chords form two sides of an equilateral triangle, whose third is the span: this will cause the two opposite limbs of two adjoining arches to be described with the same centre, and correspond in great measure with the instances above mentioned, nearly because it is difficult to ascertain, from the number of mouldings which we observe to enrich these arches, which was the leading member; for this being at first determined, the others of course were concentric, and, assuming any one, either within or without this member, the *equilateralism* is necessarily done away. If we examine some other deviations of this style from the Norman, we shall find that they are not so considerable as are apt to be imagined; for instance, the division of the windows of Gothic structures by mullions, is not peculiar to that style. We find in some Norman buildings the windows separated into two lights by a column, as a mullion. In the cloisters at Norwich, which is early Gothic, columns alone are used for the same purpose, and the heads of these lights are circular, but have the addition of the *cuspsolation*; in the present, and in many others, the column is still used jointly with some other mouldings. The clustered columns, so conspicuous in this species of architecture, do not vary very considerably from the *Saxon* and *Norman*, in which it was not unusual to place smaller columns round the principal pier: that part of the pier which appeared between the columns, is now formed into mouldings, and the number of these smaller columns increased."

In the class of ENGLISH ANTIQUITIES we are presented with remarks on a carved chimney piece at Spoke hall, in Lancashire, which may be interesting to those who occupy the mansion at present, or at some future period, but cannot afford much gratification to the general reader.

Article 2, a dissertation on Gimmel
Ff 2

rings, love, marriage, &c. by Robert Smith, esq. might suit Mr. Urban for the Gentleman's Magazine; but, like the preceding, is surely not of sufficient importance to deserve a place in such a volume as this ought to be.

Under the class of HISTORICAL and CRITICAL, we are furnished with five papers, some of which are the most interesting in the volume. Indeed, if this species of learning formed a larger part of the communications afforded by this learned society, the future volumes of the Archæologia would be more generally interesting.

Article 6 affords us an original proclamation of queen Elizabeth, concerning a scarcity of grain, and a letter from her majesty's privy council to the sheriff and justices of the county of Norfolk on the same subject. The perusal of this must suggest to the mind of every attentive reader these two things,—that much of the blessed queen's learning only existed in *panegyric*, and that the villainous arts for producing artificial scarcity, and enhancing the price of corn to a fatal height, were then practised, and that the present is countenanced by the past. This document was communicated in Nov. 1800, when the tricks of monopolists had produced much real misery in this country. It may be amusing to trace the coincidence of circumstances in 1565 and in 1800. The proclamation commences in the following style.

“The queenes majestye is presently given t'understand of sum ill-disposed persons, who partly to move misliking amongst the comun and meaner sort of her loving people, partly of covetousness, to enhance the prices of corn, have of late secretly spred abroad, in markets and other places, that the prices do tye and ar like daily to increace, by reason that certain persons have bought sum quantities of grayn to her majesties use in sundry countrees; and that also her majestie meanith to graunt to sum about her licence to cary corn out of the realm. Upon which rumour being maliciously spred, it may indeede happen, that although there be no scarcite in the realm (thanked be Almighty God), yet thereby the covetousness of such as have either of their own stoore, or by unlawfull bargaynes ingrossed into their hands great quantite of all manner of grayn, will take occasions to inhaunce the prices thereof without necessary cause, to the detriment and burthen of the multitude which have lack. Therefor her majestie, mynding to prevent the inconveniences that may herof arrise, doth straightly chardg and commaund all

manner of persons, and specially such as have governaunce of markets, to apprehend and commit to prison such as do or shall utter and spred abroad any such devices to move dearth or offence amongst her good subjects. And secondly her majestie willetli all her good subjects to understand for a truth, that she hath no meaning to do, or suffer any thing to be done, wherby any dearth of corn should rise amongst her people; neither has she graunted licence to any person about her to cary out any quantite grayn, and therfor, if any be so named of evil intent, the same is also misused.”

Article 12 is a letter from king Charles II. to colonel Thomas Veal, to raise troops for the royal cause. This may flatter the vanity of the descendants, but adds nothing to our stock of original information.

Article 24 is a charter of *in-peximus*, reciting another charter of king Edgar respecting the abbey of Ramesey in Huntingdonshire, which shews that institutions of superstition were coeval with the introduction of christianity among the Saxons.

The 25th article is a corrective paper by the late Thomas Astle, esq. respecting the mode of dating English records, particularly those relating to parliamentary history. Mr. Astle's paper is extremely useful, and its decided consequence cannot be too forcibly impressed on the minds of historians and antiquaries. We have frequently had occasion to lament the inattention of writers to dates. But in justice to Mr. Rastall, (not mentioned by Mr. Astle), we must observe that he has rectified this mistake in his useful tables.

Articles 26 and 27 contain an account of the early use of rhyme, by Sharon Turner, esq. who states that the two opinions which at present divide the literati, is whether it originated with the *Arabs* who invaded Spain in 712, or whether it began among the monks of Italy, and so spread over the rest of Europe. This Mr. Turner quotes from Pinkerton, but only to combat the position. For he finds from sir William Jones that rhyme is found in the Sanscreet and Chinese languages, and the Persian also contains it. He has found it likewise in the ancient British and the Hebrew. But all this will not induce us to believe that Homer ever meant the *Iliad* should be in rhyme; nor do we think that the *Ομοιόστιχον* meant exactly what we mean by rhyme, nor that the figures *Παρσον*, *Ομοιόστιχον*, and *Ισομετρον*,

usually produced such effects. In these papers, however, there is much learning and liberality of sentiment displayed; and we agree perfectly with Mr. Turner that rhyme had a much earlier introduction than the eighth century. Mr. Turner has adduced a specimen of rhyme, found in St. Austin's works, who died in A. D. 430. This is a curious document, of a very early period.

"But the words of St. Austin," says Mr. Turner, "which introduce it are as important as the poem, in proving the antiquity of rhyme. He says he wrote it in this form on purpose that it might be popular; that it might be level to the capacity of the lowest vulgar, be impressed on their memory, and be sung by them; he adds, 'therefore I would write it in no other manner, lest metrical necessity should compel me to use any words not familiar to the vulgar.'"

"A poem so written as 'to reach the knowledge of the lowest vulgar, and of those utterly unskilled and ignorant, and as far as possible to fasten upon their memory,' which are his exact words, must of course present to us a real specimen of vulgar poetry, and if so, rhyme was an appendage to the vulgar Latin poetry of the fourth and fifth centuries. We may here recal to our recollection the vulgar Latin song on the victories of Chloctarius mentioned in my former letter."

Articles 19 and 34 might have been

properly placed in the appendix, in which it seems the society have resolved, since the year 1776, to publish such curious communications as the council deems improper to print *entire*. Thus they become in part their own abridgers, and every learned communicator has some attention paid him; and those desirous of furthering the views of the society have this consolation, that if not permitted to occupy a niche in the more ostensible and sacred part, they will at least be entitled to a plain and humble monument in some less conspicuous and hallowed corner of the building.

If we may be allowed a voice, not being members of this privy council, we are of opinion that no division of this kind is necessary, as it tends to create invidious distinctions highly injurious to the cause of science. Every communicator considers his own paper at least equally valuable with another, according to the importance of the subjects; and it would appear less partial to reject the whole, than a *part*. On these occasions there is a want of consummate judgment, and a delicacy not always possessed by public editors. At the end of the volume is a list of presents to the society, a catalogue of its published works, and a good index.

ART. XX. *Scotia depicta; or, the Antiquities, Castles, Public Buildings, Noblemen and Gentlemen's Seats, Cities, Towns, and Picturesque Scenery, of Scotland, illustrated in a Series of finished Etchings.* By JAMES FITTLER, A.R.A. and Engraver to his Majesty, from accurate Drawings made on the Spot, by JOHN CLAUDE NATTES. With Descriptions, antiquarian, historical, and picturesque. Long folio.

THE avowed object of "*Scotia depicta*" is to represent most of the interesting antiquities and other characteristic features of that part of Great Britain which is north of the river Tweed. The field is spacious, the objects numerous, and many of them peculiarly calculated to make extremely fine pictures, and consequently prints. The artist has, therefore, nothing to do, but transmit to his canvas a *correct representation* of the scene before him to make his painting grand, fine, or singular; and the engraver performs the whole of his duty by closely copying the works of the draughtsman.

In deciding on the volume before us, we have to ascertain how far these have been accomplished. The drawings are by J. C. Nattes, the etchings by J. Fittler, and the volume consists of 50' prints, with the same number of pages of letter-

press. Some of the scenes are singularly picturesque, and are drawn in an artist-like manner; but the whole of the views are greatly deficient in that minuteness of detail which gives interest to topographical prints. The engraver has also worked with such a coarse and open stroke, that all parts of the print are rendered very liny and harsh. Though they profess to be only *etchings*, yet they should have been more finished. If we compare them with the works of a Waterloo, a Perelle, a Sylvestre, or a Piranesi, we shall discover a painful difference in the etchings of our countryman and those by the above masters. Indeed we are sorry to be compelled to say, that the joint efforts of Messrs. Nattes and Fittler, as displayed in this work, will neither add to their fame, nor be any credit to the arts of our country. The descriptions, however, though concise, are well

written; and by the frequent quotations from Mr. Stoddart's Tour, we are inclined to think they were chiefly written by that gentleman.

ART. XXI. *The Beauties of England and Wales; or Delineations topographical, historical, and descriptive of each County. Embellished with Engravings.* By E. W. BRAYLEY and J. BRITTON. 8vo. pp. 550. 36 plates. Vol. V.

THE preceding volumes of this very meritorious work have been already noticed by us, we shall therefore at present confine ourselves to a compendious summary of the volume which now solicits our attention.

The first part of the present volume is occupied by an account of the episcopal palatinate of Durham, "which appears to have derived its original privileges from the grant made to St. Cuthbert by Egfrid king of Northumberland, in the year 685, of all the land between the rivers Wear and Tyne, to hold in as full and ample manner as the king himself held the same." A succinct account is given of these privileges, and of the various restrictions to which they have from time to time been subjected. In the general view which follows of the agricultural, mineral, and manufactured products of the country, we regret that the authors have not procured more specific details on the latter of these important subjects.

The account of Durham, the capital of the county, is an elaborate and interesting article; commencing from the erection of a wicker tabernacle, to receive the relics of St. Cuthbert on Dunholme, a small elevated plain in the midst of a thick forest, and carried down to the enumeration of its inhabitants in 1802. The cathedral, both in its ancient and present state, is well described: we shall select a passage for the entertainment of our readers.

"The situation of this venerable pile is equally bold and singular. Elevated on a rocky eminence that forms the highest part of the city, it bursts on the sight with uncommon grandeur; the base of the rocks which support its west end, being laved by the waters of the Wear. From the square called the Place Green, by which it is generally approached, the whole of the north front is at once beheld. This entire range preserves its original Norman character, with occasional introductions of windows and tracery in the pointed arch manner: but various incongruities in the style and ornaments are observable, and may be traced to the late reparations. The porch forming the principal entrance may, in particular, be remarked as one of the most barbarous commixtures of

the Saxon and pointed styles that ever disgraced modern architecture. On the door within the porch is a curious metallic ring, or knocker, sculptured with a terrific visage, in bold relief, and well executed, with which persons claiming sanctuary in the night-time, were accustomed to alarm the inmates of the cathedral.

"The east front has been repaired and modernized: the windows, forming a double range, are all of the lancet shape, excepting the centre window of the upper tier, which is circular, and radiated with stone-work. These windows were originally ornamented with a profusion of painted glass, which, from various accidents, became so defaced and mutilated, that the subjects could not be traced; it is now entirely removed. The south front preserves much of its ancient character, though some parts have been chiselled over to make way for the new facings. Only a partial view can be obtained of this side of the cathedral, as the cloisters, dormitory, and other buildings, conceal nearly the whole of the lower part. The west front, consisting of two highly ornamented square towers, with the galilee between, appears to great advantage from the opposite side of the river. "The basement line of the elevation," observes Mr. Carter, "presents the projecting chapel of the galilee, flanked by huge buttresses and arches, springing out of the rock, to contribute due support to its walls, which form one vast combination of security to the main edifice itself." Above the galilee is the great west window, with various enriched compartments springing up to the roof. The architectural adornments of the towers are modern; and the attempt to make them accord with the original forms, has, in many instances, proved unsuccessful: their summits are bounded by pinnacles and open worked battlements. The great centre tower rises from the intersection of the nave and transept, and is singularly rich and elegant. Round it is a profusion of fine tracery, pointed arches, and other ornaments; and its buttresses are graced with niches, canopied, and decorated with tracery, within which various statues are placed, representing the original founders and patrons of the see. The height of this tower is 214 feet.

"The interior of this august building is highly interesting to those who wish to trace the connection between Saxon and Norman architecture, or to observe the latter in, perhaps, its highest stage of perfection. The comparison of these orders with the English, or pointed styles, may also be made; as the chapel of the Nine Altars parishes, in its ge-

neral enrichments and proportion, of the architectural character of Salisbury cathedral; and, from its singularly light appearance, forms a striking contrast with the massive Norman work prevalent in the other parts of the fabric."

The next place of consequence which is described, is Stockton upon Tees, a small though flourishing town, and deriving importance from its extensive manufactories of sailcloth and ropes, and from ship-building. Ritson, the eminent and faithful antiquary, was born here, and merited a much more elaborate notice than is bestowed upon him by the authors of this work.

The description of the contiguous towns of Bishop Wearmouth, Monk Wearmouth, and Sunderland, will be read with pleasure, as well as that of South Shields. They include, beside the usual topics, a complete and satisfactory account of the iron bridge at Sunderland, of the Roman remains discovered at Shields, and of the invaluable invention of the life-boat by Mr. Greathead, a resident in this latter place. Lumley castle, a seat of the earl of Scarborough, Branspeth castle, the episcopal palace at Bishop's Auckland, and Raby castle, once the princely seat of the Nevilles, form articles of no common interest to the antiquary and man of taste. These, however, are too long to be extracted, and we do not conceive ourselves at liberty to mutilate them by abridgment.

From Durham the alphabetical arrangement of the counties in this work suddenly hurries us southwards to Essex.

Essex being a county little abounding in picturesque and romantic scenes, and being the seat of no extensive manufacture, naturally tempts the topographer to indulge more than usual in historical and antiquarian researches; we shall not therefore greatly blame the authors, but would wish them to recollect that in a work designed for general readers, the imputation of dryness and want of interest, is what they should be especially cautious to avoid.

In the agriculture of this county, besides the usual objects of cultivation, we meet with some peculiarities, on account of the vicinity of the metropolis. The most curious of these is the mixed crop of coriander, teasel, and carraway.

"The seeds of these are sometimes sown together early in the spring, upon a strong

old ley, once ploughed, and are often very profitable to the proprietors. The mode of cultivating these plants is rather singular; and the farmer frequently engages with son or labourer to share the equal profits of a field, upon condition of his hoeing and managing the crops. The farmer provides the land, ploughs it, pays all parish rates, and also for the seed. The labourer sows it, keeps it clean by frequent hoeings, cuts, threshes, and prepares it for the market; when the produce is equally divided. This connection commonly lasts three years; sometimes longer. "In the first, the several seeds come up, and when of sufficient growth, are set out with a hoe; and the coriander, which is annual, is ripe before harvest, and produces a return from ten to fourteen hundred weight an acre: on the second year, the teasel, most of which will run now, yields a load, or six score stiffs, of fifty heads each staff; and the carraways, from three to six hundred weight of seed: the third year, the teasel declines, and the carraway is in perfection, and will yield an equal bulk with the coriander; and most of the teasel that did not run last season, will produce heads this, and afford a fourth or fifth part of the crop it did the preceding season; by which time the plants are generally exhausted; though a fourth, and even fifth, year of carraway has been known to succeed." The coriander, or *cul*, as some call it, and the carraway, must be handled with great care when ripe; and women and children are generally employed to cut it plant by plant, which are afterwards placed in cloths, and commonly threshed on sailcloth, in the middle of the field. The teasel is also cut by women, who leave a stalk with the head six or eight inches in length, by which it is bound in bunches or gleans, of twenty-five heads each; the like number of gleans constitutes half a staff. Teasels are purchased and used by woollen manufacturers, who fix them on frames, and, by the hand or machinery, they are applied to the surface of cloths, to raise the nap, which is cut off by the clothiers' shears."

The prominent article in the history of this county, we might say in the volume, is the account of Colchester. It commences with the establishment of a Roman colony here by Claudius, then notices its first destruction by the insurgent Britons under Boadicea, and details perhaps rather too much at length, its fabled importance, under Coel the British king, fondly but improbably supposed by certain antiquaries to be the maternal grandfather of the emperor Constantine. The occupation of this town by the Danes, and their bloody expulsion by the vigour of Edward the elder, are then narrated, and, in the order of time, its capture by the dauphin in the glorious

reign of John, its loyalty during the short insurrection of lady Jane Grey, and its long siege and final surrender to Fairfax, after a gallant resistance by sir Charles Lucas. The present state of Colchester, the relics of its ancient strength and importance, and its staple trade the oyster fishery, are also satisfactorily recorded.

Audley house, the object of such enormous and absurd expenditure to Thomas Howard, the first earl of Suffolk, in its erection, and to the after possessors in its repairs and alterations, forms an interesting article; as also do the accounts of the royal castle of Pleshy, of Waltham abbey the burial place of Harold, and of Wansted house, perhaps, upon the whole, the best specimen of modern architecture in England.

The last county noticed in the volume before us is Gloucestershire: the account of which possesses nearly the same merits and defects as those which precede. It is deficient in statistical details, and in not giving a sufficiently correct idea of the general character and appearance of the country, and of par-

ticular districts, striking either for their beauty or singularity. It is eminently meritorious in the historical and antiquarian departments; but in a work styled "Beauties of England," these ought hardly to be the preponderating topics. The articles of Gloucester, Woodchester, Cirencester, and Tewkesbury, are particularly well executed.

In a volume printed for the most part with exemplary correctness, we were concerned to observe the errors which appear in several of the Latin quotations, particularly at pages 52, 139, 157, 298, 548.

As intimately connected with the present work, we may remark, that the first numbers of a *BRITISH ATLAS*, by the same authors, have been put into our hands. This atlas consists of separate maps of the counties, and plans of the county towns. All the places mentioned in the "Beauties" are inserted, and the Roman roads and stations are marked with great care and fidelity; the engraving is well executed, and the whole promises to be a very valuable supplement to the original plan of the authors.

ART. XXII. *A Family Tour through the British Empire; containing some Account of its Manufactures, natural and artificial Curiosities, History, and Antiquities; interspersed with biographical Anecdotes. Particularly adapted to the Amusement and Instruction of Youth.* By PRISCILLA WAKEFIELD. 8vo. pp. 450.

MRS. Wakefield is already advantageously known by an excellent Introduction to the Study of Botany, and in the work before us she has established a further claim to the regard of the public. We have looked through this volume with considerable care, and have not found any thing to be excepted against either in the matter or style. The local information respecting England, and the most frequented parts of Scotland and Ireland, is much more considerable than might be imagined from the size of the book; it is also well selected, being directed almost exclusively to those objects which are the most useful and the most interesting to young persons in the topography of their native country. The sentiments and reflections of the author are not needlessly and impertinently dragged in, but are of rare occurrence, and always in their proper places, and adapted to the occasion.

We select the following passage as a fair specimen of the whole:—

"The romantic village of Adare had too

many attractions to be passed without particular notice. Inclosed by surrounding groves, it appears secluded from the world, and impresses a stranger with reverence from the mutilated remains of its castle and venerable abbies, whose fragments are bound together by thick clusters of clasping ivy. Having wandered amongst the mouldering cloisters of these sacred edifices, till the reflection of the rising moon, glancing through a window, warned them to depart, they re-entered the village, rendered still more picturesque by the dress of the inhabitants, who are descended from a German colony that settled here about a hundred years ago: they still retain their own customs, dress, and language; the women wear large straw hats and short petticoats, and their cottages are far neater and better provided than those of the Irish.

"The moon shining uncommonly bright induced them, though late, to proceed to Limerick, along a road bordered with cyder orchards, corn fields, and pasture lands.

"The old town of Limerick is dirty and disagreeable; it is joined to the new town by a bridge thrown across the Shannon, which here divides and forms an island, where stands the new part of the city, handsomely built, with noble, spacious quays, for the

convenience of loading and unloading the ships that crowd this port, and bring wealth and industry to the inhabitants. The trade of this city is very extensive: its exchange is a plain building, supported by seven Tuscan columns. The cathedral is venerable for its antiquity, but heavy and gloomy. This place is famous for its loyalty to James II. and the long siege it sustained in his favour against the troops of William III.

"Beyond Limerick the Shannon ceases to be navigable: its course is interrupted by rocks and shallow cascades; but at Castle Connel it forms a torrent, in the midst of which rise rugged crags. The beauty of the place, and the company who came hither to drink the waters of a mineral spring, detained Mr. Franklin and the lads a few hours. Coasting the river, they came to Killaloe, where they saw the superb palace belonging to the bishop; here also is a large cascade,

just at the entrance of Lough-Derg, a lake which extends to the length of 30 miles, and is in some parts 12 or 15 broad. The stone bridge at this town has 18 arches; and at a little distance stands a round tower called O'Bryan's Palace.

"The country improved as they advanced towards the confines of the two provinces of Munster and Connaught.

"It happened that they passed the ruins of an ancient abbey, at a village called Abbey, on a holiday; a great number of people were assembled in the church-yard, where the priests were hearing the confession of their sins; after this ceremony they repair to a sacred fountain just by, to wash away their defects by walking bare-legged through the water. After both these sacred rites are performed, they return home satisfied, not considering that repentance and amendment are the only means of attaining peace of mind."

ART. XXIII. *A Collection of Gloucestershire Antiquities.* By SAMUEL LYSONS, F. R. S. and F. A. S. Folio. pp. 3b, and 110 prints.

THIS elegant volume of interesting antiquities must be a treat to the connoisseur in ecclesiastical architecture. It comprehends a collection of one hundred and ten prints, representing a variety of ancient buildings, and other curious subjects; the whole of which appear to have been drawn and engraved, or rather etched, by the author, who has also given a *very concise* description of the prototype of each plate. If these descriptions had been more copious in historical and descriptive detail, the work would have appeared more complete, and proved much more satisfactory to the inquiring mind. We particularly lament the brevity of description, as we are assured that the author is not only well acquainted with the antiquities of the county which he has undertaken to illustrate, but has the united advantages of that local and general knowledge, which, if properly exerted, could not fail to give interest to the subject, and gratification to the reader. We have already remarked, in our account of Mr. Rudge's History, that Gloucestershire is peculiarly rich in ecclesiastical antiquities: yet, though much has been published on its topography, its ancient architecture has never been satisfactorily described or displayed. Mr. Lysons (who appears to be a native of the county) has undertaken to effect the latter; and we cannot help expressing a wish, that he may soon furnish us with the former. In an advertisement, he states, that "This work is not offered to the public as a complete collection of

the antiquities of Gloucestershire, I trust nevertheless it will be found to contain a considerable portion of them. I have endeavoured to select such specimens as show the greatest variety of styles of architecture, as well in ecclesiastical, as in other edifices. The plates, which I have etched from my own drawings, do not pretend to the character of finished engravings; I nevertheless flatter myself, that the manner in which they are executed will not be thought wholly inadequate to the subjects."

In examining the contents of this volume, we find them very miscellaneous. Views of churches, interior and exterior, with detached parts and ornaments; various specimens of stained glass windows; fonts; mansion-houses; castles; abbeys; and fragments of antiquity, constitute the objects of representation. Some of these are drawn and etched with great taste, and appear to be portraits of curious subjects, and therefore highly interesting; but others have no particular feature of importance, or excellence of execution, to recommend them. We think that the author might also have given an arrangement to the subjects, or classed them in some order. Mr. Lysons, as "director" of the society of antiquaries, should set a worthy example to that body, and to all students in the science, of strict accuracy in the application of terms, of vigorously opposing vulgar prejudices, and a cautious solicitude to embellish, and give importance to those antiquarian works

that come individually from him, or from the society under his direction. Wishing to see all the officers of that institution laudably zealous in the cause of our national antiquities, we shall always feel a pleasure in earnestly recommending and praising their useful works. The volume now under consideration will not permit us to offer specimens to the reader, as it consists wholly of plates, with short annexed descriptions; but those who are partial to the subject, can-

not fail to derive from it much amusement and gratification.

We cannot conclude these remarks, without suggesting to Mr. Lysons the impropriety of using the term *Gothic*, after the public notice the antiquarian society has given of discontinuing that word entirely.

See the History of Durham Cathedral, also a volume of Essays on "*Gothic Architecture*," published by Mr. Taylor, Holborn. 8vo. 1802.

ART. XXIV. *Munimenta Antiqua; or, Observations on Ancient Castles. Including Remarks on the whole Progress of Architecture, ecclesiastical, as well as military, in Great Britain; and on the corresponding Changes in Manners, Laws, and Customs. Tending both to illustrate modern History; and to elucidate many interesting Passages in various ancient classic Authors.* By EDWARD KING, Esq. F.R.S. and A.S. Vol. III. folio. pp. 276.

THIS volume being only a *middle part* of a large work, we shall merely announce it to the reader at present, and reserve to ourselves the privilege of analyzing and investigating the whole, when the fourth volume is published, which we are informed will be in the course of the present year. In the preface to the first volume, Mr. King intimated his intention of completing the work in four volumes, which, if he accomplishes, we shall then be enabled to view, and examine it as a whole, when we can better decide on what he "has done, and what he has left undone."

Two things we wish however to recommend to him before we part. First,

to be more careful and select in the choice of his illustrative prints, and in the execution of them. Secondly, to adapt his remarks and dissertations more immediately to the subjects specified in his title page. Long and desultory observations on passages of scripture, and of the poets, with extremely incorrect engravings, cannot be very satisfactory to those historians or antiquaries who purchase the "*Munimenta Antiqua*," especially if they expect to find in it profound "observations on ancient castles, on the progress of ecclesiastical and military architecture in Great Britain," and on "the manners, laws, and customs" of its inhabitants.

ART. XXV. *Letters written during a Tour through SOUTH WALES, in the Year 1803, and at other Times; containing Views of the History, Antiquities, and Customs of that Part of the Principality; and interspersed with Observations on its Scenery, Agriculture, Botany, Mineralogy, Trade, and Manufactures.* By the Rev. J. EVANS, B. A. late of Jesus College, Oxon. Author of *Letters written during a Tour through North Wales*. 8vo. pp. 449.

WHEN we reflect on the multiplicity of works that have been expressly published concerning the principality of Wales, we feel some degree of surprise to find others annually issuing from the press. Yet, among the number that have hitherto appeared, there are but few calculated to preserve, or even obtain a station in a well-selected library; some being extremely defective and trifling, others mostly confined to one favorite object, and some filled with the personal adventures and opinions of the author.

In a volume of local or general topography, we can never countenance the gossip of a novel, or the bombast of ro-

mance. That kind of information, which is truly useful and valuable, is the object of our inquiry, what we deem the great essential of literary investigation, and such as we can alone recommend and applaud in works of this class. Truth should be the ultimate object of all inquiry, and whoever prefers the gaudy trappings of fiction to her neat and becoming garb, is deserving the most unequivocal censure. We have unfortunately met with such tourists, and therefore feel additional delight in reading and recommending one whose works are so diametrically opposite. The tours of Mr. Evans (for by the above title, it will

be seen that he has published two) are replete with every species of amusing and interesting information. With a cultivated mind, and enlarged views of nature, he writes with ability on most subjects. In civil, ecclesiastical, and natural history, in antiquities, agriculture, biography, &c. he appears well read and well informed. In descanting on all those and other subjects he possesses the happy powers of writing with energy, elegance, and peripatetic. The reader is imperceptibly led on from one object to another, and enticed to a partiality for a subject, although, perhaps, in opposition to his prepossessed sentiments. The annals of antiquity have generally been stigmatised as dull, and repulsive to enlightened curiosity. When marked out by the leaden pens of some antiquaries, they certainly have appeared so, but the enlightening and cheerful style of Mr. Evans strikes out such new lights as cannot fail to amuse and interest almost every reader.

The volume before us embraces a tract of country often traversed and often described: yet a complete picture of the whole has never yet been given to the public. From the simple manners of the inhabitants, the originality of their language, and their tenacity of ancient customs, Wales has been exempt from those vicissitudes which so often happen in other countries, whose ever-varying face furnishes continual matter for the observant traveller or artist; and frequent revolutions for the mannerist and politician. Yet such is the variety of its scenery, the richness of its productions, remains of antiquity, and historic importance, that it involves a multiplicity of interesting objects, highly deserving the minutest detail. The field is extensive, its scenery is varied and captivating, its external and internal character is interesting, but the time generally allotted for its survey has been too short. Besides, every tourist is usually content with describing those objects which most readily present themselves, and make such observations as are most congenial with their respective tastes, and suggested by their previous habits of thinking. Hence, though every traveller may add something, yet he leaves subjects for his successor in the route, who sees, or fancies that he sees, objects unobserved, or imperfectly described, be-

fore; and the last gleanings, if not more copious, are often more exquisite in their flavour, than the first products of the vintage. Wales too, it has justly been observed, is an historic country, and he who is best acquainted with ancient records must be best adapted to describe its most interesting scenes: local description engaging our attention in proportion as the places described have been the theatre of great or remarkable events.

Mr. Evans must not be ranked in the number of fire-side travellers; he must have seen what he describes, and his descriptions are generally pertinent and just. Though the ground he goes over has much of it been visited by preceding tourists, yet he sees objects in a different point of view; and to those who have visited the places mentioned, the delineations will appear strikingly accurate. Mr. Evans looks at nature with the eye of a philosopher, and at the country with that of a patriot. He investigates the soil, both on and beneath the surface, points out the latent treasures of this neglected part of the empire, the poverty of its inhabitants, the obvious causes, and the effectual remedies. His remarks upon some former tourists are apparently severe; and, we were going to say, illiberal, till we recollected that a topographer may direct or mislead thousands, and that every inaccurate description, or hasty conclusion cannot be too severely reprehended. He does not, however, withhold the meed of praise where he thinks it due.

The author's historical remarks are valuable; he appears to be thoroughly acquainted with British and English collateral history. When on these topics, his mind seems to rise with his subject; and, sensible of its great importance, he dismisses all partiality, lashes injustice or barbarity in either party, and, with a noble independence, which scorns the most distant idea of compromise, extenuation, or state policy, sacrifices every thing at the shrine of truth.

His benevolent advice, with respect to the amelioration of the country, will, we hope, be taken into due consideration; and we wish all travellers, like Mr. Evans, would consider it their duty "to benefit the country they visit, while they labour to accumulate advantages for their own."

The tourist commences his route at Bristol, whence he goes by water to the New Passage, and lands at Portscewit; thence he visits Sudbrook camp, Caldecot-castle, Caerwent, Caerleon, Newport, Goldcliff, Caerdiff, Llandaff, Pont y Prydd, Myrther Tydvil, Caerphili-castle, Island of Barry, Fonmon, Llan lled, St. Donats, Dunraven, Ewenny-abbey, Newton, Margam, Aberavon, Briton-ferry, Neath, Pont Nedd Vychan, Swansea, Gower, Penrice-castle, Lychwr, Llanelli, Cidwelli, Caer Cennin, Caermarthen, Gronger-hill, Dinevor, Laugharne, Tenby, Pembroke, Haverfordwest, St. David's, Fishguard, Newport, Cardigan, Cilgerran, New Castle Emlin, Aber Porth, New Quay, Aber-airon, Llanrysted, Aberystwith, Llanbeder, Pont-armynac, Strata Florida, Llanwrtd Wells, Llanymdoverly, Trecastle, Brecknock, Abergavenny, Clytha, Ragland, Strygil-castle, and then passes over the Severn at Beachly.

From hence it will appear that his route comprehends the principal places in the counties of Monmouth, Glamorgan, Caermarthen, Pembroke, Cardigan, Brecknock, and part of Radnor.

A specimen is afforded us (p. 21) of what the reader may expect in the course of this entertaining tour.

"Returning to our boat, and dropping with the ebb round the point, into a small bay to the southward, we anchored near in shore; and, under the hospitable shelter of the promontory, partook of a repast with the relish afforded by a good appetite. On the turn of tide we pursued our little voyage, passing a small bare rock, the Denny, standing at the head of an extensive sand bank, called the Welch Hook, and to which it forms an admonitory beacon.

"The finny tribes were now in pleasing pastime; and among them the plunderer of the ocean, the porpoise, was playing his gambols with unusual rapidity. This, which afforded us pleasure, had a contrary effect upon the minds of our boatmen. The appearance of this fish is considered an unfavourable omen by mariners, and from their numbers and frolics, a storm was foreboded. We began to consider a small open boat but ill-calculated to weather a storm in the boisterous Severn sea. The morning was serene, and the water as placid as the day was fine; but we had forgotten that the present is no security for the future; and that in voyager, as in life, we should be equally prepared for adverse, as well as prosperous fortune. For though a calm does not forebode, it generally

is soon succeeded by winds and storms. The sea became rougher and rougher, and the hoarse noise of impetuous waves contending with opposing obstacles increased our alarm, and reminded us of our danger. As we approached, we discovered this to be occasioned by two reefs of rocks running almost across, leaving only a narrow channel sufficient for vessels to pass, which are bare at low, and covered at high water. At half ebb, or half flood, the best times for passing, the whole body of the estuary rushes between them with an impetuosity and thundering noise almost inconceivable. The least want of skill or care would be inevitable loss to ship and crew. This difficult and dangerous passage is called the Shoots, probably from the rapidity with which vessels necessarily pass it. While congratulating ourselves on a safe passage through the Shoots, we could not help lamenting an act of atrocious cruelty, which a sight of the spot where it was committed, brought strongly to our recollection. At a small distance is the principal and most frequented ferry into Wales, called the New Passage, belonging to the respectable family of St. Pierre. A suit in chancery, between the duke of Beaufort and Mr. Lewis, respecting the right of property, brought to light the following curious incident, in the life of king Charles I.

"His majesty leaving Ragland-castle to visit his garrison at Bristol, had to cross at this passage; as he rode through the village of Shire Newton to go to the Black Rock, he was discovered and pursued by a foraging party of horse, belonging to the rebel army then encamped in the neighbourhood. About an hour after his majesty had embarked, sixty of the rebels arrived, and drawing their swords on the boatmen, forced them on board one of the passage boats; and, by menaces, obliged them to engage in ferrying them over. The boatmen being loyal, and irritated by the manner in which their assistance was demanded, landed them at the Reef of Rocks, on the Gloucestershire side of the Shoots, called the English Stones; and which are separated from the land by a channel fordable at low water; but the tide now rapidly flowing, prevented their retreat, and they all perished! Cromwell, hearing of it, suppressed the ferry, which was not again re-opened till 1718, when the right of property was confirmed to the claimant, Mr. Lewis, by a commission of the high court of chancery."

After successfully defending the existence of king Arthur, against the objections of Milton and lord Lytleton, the author justly animadverts on a transaction in the reign of Henry II. on which the English historians appear to have been studiously silent.

"The castle of Newcastle is, however,

most notorious for the dastardly conduct of its garrison in the time of Henry II. On his return from the continent, after having deprived Jorwerth-ap-Owen of his lawful possessions, the king found him now so formidable as to be under the necessity of negotiating a peace with the prince he had so lately dethroned. To effect this, he sent a safe passage to Jorwerth and his sons, to meet him at a conference on the borders. Informed that Owen, the eldest son of Jorwerth, was on the road to meet his father, the English garrison in Newport sallied forth, and murdered the young prince and valiant chieftain, attended only by a few servants, *as he was going to sign a treaty of peace with their sovereign*. If, after what had passed between the Welsh princes and the English monarch, Henry had any previous knowledge of this treacherous transaction; or if, as has been stated, it was done at his instigation, and by his command, it not only marks a cruel and mistaken policy for the subjugation of the Welsh; but leaves an indelible stain on the moral character of Henry, which no state logic can justify, nor time efface. What on such an occasion might have been foreseen, instantly took place: when the poignant tale of grief reached the ears of Jorwerth, he broke off the conference, and returned with his younger son Howel, to lay before his subjects and adherents, the irreparable injury he had sustained. The Welsh, fired at the base perfidy of the English, rallied round his standard, and, breathing revenge and retaliation, entered the marches, and with fire and sword carried devastation and dismay to the banks of the Severn and the Wye; to the gates of Hereford and Gloucester. By this impolitic step Henry effectually transformed an ally into a most formidable antagonist, and was compelled to restore to him both his territory and his diadem."

An egregious error of Camden in his *Britannia* is corrected in p. 89, who makes Sangennith and Caerphili castles to be the same. But Mr. Evans clearly proves that Sangennith-castle existed previously to the building of Caerphili, is before that period mentioned in history, was situated in a different commote, and that ruins of the building are still to be seen where the lesser Taaffe falls into the greater. After giving a circumstantial detail of the immense pile Caerphili, he thus calls our attention to reflection on its history.

"Such are the changes of this transitory state. This castle, that has witnessed its lords living in regal splendor, exercising the most despotic power, paid the most abject submission, and basking in the sun-shine of fortune, has again seen them suddenly cast down from their envied elevation, and experiencing the sad reverse of their former greatness; their conduct loaded with reproach,

and their persons with execration, retiring under the strength of its walls for refuge from the persecution of those very persons who recently were desirous of their friendship, and lavish in their adulation. It has seen a monarch, the son and heir of him whose ambition it was to subjugate Wales, and by whose prowess it was annexed to the crown of England—a monarch who ascended the throne crowned with the laurels and the victories of his father, now flying to the very people so outrageously injured for protection persecuted by his enemies, and betrayed by his friends. And this proud and long important fortress, after thus for ages being the theatre of no common scenes, now itself sunk into insignificance, and witnessing its own decay. A few goats browsing on the bushes that vegetate in the crevices of its walls, served to point out its desertion.

"Thus do these ivied-mantled ruins,

"Like hoary-headed age, nod o'er their own decay."

"The histories of castles, towns, and nations; the history of man, are nothing but the records of human calamities, the registers of human woes. These, however, we shall find are generally provoked by vices, and lead to the growth of virtue. Trials are calculated to invigorate the mind, previously weakened by inactivity and ease; and by a forcible appeal to the heart, they assert the power, while they fan the flame of religion, fast extinguishing in the sensuality of prosperity and peace. The convulsions of nature and the enormities of man, the war of elements and the subversion of states, are admirably directed by the controuling power and influence of providence, for the great purpose of supporting the moral interests of the world, and impressing the mind with the truths of the gospel."

At Llanilted several monumental stones are mentioned in addition to those noticed by Camden; and a pedestrian tourist is animadverted upon for mistaking British for Danish monuments, and supposing learned christian inscriptions to have been the work of ignorant pagans; such as the Danes evidently were when they made irruptions into this country.

At Newton an extraordinary phenomenon is noticed: a spring called Sandford's well, whose waters *sink with a flood and rise with an ebbing tide*. And it is observed, that all the wells sunk in the vicinity are possessed of a similar property. But we were surprised to find the author, who seldom observes any phenomenon without endeavouring to account for it, passing over this with a quotation from Polybius, who mentions a similar spring at Cadiz, containing a dark and totally unsatisfactory explanation.

tion even in the author's view. Such springs, though rare, are not so uncommon as has been represented; similar ones are to be found at Ballingdon and Bright-helmstone, in Devonshire and Derbyshire, &c. and as the aspect and contiguous lands are nearly alike as to elevation, accounting for one will give a satisfactory solution of the other. The land above Brighton rises into high chalk downs (those of Newton are limestone) with a gradual declivity towards the sea. The surface-water sinks down, and passing through permeable strata is buoyed up by clay, and appears in natural springs on the sea-shore, between the separation of rounded stones and sand; at a little more than quarter-tide mark. Every tide the sea covers this line, so that the fresh water is prevented from escaping, and consequently the water is accumulating, and the springs or wells at a distance fill while the tide is partially retiring to this line; after that they will gradually decrease, while the sea is both partially retiring and advancing to the line. So that the highest state will be on a considerable ebb, and the lowest on a considerable flood. It would be desirable if Mr. Evans, in a future edition, would give an exact description of the strata, the elevation, aspect, &c. of the adjoining country, and also an accurate statement of the height of the water at the different states of tide; with the position of the natural springs apparent on the shore.

After describing the beautiful seat of lord Vernon, at Briton Ferry, the author visits the small neat church-yard of Lllansawel, which he thus pleasingly describes:

"To the south of the park, embosomed in a native grove, stands the neat church of Lllansawel. Nothing could exceed the emotions of awe and veneration excited in my mind by the air of seclusion and solemnity apparent in this sequestered place. For it is, without exception, the most desirable cemetery I ever beheld. Inclosed so as to prevent the rude tread of brutal or unhallowed feet, and undisturbed by the premature intrusion of the unfeeling sexton, the sacred ashes of the silent dead may here in rest repose. For here that posthumous respect is paid to the bodies of departed friends, consistent with the exalted hope we entertain of their being raised again, crowned with glory, and re-animated by their former inhabitants; now purified and exalted to a state agreeing with their high and heavenly descent. Few costly monuments bedeck this truly elegant depository of the dead; but a number of plain

stones, with neat inscriptions, mark the interment of departed worth; and bespeak the affection of surviving friends. Every grave is circumscribed with the most careful exactness, and Flora's gifts are taught to thrive within the neat inclosures. Foud Fancy in her decorations has assumed a variety of forms; but all are appropriate, all are strictly chaste. I feel myself among the dead: my mind is become in unison with the place: I reflect on the past; I ruminate on the present; and the future seems as though it were present with me. I appear rivetted to the spot, and my heart seems more than ever disposed to profit by the impressive lessons these funeral emblems around me are calculated to inspire."

As an instance of the author's powers of description take the following:

"If any thing could add to the inexpressible delight afforded by early rising, it is the experience of it in a richly varied country. The celebrated charms of the upper vale of the Towy had excited desires to behold them, and the eve of fruition stimulated our little party to extraordinary alacrity. At a very early hour the company was on the alert, and the refreshing breeze furnished us with a flow of spirits adapted for exertion and enjoyment. The morning was grey, and the blue mists sat close embracing the distant hills before us, while the mountains in the back ground were deeply involved in shade. The river, rolling its placid waters, gave a vivid appearance to the scene; and the umbrageous woods on the margin, contrasting their various greens with the greys of the atmosphere, displayed their foliage to advantage. All was serene and placid, a solemn silence prevailed, undisturbed by a single noise, save the twittering of the poor little chaffinch, that bespoke we might soon expect the different characters of the grove. Gradually, yet rapidly, the morning burst forth from the bosom of the mountains, in the brilliant robes of beauty; and the harbinger of day, in the most majestic splendour and unparalleled grandeur, saluted our eyes as we passed Llangynor. The sight made us blush at the recollection, how often we had neglected to avail ourselves of this noble view, and for two or three hours of debilitating indolence refused to enjoy the salubrious mom: a blessing as commonly neglected, as it is beneficially great."

The author's style is, on the whole, perspicuous and chaste. In his descriptions of beautiful and uncommon scenery, he will, perhaps, be thought by some to be too flowery and digressive; and he is not always sufficiently guarded against tautology. But this is scarcely avoidable in depicting similar scenes of romantic beauty. If he is not acquainted with the Welsh language, he must have

travelled in company with those who well understood it : for his etymologies, even when conjectural, appear simple, rational, and convincing. In short, we consider his book a valuable acquisition to our fund of topographical knowledge, but

were sorry to observe so many typographical errors, the printing and paper so indifferent, and the volume wanting an index. These defects will be obviated, we hope, in a second edition.

ART. XXVI. *A general Itinerary of England and Wales, with Part of Scotland ; containing all the direct and principal cross Roads to every City and Market Town, with the Market Days, the Names of the Inns which supply Post Horses, the Number of Houses and Inhabitants according to the Return made to Parliament, and the Distances to the nearest Market Towns to which all branching Roads lead ; with Notices of nearly ten thousand Noblemen's and Gentlemen's Seats, and other Objects worthy Attention. Arranged on a new Plan, by which every Information is given to Travellers, as the Objects occur on the respective Roads, without the Trouble of referring from one Page to another : with three copious Indexes. The whole compiled and arranged by DAVID OGILVY, jun. 12mo. pp. 297 exclusive of Indexes.*

THIS elaborate title page is not very niggard of its promises. If the reader is credulous enough to believe all that is here set forth, he will naturally expect to find it an unerring and completely satisfactory guide. Knowing that so many books have already been published on this subject, we expected to find this (being the latest) not merely more correct and satisfactory than any that had preceded it ; but containing some distinguished novelty or utility, to claim public attention. One variety it certainly has ; and also one material difference from the small volume we shall next notice. Its variation consists in the plan of arranging all places and objects, as they occur on, or by the side of the road. Had this been

executed with skill and accuracy, we should gladly have awarded to the editor the praise he deserved ; but upon comparing it with Paterson, and, what is more convincing, with our travelling memoranda, we find it replete with errors and misstatements. Books of this kind are only relatively valuable ; therefore that, which is the most minutely correct, is most useful. From a careful examination of the whole, we can safely affirm that Paterson's " Book of Roads " is still far superior to any of its competitors ; and that Ogilvy's is more likely to mislead, than rightly direct the traveller. In the third column we counted six errors, and several others, in the course of the route to Bath.

ART. XXVII. *Paterson's Roads, in a Pocket Size, for the Convenience of Travellers on Horseback ; being a new and accurate Description of all the direct and the principal cross Roads in England and Wales, and Part of Scotland : with correct Routes of the Mail Coaches ; a great Variety of new Admeasurements ; and a general Index of the Roads to the different Towns ; denoting the Counties in which they are situated, their Market-days ; and the Inns which supply Post-horses. The whole greatly augmented and improved by the Communications of Francis Freeling, Esq. Secretary to the Post-Office, and of the Surveyors of the provincial Districts, under the Authority of the Post-master General. By Lieutenant-Colonel PATERSON, Assistant Quarter-Master General of his Majesty's Forces. Crown 8vo. pp. 241.*

THIS comprehensive title page fully displays the nature of this pocket volume : which appears to us, for accuracy and perspicuity, to excel all its rivals. By the explanatory preface, this " Epitome

of Paterson's Roads " appears to have been executed by Mr. T. Keith, whose name we mentioned with commendation in our last volume, p. 420.

ART. XXVIII. *Smith's new English Atlas ; being a complete Set of County Maps divided into Hundreds ; on which are delineated all the direct and cross Roads, Part of which are from actual Measurement, Cities, Towns, and most considerable Villages, Parks, Gentlemen's Seats, Rivers and navigable Canals : preceded by a general Map of England and Wales, in which the principal Roads are carefully described for the Purpose of facilitating the Connexion of the respective Maps ; the whole accompanied by an Index Villarum,*

containing upwards of forty thousand Names of Places mentioned in the Work, with reference to their Situation. Large Folio.

AS good and correct maps are among the most important documents of geography and topography, it is a point of no small consideration that those of our own island should, at least, be very nearly accurate. To be completely so we know is almost impossible, from the continual alterations and improvements that are made in roads, canals, &c. Besides, it must be the work of time, and cannot be accomplished by an individual. No man has ever effected so much in this art, as Mr. Faden of Charing Cross, who appears to have had several of the English counties surveyed and engraved at his own expence. Some of these are executed with great skill and taste, but others are altogether as indifferent. Several of the English counties have not yet been surveyed at all, consequently we cannot expect to have them laid down even tolerably accurate in any general collection of maps. The board of ordnance having undertaken to survey, and publish a series of maps of the whole, we may be justified in expecting them not merely accurate, but executed with all the advantages which can be derived from the improved science of the age. Kent is already before the public. Essex we understand is printing; but the slow progress of this, like most other works carried on by large societies of men is a serious evil to individuals, and greatly lamented by those who wish to witness the completion of a plan begun in their younger days. As Kent was published Jan. 1801, and the second county is not yet ready, we may expect that two or three generations will pass away before the fifty-second county be published, if the subsequent maps are not executed with much greater rapidity.

In speaking of the present volume or collection, which occasioned these remarks, we must observe, that the county surveys are its only authorities, and as most of these are the private property of other tradesmen, we must conclude that they are usually disguisedly copied to

make up those sets called County Atlases. It is a common trick of map-makers to state that all their plans are framed from *actual surveys*. This species of deception however can only deceive the unwary, as a very little sagacity must detect such superficial fallacy. If we compare the first set of English county maps with the present, the great difference will excite our surprise. It appears that the former was collected and published by Christopher Saxton, (in 1574, &c.) who spent nine years in travelling over England for that purpose. These are extremely incorrect, and executed without taste or science; but what was wanting of such essentials, the projector endeavoured to make up for by care and labour. Amongst the numerous sets of county maps that have been published since the time of Saxton, the one before us is unquestionably the best, and displays more fidelity in its drawings and engravings than any of its rivals. Though we acknowledge it to be the best, we must at the same time observe, that it is very far from being accurate, or complete. Many errors appear in different counties, and we sometimes discover that particular places are omitted, and others of a very trifling import inserted. The great ridge of granite hills in Cornwall and Devon is left out, or, what is equally bad, improperly marked; and the hills of Durham are drawn in exceedingly inaccurate. The same defects we observe in some other counties. Cambridgeshire is extremely meagre in places, roads, &c. and has not the least indication of hills, though it is well known that a range of chalk hills from Bedfordshire passes across the southern side of the county. This map is singularly contrasted by those of Essex, Lancashire, and Surrey, which are completely covered and confused with dots, &c. Though we point out these defects, we recommend Mr. Smith's Atlas, as an useful appendage to the topographical and geographical library.

ART. XXIX. *England delineated.* In 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 148 and 148.

OF this paltry work the only remark which it is necessary for us to make is, that the anonymous author has unjustifiably stolen a title which had been ap-

propriated by Dr. Aikin several years ago; a new edition of whose *England delineated* was noticed in our former volume,

ART. XXX. *Select Views of London and its Environs; containing a Collection of highly finished Engravings, from original Paintings and Drawings, accompanied by copious Letter-press Descriptions of such Objects in the Metropolis, and the surrounding Country, as are most remarkable for Antiquity, architectural Grandeur, or picturesque Beauty.* Vol. I. 4to. Not paged.

"Scilicet ingenium placida mollitur ab arte,
Et studio mores convenientur eunt.

"Each pleasing art lends softness to the
mind,
And with our studies are our lives refined."

IT affords us no small degree of pleasure to examine, and give an account of such books as are justly entitled to praise. We are delighted in the progress of our task, feel our minds animated with cheerfulness as we proceed, and write each approving sentence with peculiar sensations of delight. Convinced that all men are pleased with praise, we would bestow it on each literary candidate, if we found him really deserving it. But the imperious duty of our situation demands the fullest exertion of our judgment; and we are more frequently compelled to censure than applaud. Thus the partial author deems us cynically unjust, though the impartial reader perhaps fully approves our conduct. In all human speculations man is actuated either by the "love of fame," or the "love of gain." When the former predominates, we find all his public actions tending to some laudable end; but when influenced only by the latter, we observe mercenary trick, imposition, and artifice supply the place of honest emulation. This is daily manifested in all the varied ranks of civilized society, and every trade and profession is annoyed by its peculiar pettifoggers. The polite arts, unfortunately, are not exempt from some of those men who are constantly endeavouring to impose on liberality, and who thereby ultimately entail a stigma on the profession. The honest artist should therefore not only be extremely guarded in his public works, but should decidedly discountenance every symptom of imposture.

It has been a common practice with engravers, not only of this country, but with those of Italy, France, Flanders, &c. to publish specimens of their own works. Hence we have the collected prints of a Piranisi, a Sylvestre, a Weirrotter, a Waterlo, a Della Bella, &c. on the continent, and those of Vertue, Strange, Hollar, Byrne, Milton, Middiman, and Watts, at home. The works of these artists

have been honourable monuments to their own, and their country's fame. As success generally excites rivalry, other engravers have followed one part of the example of those respectable artists: *i. e.* publishing their own plates: but unconscious of their noble zeal for fame, these have sacrificed laudable principle, for temporary interest. The names and works of such men must be too familiar with all persons acquainted with the history of the graphic art. Before the arrival of Hollar into England, engraving was scarcely known here, and indeed we find no prints previous to his time entitled to the notice of an artist. His plates are not only numerous, but most of them are touched with the hand of a master. We do not value them merely for their age, or their fidelity, but we admire them as works of art. The same may be said of the prints by Vertue, and Strange. To the late alderman Boydell the engraving of this country is principally indebted for its present importance at home, and its consequence abroad; for before the alderman had introduced the great talents of Woollet into deserved reputation, our connoisseurs (and those were very few) furnished their folios and frames with prints from the foreign market. This was at once detrimental to the commerce of England, and a reproach to its own artists. Mr. Boydell felt it, and by successful and laudable exertion has not merely given the English school of engraving a superiority over its continental rivals, but has made English prints an important article of commerce. We have been induced to make these preliminary observations as applicable to the work before us, and as naturally resulting from an examination of this, and other series of prints from professional engravers. "Select Views" are announced to be "executed in the VERY BEST style, by Messrs. Storer and Greig," who we should presume are engravers of some eminence, though we have never before had an opportunity of examining their works. As they assume great pomposity in their advertisements, and are unqualified in their professions to the public, we are induced to

investigate the work with a degree of particularity which perhaps it is not *intrinsically* entitled to, but which its title, and exterior, demands. We expected to find it replete with highly finished engravings of the most interesting and beautiful structures in London and its vicinity. A few of the plates are of this kind, and therefore entitled to our admiration and praise. But among the forty prints, we could discover only nine of this class. These are views of *St. Alban's Abbey Church*; *Interior of Crosby-Hall*; *Interior of the Hall at Eltham Palace*; *John of Eltham's Tomb*; *Interior of the great Hall at Lambeth Palace*; *View of London from Greenwich*; *Interior of Waltham Abbey Church*; *Greenwich Hospital*, and *View of Windsor Castle, from the Forest*. All these views have the merit of good drawing and engraving to recommend them; but how the same persons could suffer their names to be recorded on such plates as the following, is very surprising. *View of the Church of St. Andrew Undershaft*; *Barking*, and the *Gateway to the Abbey*; *Bow Bridge and Village*, as called, though only two or three houses are shewn; *Canonbury House*; two plates of the *Charter House*; one representing a long piece of old wall, with two *black trees*, standing as mutes to mourn its decay, or rather as mute, but expressive tokens of the engraver's want of taste: *Chingford Church*, or rather a *mass of ivy*: the *Lollard's Tower*, Lambeth Palace; a square, formal piece of brick building, with a great bole of a tree stuck in one corner of the print, throwing across some heavy branches. These appear like a natural umbrella, protecting it from a heavy storm. "*Grand West Front of St. Paul's*." Poor St. Paul is here hoodwinked by two sides of Ludgate-hill, and a broad wheel waggon, with a cockney gig-driver, are the principal objects of the scene. It is but justice to the artist however to acknowledge that he has been religiously punctual, and minutely precise, in *marking in the eyes, mouths, &c.* of the statues over the pediment of the west front. Perhaps he recollected the story of the fly criticising the workmanship in the dome of this noble structure, and therefore endeavoured to guard against such buzzing criticisms. He should rather have attended to the application of that fable, or, like the great architect, directed his efforts to the grand design of the *whole*, rather than to its *minutia*. But sir Christopher was endowed with *great ideas*.

Physicians' College should be entitled a view of shabby houses, in a filthy lane. *Sadler's Wells*; *Temple Bar*, &c. Here we pause; for we are tired to examine any more such "*Select Views*," as these. If by select, the compilers meant to choose such subjects as are totally uninteresting, unpicturesque (if we may be allowed the expression), and completely devoid of beauty, or elegance, they have superlatively succeeded. But it may be asked, is this what a country gentleman, or a foreigner would expect in purchasing such a work? Surely not. These persons would expect, as we did, to find the most *interesting* buildings of the British metropolis, represented in the best points of view, and drawn and engraved with accuracy and taste.

It remains for us now to examine, and give some account of the literary part of this volume. "No circuit of the kingdom of the same extent," says the editor, in speaking of London, "affords such advantages for the exercise, either of the pen or pencil, whether we consider it with respect to the *number, grandeur, and antiquity*, of its buildings, or the immense and *DIVERSIFIED VARIETY* of its *views*. The many excellent specimens of architecture, both ancient and modern, which abound in and about London, and the interesting historical circumstances which attach to the greater part of them, must present to the inquisitive mind a constant fund of amusement and investigation; whilst the extent of fields, gardens, mansions, and glittering spires, added to that noble accompaniment, the Thames, at almost every point of view, present its *silvery surface*, greet the admirer of *picturesque beauty* with all the *fairy visions of a Claude or Poussin*. A combination of such peculiar advantages suggested the *propriety* of the present work, the leading feature of which will be *accuracy of delineation, fidelity of description*, and a *judicious choice of subjects*. To obtain a *superiority* in these respects over *contemporary productions*, *PERSONS of TALENTS* will be employed in the different departments. The engravings will be executed *with the greatest care* by Messrs. Storer and Greig, from *original paintings and drawings*, actually taken for the work by *artists of professional eminence*, and upon a scale which will admit of making out the *architectural parts of buildings* with the *utmost precision*. The descriptions will be compiled from the *best authorities*, printed and manuscript,

compared with observation, and the public may rest assured, that not a single subject shall be described without being previously inspected." These are the *words, promises, and public declarations*, which the "editors" commence with; but, when we compare the words with the deeds, we discover a lamentable dereliction of principle. We have quoted the above, that our readers, and the editors, may plainly perceive the unequivocal import of words. The latter, we should presume, did not fully comprehend their meaning when they were written; or if they did, we are authorized to conclude, they meant to impose upon public curiosity and liberality.

We prepared an analysis of the literary part of this volume; but as, on retrospection, we cannot discover much to applaud, we will cease to reprove. If the editors feel any contrition, we hope to bear witness to their amendment in our next volume; for another part of "Select Views" is announced by the following advertisement:

After grateful acknowledgments for extraordinary patronage, &c the editors or "proprietors assure their subscribers,

that no exertions shall be omitted to render the work the most *valuable and interesting of its kind*; but as, on the plan adopted in the first volume, they are fearful it would, from its general nature, unavoidably extend to a length, *tedious to themselves* and the subscribers,* they intend to take advantage of the intimations of many who have expressed a wish, that a *greater number of subjects* should be given, by treating of them *more concisely* in the letter press. By adopting this hint they will be enabled to comprise in two volumes, (which will complete the work), a *considerable number of views*, which, on the former plan, must have been omitted; and, as many subjects remarkable for antiquity may be executed in a style, to correspond with the dilapidation they have sustained, an opportunity will be given to bestow a *higher finish* on those that particularly require it." This very *perspicuous* extract will afford the reader (if he chooses to exercise his sagacity) a subject to ruminate on. We have endeavoured to comprehend the writer's meaning; but, finding it "above the stretch of thought," shall patiently wait for "the evidence of facts."

* This is a species of logic quite novel to us: for we cannot comprehend how a work that is the "*most valuable and interesting of its kind*," should be *tedious* to the proprietors, or to the public.

CHAPTER VI.

EDUCATION AND SCHOOL-BOOKS.

THE last year has only produced one small volume, which can be referred to the theory or practice of education ; but some useful additions have been made to the stock of books intended for the instruction and amusement of youth. Miss Edgeworth's Popular Tales deserve the foremost rank, on account of their extraordinary merit, both with regard to style, invention, and tendency. Mrs. Smith's Conversations may also be put into the hands of young people to their profit and entertainment. Mr. Holland's Essays on Ancient History deserve praise ; and will be found well calculated for impressing the leading facts with accuracy and energy. The Book of Trades has the merit of novelty ; and is, besides, very respectably executed. For other publications of inferior consequence or merit, we refer the reader to the succeeding articles, in which they are particularly described.

ART. I. *Thoughts on the Education of those who imitate the great, as affecting the female Character.* 12mo. pp. 110.

THE manuscript of this little volume was found among the papers of a well-wisher to the cause of religion and of moral order, who, after the perusal of Mrs. More's Reflections on the Manners of the Great, was strengthened in the

opinion, that the next evil to forming bad morals and manners, is imitating those that have already such. It is a very sensible little book, but published at a most unreasonable price.

ART. II. *Essays on History ; particularly the Jewish, Assyrian, Persian, Grecian, and Roman ; with Examinations, for the Use of young Persons.* By JOHN HOLLAND. 8vo. pp. 405.

IT has been asserted by Dr. John Blair, author of the Chronological Tables, that the generality of readers acquire their historical knowledge by such unconnected parcels, as they are seldom able clearly to put together ; and that the conspiracy of Cataline in particular, is by great numbers conceived to be prior in time to the Jugurthine war, because it is placed before it in our editions of Sallust. Though we can scarcely believe that so gross a mistake is frequently made, we have no reason to doubt the general truth of Dr. Blair's complaint. We know, indeed, that the historical epitomes of Eutropius, Florus, and Justin, are read in most of our grammar-schools ; and that the more finished and diffuse works of Livy and Tacitus, Herodotus and Thucydides, are pretty generally introduced to the knowledge of the higher

classes ; but, as the attention of the pupil is chiefly directed to the acquisition of the language in its grammatical purity ; and as, for the sake of obtaining a just pronunciation, the poets are most frequently preferred to the prose writers, a considerable proficiency in historical knowledge is not to be expected from our common course of early education ; and it is, we apprehend, generally found, that no regular view of the principal facts in their real order of succession is at all formed : and yet who does not perceive that the orations of Demosthenes and Cicero must be very imperfectly understood, without some previous acquaintance with the transactions of the times which called forth the extraordinary powers of those illustrious statesmen, and that the poems of Horace and Virgil must be read with much less inte-

rest by those who are strangers to the politics and leading characters of the Augustan age? It seems, therefore, unaccountable, that a manual of history written in the English language, is not always put into the hands of youth as one of their first elementary books, and as no less essential to their future progress than their accidence and grammar. The difficulty of executing such a work, so as to unite clearness of arrangement with a comprehensive view of every important event, and so as to render the narrative sufficiently entertaining, without sacrificing the necessary conciseness, has probably been one of the chief causes of the neglect. In some measure to supply the want, the late learned Dr. Gregory Sharp translated into English baron Holberg's Introduction to General History; but, notwithstanding the additions and improvements made by him in his second edition, it is a meagre, and not very instructive, performance. We have the pleasure to observe, that the work now before us is much better adapted to the purpose. The author presents it to the public under the modest title of *Essays on History*; and, in one respect, the designation is judiciously chosen; for it often appears more in the form of dissertation than of regular narrative. But this, in our estimation, is a prime excellence, as it is thus made the vehicle of much important moral instruction. Written professedly for the young, it contains not only a succinct relation of the prominent facts in the history of each country, but offers also to the notice of its readers much incidental information, and particularly assists them in making such reflections on characters and events, as will give a just direction to their ideas, and render history, what it ought always to be, an incentive and a guide to right conduct.

Mr. Holland is a Christian on the full conviction of his understanding, and with the warm consent of his heart. As such he has drawn all his sentiments from the pure fountain-head of revealed religious truth, and has formed all his views of the perpetual revolutions in human affairs, from that display of the divine government which is given to the world in the books of the Old and New Testament. He has not, like some modern writers of history who ought to have known and felt better, conducted his narrative as if he thought that the strict morality of the gospel may, in some degree, be laid

aside when men are acting on the large scale of national interests: but has, on the contrary, disdained to varnish over the intrigues of statesmen with the specious colouring of political wisdom, or to dress out the destroyers of mankind with the gaudy plumes of the hero. In his relation of events he has not neglected to mark their connection with the history of religion; and has frequently noticed their subservience to establish the divine origin of the Jewish and Christian systems. There are, indeed, a few passages in his account of the earliest ages of the world which are equally liable to be misunderstood by the ignorant and misrepresented by the prejudiced. We refer to those in which he intimates an uncertainty with respect to the accuracy of some particulars in the Book of Genesis. As they are not necessarily connected with the design of the work, and may be better explained to the student in a more advanced period of his education, it is, perhaps, to be wished that they had been entirely omitted. Or if his high-toned soul would not allow him either to conceal, or to disguise, what he sincerely deems to be truth, it would have been well if he had subjoined a few sentences to point out the difference between the essence of a divine revelation, and the history of the manner in which that revelation was published, of the circumstances with which it was attended, and of the evidence by which it was established. These may certainly be related by an honest eye-witness, or transcribed from authentic records, without the aid of supernatural inspiration. And though the narrative should occasionally betray a want of acquaintance with natural science, and should have in it the appearance of a few mistakes in minute points, which have no immediate relation to religious faith and moral practice, its general credibility will by no means be impeached, nor will the authority of the revelations which it professes to communicate be at all lessened. When this matter is properly explained, we can assert without fear of contradiction, that the most scrupulous parent will have no reason to apprehend, from the use of these *Essays*, the infusion of any sentiment into the youthful mind, unfavourable to the purity of christian morals, or the decisions of a sound judgment. We know not, indeed, whether we should not have condemned in more

pointed terms the assassination of Julius Cæsar, on the principle of general consequences, even though we were not, as we confess we are, rather inclined to adopt a more rigid and determinate system of ethics. But Mr. Holland shall speak for himself.

"Whether the maxim of Brutus, that 'they who act contrary to law, and cannot be brought to trial for their tyranny, ought to be assassinated,' was a sufficient justification of him for effecting the death of Cæsar, it may not be easy to decide. Certainly, however, it was the best palliation of a deed, which reason may condemn, humanity censure, but which was approved by every one of the conspirators to his dying hour.

"It has been doubted, whether Cicero was made acquainted with the conspiracy against Cæsar before the execution. He was, however, then in the senate, and immediately on the death of the dictator, Brutus called Tully the father and saviour of his country, and claimed his countenance and aid. Without doubt, Cicero did not condemn the conspiracy. For he attended the conspirators into the capitol, he assisted them with his counsels, and only professed to lament that the life of Antony had been spared. Him the orator regarded as the child of more subtle, more profligate ambition, and pursued him with such unrelenting hatred, as produced at first the defeat of the general, but finally occasioned the destruction of Tully. Though Cicero certainly condemned the usurpation of Cæsar, yet either the clemency or the attention of the conqueror had subdued his enmity, restrained his open opposition, or he entertained the vain and feeble hope, that the dictator would restore liberty to his country.

"The history of Brutus and Cassius after Cæsar's death was a striking, yet melancholy proof, that when wrong means are adopted, even for the best ends, the mind often becomes less scrupulous in its mode of conduct, and may be led into measures similar to what it originally condemned. If it be true, that whilst Brutus abhorred tyranny, Cassius hated only the tyrant, the rapacious cruelty of the latter to the inhabitants of Rhodes need not be a subject of surprise. But that the brave citizens of Xanthus, in Lycia, should, by the more humane and philosophical Brutus, be driven to such despair in defence of their liberty as to prefer death to slavery, cannot so easily be accounted for, unless by the supposition, that even the most liberal and enlightened Romans thought themselves only worthy of freedom, and regarded all other nations as barbarians, doomed to be their tributaries, or their slaves.—During the siege, the Xanthians attempted to retreat to the mountains, but they were driven back by their merciless and revengeful enemies. Like the Numantines, therefore, they set fire to their city and devoted them-

selves to destruction. When Brutus beheld the conflagration, he relented,—but it was too late! Only one hundred and fifty Xanthians were snatched from the flames. To the inhabitants of Patara he was more merciful, and so gained their hearts by restoring to them their wives, whom he had captured, without requiring any ransom, that they surrendered unconditionally to his power. Brutus and Cassius, however, it has been argued, were so ill supplied from Rome with the means of maintaining their soldiers, that in defence of themselves and of their cause, they were obliged to adopt methods which they might not otherwise have approved. The Epicurean principles of Cassius might not render him less scrupulous than Brutus in the means which he used for the promotion of his interest; but, when his pleasure only was concerned, it has been observed to his honour, that he was a Stoic in practice, and that he was always ready to surrender his personal advantage or enjoyment to the public good.

"But whatever were the merits or demerits of the conspirators against Julius Cæsar, (though probably they were influenced by better motives than their enemies imputed to them, but not by such pure and incontestible principles as were ascribed to them by their friends), yet since few of them died a natural death, their melancholy fate is, perhaps, another proof, that: even the best of causes are often unattended with success, unless righteous measures are used."

The teacher of history will derive no little advantage from the questions annexed to each essay. They are almost without exception so contrived as not to suggest the required answer by the terms in which they are expressed: an excellence which those who have leisure to make the experiment will soon find no easy acquisition. As a specimen we shall select the last section.

"What, according to Sir Isaac Newton, is the average length of a monarch's reign? What was that of the Byzantine emperors? By whose, and what calculation is it proved? What conclusion may hence be drawn? What is the moral observation of the historian? How, and on whom had the empire been frequently bestowed before the time of Constantine? What other methods did the ambitious often adopt? What else had an influence in changing the imperial succession?"

The work is written in a neat perspicuous style, well adapted to its design, though we have remarked a few instances of inaccuracy and oversight. The second sentence of the introduction, for example, is either left imperfect, or we do not understand the grammatical construction. The word *denoting* is, in

one place, used instead of *degrading*, with which it certainly is not synonymous. The conjunction *however* is sometimes either awkwardly placed, or inserted where the sense does not require, and the phraseology would be better without it. But these and other similar little imperfections, the author's good sense and taste will readily enable him to correct in a future edition. We have been the more particular in directing his attention to them, because we are convinced that if youth be carefully confined to the use of good models, they will early acquire, by the natural influence of uniformly repeated associations, that correct, clear and elegant style, which an acquaintance with the theory of language will afterwards confirm, but which, if not early acquired, no future knowledge of grammatical rules will perfectly produce.

Mr. Holland has inadvertently stated Mount Ararat to be in Asia Minor, part of the present Turkey in Europe; whereas it is in the ancient Armenia, and in modern times has belonged to Persia. There are also some omissions, which, we doubt not, will hereafter be supplied. The kingdom of Syria is slightly mentioned in the essay on the Jewish history, but is entirely passed over in its proper place, the account of the intricate period which succeeded the death of Alexander the Great. The first settlement of the Vandals in Africa is left in the same manner without explanation. The origin and extensive prevalence of slavery, the change of the ancient Grecian

kingdoms into republics, and the state of parties, which was the real, though not ostensible cause of the Peloponnesian war, should, we think, have been briefly developed. We will still further venture to intimate to the able and excellent author, that the usefulness of his work will be greatly increased by the introduction of a formal technical chronology. He has with great judgment recommended the use of Dr. Grey's artificial memory, which has not obtained a regard equal to its merits. We once knew an old clergyman who was celebrated among his brethren for his ready recollection of dates: but, as he himself candidly acknowledged, there was nothing extraordinary in the case; for having learnt, when a boy, the numeral terminations of the *Memoria Technica*, they had become so closely associated in his mind with the names themselves, that he was in no more danger of forgetting the signification of one than the spelling of the other. Dr. Grey's words are not always judiciously selected: but the principles of the art are of such easy application, that new ones may be formed at pleasure. If the history of the ancient nations were broken into proper periods, and numeral syllables adapted to them, little more would be wanting to initiate young persons into the elements of this pleasing and useful, but as it is generally managed, perplexing branch of knowledge. We shall be happy to see the plan completed by a similar volume on modern history.

ART. III. *The Travels of Rolando; containing, in a supposed Tour round the World, authentic Descriptions of the Geography, Natural History, Manners, and Antiquities of various Countries. Translated from the French of L. F. JAUFRÉ. In 4 vols. 12mo.*

GEOGRAPHY and Chronology have been aptly called the eyes of history. Without them the student proceeds blindfold on his way: all before and all about him is dark and intricate, puzzled in mazes and perplexed with errors. Their first rudiments can, therefore, scarcely have too early a place in the system of juvenile education. In the preceding article we have expressed a wish that the sensible and acute author of the *Essays on Ancient History* may, in a future edition, bestow a more particular attention to the latter. Mr. Jaufré, who has written other valuable works for the use of young persons, has, in that now before us, furnished an

amusing introduction to the former. It does not come before the public in the form of a regular treatise; but it is on that account more likely to effect its professed design. "Geography," as is justly observed by the translator, "is, to a very young scholar, commonly one of the most irksome of his studies. It requires from him the most fatiguing exercise of memory; and of its future utility he can scarcely form an idea." It is, therefore, desirable to postpone, for the employment of a more advanced understanding, the natural divisions of the globe, as they are produced by the position of oceans, mountains, and rivers; and the fluctuating ones, which arise

from the growth and decline of kingdoms, with all the varieties of political constitution, as they proceed either from the experienced wisdom of professed legislators, or the fortuitous combination of undesigning causes; and to select such particulars concerning the manners and natural productions of different nations, as cannot fail to please and to instruct the opening mind. For this purpose the relations of enlightened travellers, which intermingle with useful information a certain proportion of interesting adventure, have been found the most beneficial, because they are the most attractive. But as they all more or less introduce subjects which are above the comprehension, or improper for the eyes of youth, the substitution of a fictitious narrative, founded in all its material parts on the basis of real travels, has been judged to be still more advantageous.

Rolando, the principal personage of the work, is taken, on his passage from Marseilles to Beucaire, by an Algerine corsair, and shipwrecked on the coast of Morocco, where he continues some time in the capacity of a slave; having obtained his freedom, he visits Algiers, Egypt, Arabia, the Cape of Good Hope and Batavia, and after numerous hair-breadth escapes, is left in a very interesting state of his affairs, just landed on one of the Maldivé Islands. The narrative is broken off thus abruptly, because the translator, in the present relative situation of England and France, has not been able to obtain the remainder of the work, nor even to learn whether it be yet completed. The materials, as far as they comprize matters of fact, are taken from the writings of approved travellers, and a very liberal use has been made of Niebuhr, Bruce, and Vaillant. The imaginary adventures are carried on by the means of a physician, a geographer, a naturalist, an antiquary, a merchant, a hunter, a bon vivant, and some other less strongly marked characters, who become accidentally associated with Rolando. The plan is well conceived, but we do not think it executed in all respects with equal felicity. Instead of making these companions in travel harmoniously pursue their respective favourite inquiries, which would have given the author an opportunity of impressing the unexperienced mind with a lively sense of the advantages obtained by general society, from the different

talents and tastes of different individuals, he has rather attributed to them the foibles and follies of the pretender, than the well-directed study and nice discrimination which characterise the man of real science. As he has drawn them they are the objects of ridicule, not of esteem; and the disputes in which they are perpetually made to engage, though too just a representation of that narrow-minded attachment to one branch of knowledge, and that sovereign contempt of almost all others, which so generally disgrace the literary world, are related in a manner which has not much, if any, tendency to remove the evil. We readily allow that the work, in this mode of conducting it, becomes more spirited and entertaining; for where is there an eye which, from the first dawn of childhood to the last glimmering twilight of old age, is not delighted with the exhibition of folly? And we are equally disposed to admit that what appears to us an imperfection in the execution of the design, may be easily remedied by a judicious parent or instructor, and may even be rendered the means of placing this common error in a stronger light, and of recommending a more liberal turn of mind with greater effect.

The translation is what comparatively few translations are, but what, as we have already stated, all books intended for young persons ought to be, remarkably pure and elegant; and with respect to the accuracy of the scientific terms, we are told that assistance has been obtained from books and friends, which is not enjoyed by every translator. As a fair specimen of the spirit of the original and the style of the translation, we have extracted the following adventure of Montval, the naturalist, somewhat abridged.

"Montval took advantage of our stay among the Houtniquas, to increase the collection that he proposed to carry to the Cape. He asked the farmer a great many questions respecting the natural productions of this country, and neglected no means of procuring certain information of every thing that he desired to know. "Can you tell," he asked the good old man, "whether I could be so fortunate as to find in this part a bird little known which lives on serpents?"

"I am acquainted with it," replied the farmer. "It is a bird equally considerable in size and remarkable in appearance. It is of the height of a crane, and the bulk of a turkey."—"Yes, at least so some authors say: but I wish personally to assure myself

of the truth of this ; for there is still a most embarrassing uncertainty attached to the natural history of this bird. Some ascribe to it the long, slender legs of a wading bird ; others give it the head of an eagle with the body of a crane or stork : some make it a kind of vulture, others a kind of hawk. There are some even who give it the beak of the gallinaceous tribe. All these doubts ought at length to be cleared up ; and for that purpose I must myself examine one of these singular birds. By what name is it known in this country ?”

—“ The Dutch have given it the name of *Secretary-bird*, on account of a tuft of feathers on the back part of its head ; for in Holland, when men of business are interrupted at their writing, they stick their pen in their hair behind their right ear, which looks something like the crest of this bird ; but it is also known under the name of *Slang-eater*, which means Serpent-eater.”

“ Montval continued to question the farmer, who promised to take him the next day to a place not far off, where he had sometimes met with secretary-birds :

“ We must set out very early,” said he, “ for it is an extremely suspicious and cunning bird, and very difficult to catch. The fowler must employ stratagem to get near it. As it usually frequents one particular place, when he has observed a bird that he likes, he must repair thither before day-break, conceal himself in a very thick bush, and remain there till it offers itself in a favourable position to be shot.

Montval and the farmer accordingly set off early the next day, but after waiting for two hours to no purpose, the farmer grew weary and left Montval alone, who at length had the satisfaction to see a secretary-bird engaged with a serpent : the battle was keen on both sides and the skill equal ; but the bird was finally victorious.

“ At this moment Montval, who had no further observations to make, and ardently desired to possess himself of the bird, in order to study it with care, and make out a complete description of it, fired a shot at it. He thought at first that he had killed it, and ran to seize his prey ; but just as he was going to catch hold of it, the bird, which was only wounded, rose upon its legs, and ran off so swiftly that Montval could not keep up with it. Happily the bird stumbled, and the naturalist ran to take advantage of the accident. He had already prepared to fire a second shot, when he saw it take a flight, and light upon an old tree at a little distance. Montval approached on tip-toe with his gun against his cheek, and six times made the circuit of the tree without discovering the serpent-eater. He then thought of Le Vaillant, and found some resemblance between his adventure and his own. He imagined

that the bird was mortally wounded, had expired as it alighted on the tree, and had lodged in one of the branches. Le Vaillant's adventure led him to doubt whether he should climb the tree or abandon his prey : but he soon reproached himself for making it a question ; and calling up all his courage, and promising himself to be very expeditious, he attempted the ascent, which the thickness of the trunk and decay of the tree rendered a difficult enterprise. In order to succeed, Montval was obliged to lay down both his coat and gun at the foot of the tree, and avail himself of some knots and fissures in the stem, which appeared to be almost a hundred years old.

“ When he had reached the forking of the tree, he rested a moment ; for his exertions had been very violent. He then began to search for the bird in the thickest of the foliage, but was so unfortunate as not to find it. Quite discouraged at this ill success, after having exhausted every means of discovering his prey, and taken the trouble to shake every branch several times, he was on the point of coming down again, when he thought he heard something move in the trunk of the tree itself. He then perceived that this old trunk was hollow from top to bottom ; and, listening, he heard a bird feebly fluttering its wings in the hole. He did not doubt that it was his secretary-bird : his heart beat with joy at having found it again ; and consulting only his zeal for science, and shutting his eyes to every thing that might appear inconsiderate in such a step, he crept into the hollow of the tree, and there planted himself to seize the bird.

“ Unhappily for Montval, the bird, though wounded, still retained great vigour in its claws and beak. The pain of its wound rendered it even still more formidable. Montval by attempting to lay hold of it roused all its vital energy : it gave itself a violent shake, and clapped its wings with as much impetuosity as if it had had ten serpents to attack at once. Instantly the fleshy part of Montval's leg was assailed by its beak and talons in a manner which made him cry out loudly, and his cramped position did not allow him to shun the attack. He then felt the necessity of defending himself, which he could only do with his feet. He hid his face with his hands to save his eyes, and unwillingly determined to resist force by force. He attacked the bird with kicks, the bird retorted with pecks. “ No,” cried Montval in the heat of the battle, “ no, that is nothing like the beak of the gallinaceous tribe ; that is certainly a hawk's beak ! The secretary-bird can never be of the stork genus ; it must belong to the falcon ; it is a bird of prey in the full force of the term ! What a pity that I shall be forced to mangle it ! I should have been so glad to have stuffed it, and preserved it uninjured !”

“ Montval, though pinched and torn by the serpent-eater, felt, however, some satisfac-

tion in assuring himself, in an unequivocal manner, of the true genus in which this bird ought to be placed; but, in proportion as the combat became warmer, and the bird multiplied its pecks and the naturalist his kicks, the latter insensibly yielded to a feeling of anger which overcame his wish of sparing his antagonist. He began to use his feet with such force and activity, that after a struggle of half an hour he succeeded in bringing the bird to extremity, and at length making it yield up its last breath. He then seized it by the neck, not without some remains of dread; and as he thought that its wings still retained a slight motion, listening only to the suggestions of anger and fear, he set his feet on the body of the bird, and, squeezing the neck with both his hands, endeavoured to strangle it. But the bird was already dead, and having received many wounds, its head easily came off, and remained in the hands of Montval,

who was really distressed to see it. "It can do me no more harm," said he; "but it is a lost bird; it can never figure with honour in a collection." As he spoke he began attentively to examine the head that he held, and observing its strong crooked beak, he again exclaimed, "No; this was never the beak of one of the gallinaceous tribe! It is a true falcon's beak, and it is in that genus that it is finally placed. Sonnerat, who gives it a gallinaceous bill, certainly never saw it."

"After Montval had determined the class in which the serpent-eater was to be placed, he began to seek for some means of getting out of the hollow of the tree and carrying away the bird with him; but he could find none: and it was then that he became fully sensible of the imprudence he had committed in getting into it. He made the greatest efforts to climb up again, which answered no other end than to exhaust his strength."

ART. IV. *The History of Domestic Quadrupeds, with entertaining Anecdotes; adorned with Plates.* 12mo. pp. 135.

AS there is no branch of knowledge more attractive to the youthful mind than the natural history of the animal creation, so there is scarcely any other kind of book that has been provided for it in equal abundance and variety. The greater number of these are very far beneath mediocrity: few have a right to claim any considerable degree of merit. Of all species of composition, that which is suited to the comprehension of children is perhaps the most difficult. It requires a precision of thought, a clearness of arrangement, an easy simplicity, and elegant purity of expression, which are rarely obtained. The present work is in this respect superior to most which we have seen, and will prove an acceptable addition to the juvenile library. Its author, thinking, we suppose, that his young readers should first be made acquainted with the natural history of those animals which they are most accustomed to see, has confined himself to what he calls domestic quadrupeds: but it is not easy to determine in what sense he uses the term. If we understand it in its common acceptation, the fox, the hedgehog, the hare and the bat should have been excluded. If, as seems to be the case, he thought it equivalent with indigenous, the badger, the polecat, weasel, martin, stoat, and otter should have been admitted. As far, however, as he has gone, he has shewn himself equal to the task which he has undertaken. His language is natural and pure, his descriptions plain and characteristic, his anecdotes well chosen, and his materials in general

taken from the best writers on the subject. We know not on what authority he gives the name of spiracle to the glandular pits or cavities beneath the eyes of the stag and fallow deer, and asserts that they are intended to produce a freer respiration. The French naturalists aptly call them *larmiers*, on account of the yellowish fluid secreted from them, and sometimes copiously discharged when the animal is warmly pursued by the hunters, in our apprehension the real source of "the big round tears" which, as they are beautifully described by our unrivalled dramatic poet,

"Course one another down his innocent
"nose
"In piteous chase."

In stating that animals of the cow kind shed their horns at the age of three years, and then, as in the case of the incisive teeth, renew them for life, he has, like several other writers, been misled by Buffon, not being aware that the great French naturalist retracted his error in the supplement to his *Natural History*. We could have wished that he had not, without full and decisive evidence, revived the prejudice which has been fatal to so many poor hedgehogs. The evident marks of its attempts to suck cows, which he tells us he has seen, may for ought that appears have been owing to some other cause: and unless he has taken the little urchin in the fact, he ought not to believe that "it has an instinctive taste for a pursuit," in which, from the smallness of its mouth, it is

scarcely possible for it to succeed. We are also sorry to observe, that he has not passed over the sensual passion of the stag, and the salaciousness of the goat.

In a work designed for children, nothing should be introduced which cannot with propriety be fully explained.

ART. V. *The General Character of the Dog; illustrated by a Variety of original and interesting Anecdotes of that beautiful and useful Animal, in Prose and Verse.* By JOSEPH TAYLOR. 8vo. pp. 187.

FROM the days of Homer to the present time, the dog has been the favourite companion and assistant of mankind; and in every age numerous instances have been related of his sagacity, fidelity and affection. Mr. Taylor has endeavoured to collect whatever has been said on the subject, old or new, credible or incredible. His compilation is often amusing: but we have been in some doubt under what head of our work it ought to be classed. Had it been conducted in such a manner as to make it reading for men, we should certainly have placed it among our articles of natural history; but in its actual form it is more fitted to become a school-book for children; though even with that assignment we are not perfectly satisfied. Instead of that easy, natural style which should be a *sine quâ non* in works of that description, it displays a motley mixture of affected elevation and real vulgarity, and is more likely to produce a vicious than a correct taste. By stretching every incident to the utmost extent of the marvellous, it has, moreover, a tendency to mislead the judgment of the learner, and to make him pleased with nothing which does not overstep the modesty of nature. That dogs are capable of forming, and are often governed by associations which almost raise them

to a level with their lords and masters, who glory in the privileges of "discourse and reason," we have no inclination to deny. But when a foresight is attributed to them which is nothing short of miraculous, and which man himself cannot obtain without direct inspiration from Heaven, we are not merely in danger of becoming sceptics, but freely avow ourselves fixed and entire unbelievers. When, for instance, we are told of one dog that penetrated into the secret design of a servant to rob his mistress; of another, that he had gained a complete knowledge of a long complicated system of plunder and murder, and manifested an anxious solicitude to save the life of a master, who *he well understood* had ordered him to be hanged, and from whose house he had fled solely on that account; of a third, that foreknew the fall of a building which no one else suspected; and of a fourth, who, to repay the hospitable kindness of a cook, in the kitchen of one of his master's friends, brought a duck which he had accidentally picked up, and which, as he did not find it in a private pond, he *probably* concluded not to be private property—the incredulous *odi* of the poet rushes into our minds, and the book drops from our hands.

ART. VI. *Stories for Children; intended to be read or recited to them in the early Periods of Infancy; being the first Part of a Series of Amusement and Instruction, adapted to the progressive Stages of early Life.* By ANABELLA PLUMPTRE. 18mo. pp. 132.

WE cannot better recommend these stories, than by saying that we have read several of them to children of four or

five years old, who were much amused whilst they listened to them.

ART. VII. *A Wreath for the Brow of Youth.* By W. M. CRAIG. 8vo. pp. 163.

THIS volume is very beautifully printed by Bulmer: it contains a number of little tales, chiefly oriental, composed by the author with the view of shewing that there is no happiness but in the exercise of virtue and piety, and

that there is nothing but disappointment and misery in the practice of vice. We cannot compliment Mr. Craig on the execution of his task, conceiving, as we do, that these tales are not very likely to interest or inform children. The mo-

rality inculcated by them is unexceptionable, and the different incidents are endeavoured to be rendered impressive by

numerous engravings, very nicely executed on wood.

ART. VIII. *A Summary of Ancient History, from the earliest Ages to the Dissolution of the Roman Empire, A. D. 476, &c.* 12mo. pp. 344.

THIS is a very respectable compilation for the use of schools; the language is correct and inartificial, and as much information concerning the manners, and customs, and characters of the principal nations of antiquity is here given,

as could well have been comprised within the same small compass. A geographical index is added, describing the situation of the several countries, cities, rivers, and mountains, the names of which occur in the history.

ART. IX. *Letters of Consolation and Advice from a Father to his Daughter, on the Death of her Sister.* 12mo. pp. 184.

EVERY topic of consolation which religion can suggest is here enforced by a mourning father to his mourning child. These letters were written immediately on the death of a virtuous and beloved

daughter; and the employment doubtless contributed to soften the severity of the shock. They will be read with advantage and instruction.

ART. X. *A Visit to a Farm House; or an Introduction to various Subjects connected with rural Economy. Embellished with Plates.* By S. W.

CHILDREN of seven or eight years old will be amused by this little book: those who live in the country will have their attention excited towards the vari-

ous objects which surround them; and they who reside in cities will derive information on subjects to which their personal observation cannot extend.

ART. XI. *Tabart's Collection of Popular Stories for the Nursery: newly translated and revised from the French, Italian, and old English Writers.* 18mo.

WE have seen three parts of this collection, at the price of half-a-crown each; the tales are very well told; the language is tolerably correct, and the style appropriate. Nevertheless we feel some hesitation in recommending the

work in its present state. Many stories from Mother Bunch are inserted, which are more calculated to terrify children than amuse them: we advise Mr. Tabart rather to make a selection than a collection.

ART. XII. *The Book of Trades, or Library of Useful Arts. Illustrated with Copper Plates.* 18mo.

WE have seen three parts of this collection also, and give them our unqualified approbation. Forty or fifty trades are described in them briefly and agree-

ably; the different implements made use of are also explained, and to the account of each trade is prefixed a little illustrative engraving.

ART. XIII. *An Introduction to Mr. Byrom's Universal English Short-hand, &c. &c.* By T. MOLINEUX.

MR. Byrom's Treatise on Short-hand has long been celebrated, and his system is very generally adopted. Mr. Molineux has rendered the acquisition of this system easy, and the public has expressed its approbation of his abridgment by

calling for a third edition of it, in which Mr. Molineux has increased the original number of examples, and engraved specimens from eleven to twenty. They are very neatly executed.

ART. XIV. *The Telescope; or Moral Views for Children.* 18mo.

WITHOUT some explanation, children perhaps might not understand the allegory which introduces these stories,

but with the stories themselves they are very likely to be amused.

ART. XV. *The Youth's Treasure, or a Treatise on Morality, Virtue, and Politeness; enlivened with Anecdotes and Examples. From the French of M. BLANCHARD.* 18mo.

WE have so many little books in our own language, in which the principles of morality and religion are inculcated in a less formal manner, that there seem-

ed but little necessity for this translation. The work, however, is perfectly unobjectionable.

ART. XVI. *Popular Tales.* By MARIA EDGEWORTH, *Author of Practical Education, Belinda, Castle Rackrent, Irish Bulls, &c.* 3 vols. 12mo.

THE title of *Popular Tales*, which appears somewhat ambiguous, is explained in the preface, as having been chosen, not from a presumptuous and premature claim to popularity, but from the wish that they may be current beyond circles which are sometimes exclusively considered as polite. In pursuance of this design, the heroes and heroines of the stories before us, are judiciously selected from the middling and lower classes of life: instead of my lord and my lady, the baronet and the colonel, we have farmer Gray and his pretty daughter Rose, the glover and the tanner, the house-steward and the Cornish miner; what is better still we have *Soft Simon O'Dugberty*, Mr. Brian O'Neill, Barney O'Grady, and Paddy McCormack, the hay-maker, all true born Irishmen! and in Hibernian portraits, comic or pathetic, who may contend with the author of *Castle Rackrent*? To touch or to amuse is not however the greatest merit of these tales, touching and amusing as they are; they are adapted to a still nobler end, to teach

"That useful science—to be good."

Had not Miss Edgeworth anticipated the title, these might, with emphatic propriety, have been called "*Moral Tales*," such a pure love of virtue, such a just and discriminating judgment of right and wrong pervades them, set off by such sagacious observation, such variety of useful knowledge, such acute remarks on life, and delicate touches of nature, that few readers, we really believe, will rise from the perusal, without feeling themselves, temporarily at least, both wiser and better. There is nothing here of romance, either in character or incident; every thing has been reduced within the compass of probability, by the scrutinizing eye of good sense.—Love, instead of reigning here triumphant over reason, duty, and interest, finds his power as transient, as much

divided, and as straitly limited, as in real life. "Duty first, and love afterwards," is the maxim of one of the most amiable females. Prudence, industry, fidelity, punctuality, kind heartedness, and domestic affections, are the calm and humble virtues most strongly inculcated; whilst extravagance, thoughtlessness, procrastination, dissipated habits, a love of scheming, and that presumptuous confidence in talents, or in good fortune, which precludes circumspection and steady application, are held up to view in their most despicable form and ruinous consequences.

Miss Edgeworth's style in this, as in all her former works, is distinguished by extreme perspicuity and an elegant simplicity, combined with strength and spirit, always correct and never mean: it is frequently brilliant with simile or allusion, dignified wherever dignity is required, and, above all, characterized by that inimitable ease which renders it the best possible vehicle of humorous and familiar dialogue. The conversation pieces of this author are conversation itself: the same exquisite talent of observation which enables her by a thousand delicate touches, to give to her narratives the stamp of truth, has taught her the very difficult, though apparently simple art, of talking on paper, in the very style really employed by such characters as those that she so naturally represents. The history of "*Lame Jervas*" is told, we think, with too much prolixity, and detail of things little interesting to the common reader; Mrs. Dolly's accident is not well managed; she would be more likely to go out in a stage-coach than on horseback. The story entitled "*The Grateful Negro*" is the only one to the moral of which we have any objection to make; it seems to us by no means clear, that even gratitude could justify Cæsar in betraying his friends and countrymen into the hands of their oppressors. Gratitude ought,

indeed, to have induced him to use his utmost efforts for the preservation of his benefactor; but his fellow slaves were bound by no such obligations, and what right had he to prevent them from accomplishing that just vengeance in which he had before been so willing to join? We are ready to allow that the case was a difficult one, and that possibly, however **Cæsar** had been made to act, we should not have felt perfectly satisfied with his conduct; but why should these difficult cases be brought forward in works of fiction? When they occur in real life, an honest mind will commonly be enabled, by its own intuitive, or habitual feelings of right, quickly to decide even amid a choice of evils; but by general rules these nice points never can be decided. To bring them forward unnecessarily is, therefore, to incur, without any adequate advantage, the risk of confounding, and thus blunting the moral sense. A note informs us that "whatever merit the heads of chapters, in the following stories, may have, it must be attributed to the editor," that is to Mr. Edgeworth. We really feel glad to have Miss Edgeworth exculpated from the imputation of having prefixed to her chapters such trite obvious maxims as "The passionate and capricious are often unjust." "Hasty conclusions are but seldom just." "Surmise is often partly true and partly false," and "The end of vice is shame and misery." Several errors have crept into these volumes, "caused by the author's absence from the press." We must present our readers with an extract from the beautiful tale of "*Rosanna*," merely to whet their curiosity. The remark with which it begins is equally new and judicious, and the Irish cabin is drawn from nature.

"There are two sorts of content; one is connected with exertion, the other with habits of indolence: the first is a virtue, the second a vice. Examples of both may be found in abundance in Ireland. There you may sometimes see a man, in sound health, submitting day after day, to evils which a few hours would remedy; and you are provoked to hear him say:—

'It will do well enough for me. Didn't it do for my father before me? I can make a shift with things for my time: any how, I'm content.'

"This kind of content is indeed the bane of industry. But instances of a different sort may be found, in various of the Irish peasantry. Amongst them we may behold men struggling with adversity, with all the

strongest powers of mind and body; and supporting irremediable evils with a degree of cheerful fortitude, which must excite at once our pity and admiration.

"In a pleasant village in the province of Leinster, there lives a family of the name of Gray; whether or no they are any way related to old Robin Gray, history does not determine; but it is very possible that they are, because they came, it is said, originally from the north of Ireland, and one of the sons is actually called Robin. Leaving this point, however, in the obscurity which involves the early history of the most ancient and illustrious families, we proceed to less disputable and perhaps more useful facts. It is well-known, that is by all his neighbours, that farmer Gray began life with no very encouraging prospects: he was the youngest of a large family, and the portion of his father's property that fell to his share; was but just sufficient to maintain his wife and three children. At his father's death, he was obliged to go into a poor mud-walled cabin, facing the door of which there was a green pool of stagnant water, and before the window of one pane, a dunghill, that reaching to the thatch of the roof, shut out the light, and filled the house with the most noisome smell. The ground sloped toward the house door, so that in rainy weather, when the pond was full, the kitchen was overflowed, and at all times the floor was so damp, and soft, that the print of the nails of brogues was left in it wherever the wearer set down his foot: to be sure these nail marks could scarcely be seen, except just near the door, or where the light of the fire immediately shone; because, elsewhere, the smoke was so thick that the pig might have been within a foot of you without your seeing him. The former inhabitants of this mansion had, it seems, been content without a chimney, and, indeed, almost without a roof; the couples and parlours of the roof, having once given way, had never been repaired, and swagged down by the weight of the thatch, so that the ends threatened the wigs of the unwary.

"The prospect without doors was scarcely more encouraging to our hero than the scene within: the farm consisted of about forty acres, and the fences of the grazing land were so bad that the neighbours' cattle took possession of it frequently by day, and always by night. The tillage-ground had been so ill-managed by his predecessor, that the land was what is called quite out of heart.

"If farmer Gray had also been out of heart, he and his family might, at this hour, have been beggars. His situation was thought desperate by many of his neighbours, and, a few days after his father's decease, many came to condole with him. Amongst the rest, was easy Simon, or as some called him, soft Simon, on account of his unresisting disposition, and contented, or, as we should rather name it, reckless temper. He was a sort of a half or a half quarter gentleman,

had a small patrimony of a hundred or a hundred and fifty pounds a year, a place in the excise, worth fifty more, and a mill, which might have been worth another hundred annually, had it not been suffered to stand still for many a year.

'Wheugh! Wheugh! What a bustle we are in! and what a world of trouble is here!' cried Simon, when he came to Gray's house, and found him on the ladder taking off the decayed thatch, whilst one of his sons, a lad of about fourteen, was hard at work, filling a cart from the dunghill, which blockaded the window. His youngest son, a boy of twelve, with a face and neck red with heat, was making a drain to carry off the water from the green pond; and Rose, the sister, a girl of ten years old, was collecting the ducks, which her mother was going to carry to her landlord's to sell.

'Wheugh! Wheugh! Wheugh! Why what a world of bustle and trouble is here! Troth, Jemmy Gray, you're in a bad way sure enough! Poor cratur! Poor cratur!'

'No man,' replied Gray, 'deserves to be called poor that has his health and the use of his limbs. Besides,' continued he, 'have not I a good wife and good children; and, with these blessings, has not a man sufficient reason to be content?'

'Aye, to be sure: that's the only way to get through this world,' said Simon. 'Whatever comes, just to take it easy, and be content. Content, and a warm chimney corner, is all in all, according to my notion.'

'Yes, Simon,' said Gray, laughing; 'but your kind of content would never do for me. Content, that sits down in the chimney corner, and does nothing but smoke his pipe, will soon have the house about his ears; and then what will become of Content?'

'Time enough to think of that when it comes,' said Simon: 'fretting never propped a house yet; and, if it did, I would rather see it fall than fret.'

'But could not you prop the house,' said Gray, 'without fretting?'

'Is it by putting my shoulders to it?' said Simon. 'My shoulders have never been used to hard work, and don't like it any way. As long as I can eat, drink, and sleep, and have a coat to my back, what matter for the rest? Let the world go as it will, I'm content. Shoo! Shoo! The button is off the neck of this great-coat of mine, and how will I keep it on? A pin sure will do as well as a button, and better. Mrs. Gray, or Miss Rose, I'll thank you kindly for a pin.'

'He stuck the pin in the place of the button, to fasten the great-coat round his throat, and walked off: it pricked his chin about a dozen times, before the day was over; but he forgot the next day, and the next, and the next, to have the button sewed on. He was content to make shift, as he called it, with the pin. This is precisely the species of content which leads to beggary.'

ART. XVII. *Conversations, introducing Poetry: chiefly on Subjects of Natural History. For the Use of Children and young Persons.* By CHARLOTTE SMITH, 2 vols. small 8vo.

THE numerous admirers of Mrs. Smith's works cannot fail of being gratified by the perusal of these very elegant little volumes, which bear the full impression of her rich, but mournful fancy. Though a work for young people only was originally designed, Mrs. Smith acknowledges, that, in the progress of her undertaking, she became so fond of it, as to indulge a hope that it might be found worthy the perusal of persons of riper years. In fact, a great deal of miscellaneous information, on subjects of natural history, is conveyed in these poems and conversations, which is far from being familiar to all grown people, even of cultivated minds. In description of heath scenery, the sea shore, and the green Sussex downs, our author is quite at home; it is evident that she has not only seen all she describes, but seen it with the eye of a poet, and lover of nature.

'EMILY. You told me, I remember, that these pieces of turf which seem cut away from the rest, and look parched and brown, covered

holes that had been made to take wheat-ears, and that great numbers are caught on these downs. Now tell me how that is contrived.

'MRS. TALBOT. Come, George, let us sit down on this mass of something, which I doubt whether to call a large stone brought hither, or a number of stones cemented together by art, and which was formerly part of a beacon, where signals were lighted.—This high mound of turf that surrounds it will shelter us a little from the ruffling seawind; and while you give Emily the history of the Wheat-ear in prose, I think I can put it into verse.

'GEORGE. But, mother, your verse will be so much better than my prose, that I am sure Emily, as well as I, would rather sit still and silent, while you compose.

'MRS. TALBOT. Only tell her how the birds are caught.

'GEORGE. Why you see, Emily, these square pieces of turf—stay, I can take one out—these square pieces of turf are cut, and the earth under them, six or seven inches deep; then the piece is laid across the hole, so, and makes a sort of cave; a wire or horse hair, with a noose in it, is fixed within, and the wheat-ears are so foolish as to be afraid of the least appearance of storm or darkness,

so that every shadow drives them into these holes, and they run their silly heads into the nooses, and are caught.

"EMILY. And do they breed here in England?"

"GEORGE. Yes, I believe so; the book I have, says, they are seen at all times of the year in some countries, while in others they are not known at all; but the great numbers, for they are caught by dozens and dozens, to eat, being reckoned very good, do not appear till some time in August; and now they are almost out of season, and you see the traps are not set. Their nests are made under stones or pieces of rock, among rough ground, but these nests are not often found; and therefore some people have supposed, as the greatest number of them are seen about the Sussex downs, which you know are, except some part of Kent, the nearest of any part of England to the coast of France, that they come from thence to breed, and go back again in winter, because, like many other birds, they would fare but badly here, for there are no insects at that time to feed them, and they live on flies, gnats, and worms. But my mother, I know, has finished her verses.

"MRS. TALBOT. I have—but it is unnecessary, as George has so well related the history of the wheat-ear or cul-blanc, or at least as much as is known of it, to tell you, that this place where we sit, and which is one of those they much frequent, is one of those circular trenches, in the midst of which a pile of stone was raised, and on them a fire was made, to give notice of the approach of an enemy. Since the art of war has been otherwise conducted, the same artifice is often used by smugglers, whose comrades on shore make these signals to warn them of danger, in landing their contraband cargoes. This, you may perhaps recollect, George, I once explained to you, when you were reading a poem by Mr. Crowe, called Lewsdon Hill, celebrating an high hill in Dorsetshire, where, among other circumstances, he mentions a place called Burton.

There, Burton, and thy lofty cliff, where oft
The nightly blaze is kindled; farther seen
Than erst was that love tended cresset hung
Beside the Hellespont. Yet not like that,
Inviting to the hospitable arms
Of beauty and youth, but lighted up, the
sign

Of danger, and of ambush'd foe to warn
The stealth approaching vessel. homeward bound

From Havre, or the Norman isles.

"EMILY. But that is not verse.

"GEORGE. Yes, it is; it is blank verse: the same as Milton's *Paradise Lost*, you know, and the *Task*, and a great many other poems we have read parts of.

"EMILY. But what I mean is, that it is not in measure, in rhyme.

"MRS. TALBOT. In measure, certainly, but not in rhyme, and that is what distinguishes it from heroic verse of ten syllables,

where the lines rhyme to each other, or rhyme alternately—as in that sort of verse in which elegies are usually written. But we will discuss this another time.—Here are my rhymes, which if George can make them out, written with a pencil, he will read to us.

"*The Wheat-ear.*"

From that deep shelter'd solitude,
Where in some quarry wild and rude,
Your feather'd mother reared her brood,

Why, pilgrim, did you brave
The upland winds so bleak and keen,
To seek these hills?—whose slopes between
Wide stretch'd in grey expanse is seen

The ocean's toiling wave?

Did instinct bid you linger here,
That broad and restless ocean near,
And wait, till with the waning year

Those northern gales arise,
Which, from the tall cliff's rugged side
Shall give your soft light plumes to glide
Across the channel's reflux tide,

To seek more favouring skies?

Alas! and has not instinct said
That luxury's toils for you are laid,
And that by groundless fears betray'd

You ne'er perhaps may know
Those regions, where the embowering vine
Loves round the luscious fig to twine,
And mild the suns of winter shine,

And flowers perennial blow?

To take you, shepherd boys prepare
The hollow turf, the wiry snare,
Of those weak terrors well aware,

That bid you vainly dread
The shadows floating o'er the downs,
Or murmuring gale, that round the stones
Of some old beacon, as it moans,

Scarce moves the thistle's head.

And if a cloud obscure the sun
With faint and fluttering heart you run,
And to the pitfall you should shun

Resort in trembling haste;
While on that dewy cloud so high,
The lark, sweet minstrel of the sky,
Sings in the morning's beamy eye,

And bathes his spotted breast.

Ah! simple bird, resembling you
Are those, that with distorted view
Thro' life some selfish end pursue,

With low inglorious aim;
They sink in blank oblivious night,
While minds superior dare the light,
And high on honor's glorious height
Aspire to endless fame!"

"*An Evening Walk by the Sea Side.*"

'Tis pleasant to wander along on the sand,
Beneath the high cliff that is hollowed in
caves;

When the fisher has put off his boat from
the land,

And the prawn-catcher wades thro' the short
rippling waves.

While fast run before us the sandling and
plover,
Intent on the crabs and the sand-cels to
feed,
And here on a rock, which the tide will soon
cover,
We'll find us a seat that is tapestried with
weed.

Bright gleam the white sails in the slant rays
of even,
And stud as with silver the broad level
main,
While glowing clouds float on the fair face
of Heaven,
And the mirror-like water reflects them
again.

How various the shades of marine vegetation,
Thrown here the rough flints and the pebbles
among,
The feather'd conserva of deepest carnation,
The dark purple slake, and the olive sea
thong.

While Flora herself reluctantly mingles
Her garlands with those that the Nereids
have worn,
For the yellow-horned poppy springs up on
the shingles,
And convolvulas rival the rays of the morn.

But now to retire from the rock we have
warning,
Already the water encircles our seat,
And slowly the tide of the evening returning,
The moon beams reflects in the waves at
our feet.

Ah! whether, as now, the mild summer sea
flowing,
Scarce wrinkles the sands as it murmurs
on shore,
Or fierce wintry whirlwinds impetuously
blowing,
Bid high maddening surges resistlessly
roar;

That Power, which can put the wide waters
in motion,
Then bid the vast billows repose at His
word;
Fills the mind with deep reverence, while
earth, air, and ocean,
Alike of the universe speak him the Lord."

We are sorry to observe in the foregoing lines *convolvulas*, which cannot be admitted as the plural of *convolvulus*. A few other inaccuracies dispersed through the work, we think it our duty to point out; not in the spirit of cavilling, but from a feeling of the great importance of correctness in writings designed to instruct the young and the ignorant. "I must not *wax* about it," is a gross vulgarism, as is *lay* for lie. "Papaver that an opiate dew conceal'st beneath thy *scarlet* vest:" it is not from the scar-

ANN. REV. VOL. III.

let but the *white* poppy that opium is extracted. In some verses on the hedge-hog tangere is accented *tangere*. A boy is made to remark the mistake, and his mother acknowledges his criticism to be well founded, but adds, that "such licences are now very frequently taken in short and trifling pieces like this." It certainly is not the fact that such licences are taken by those who know them to be licences; and though Mrs. Smith's ignorance of the quantity of a Latin word, at the time of writing the line in question, might well be pardoned, so dangerous a defence of ignorance or carelessness, addressed to young persons, is not to be forgiven. We have likewise congeners for congeners. Some instances occur of false grammar, as "many an unhappy desolate young person *date*." A more serious mistake is that of considering Caffres and Hottentots as the same people, and as negroes. The clematis is called *clemati*; a hybernacle, *hybernacle*; genera is in one place used as the singular; and the peacock is affectedly and improperly called the paon. Many sentiments are introduced of so very refined and melancholy a nature, that it is rather to be hoped than feared that they will prove quite incomprehensible to Mrs. Smith's juvenile readers. A moral is frequently tacked to the poems, much in the manner of those annexed to the fables of our old friend Esop; of which few people, we imagine, remember any thing but that they have always passed them over. Many excellent remarks, and moral sentiments, are however introduced; and the whole work appears dictated by a genuine love for the beauties of nature, which can scarcely fail of being communicated to the impressible and enquiring mind of youth. When writers, possessed of Mrs. Smith's lively genius, condescend to address themselves to young persons, their labours, of which the effect is certain, and the utility incalculable, ought at least to receive the tribute of generous applause.—If, therefore, we have freely pointed out the faults of the volume before us, we hope that the author will attribute this uncourtly frankness solely to the importance that we attach to the productions of her pen, and our persuasion that the demand for a second edition will soon enable her to correct these small imperfections. We shall gratify our readers by extracting one little piece more.

H h

"To a Butterfly in a Window.

' Escaped thy place of wintry rest,
And in the brightest colours drest,
Thy new-born wings prepared for flight,
Ah! do not, butterfly, in vain
Thus flutter on the crystal pane,
But go! and soar to life and light.

" High in the buoyant summer gale
Thro' cloudless ether thou may'st sail,
Or rest among the fairest flowers;
To meet thy winnowing friends may'st speed,
Or at thy choice luxurious feed
In woodlands wild, or garden bowers.

" Beneath some leaf of ample shade
Thy pearly eggs shall then be laid,
Small rudiments of many a fly;
While thou, thy frail existence past,
Shalt shudder in the chilly blast,
And fold thy painted wings, and die!

" Soon fleets thy transient life away;
Yet short as is thy vital day,
Like flowers that form thy fragrant food,
Thou, poor ephemeron, shalt have filled
The little space thy Maker willed,
And all thou know'st of life be good."

ART. XVIII. *Sequel to the English Reader; or elegant Selections in Prose and Poetry, designed to improve the highest Class of Learners in reading, to establish a Taste for just and accurate Composition, and to promote the Interests of Piety and Virtue. By LINDLEY MURRAY. 2d edition. 8vo. pp. 400.*

WE have already borne our testimony to the high merit of Mr. Murray, as an acute grammarian, and as blending in his various works, with uncommon happiness, a delicate and correct taste both in literature and morals. We are glad, though not surprised, to see that the public has demanded a new edition of the respectable work now before us. On comparing the present with the former

impression, we find that a few additional pieces have been inserted into the body of the work, and that an appendix has been subjoined, containing short biographical notices of all the deceased authors who have contributed to form the "English Reader" itself, the "Introduction to the English Reader," and the present meritorious volume.

CHAPTER VII.

MODERN LANGUAGES.

ART. I. *A complete Analysis of the German Language ; or, a philological and grammatical View of its Construction, Analogies, and various Properties.* By Dr. RENDER. 8vo. pp. 351.

IT is difficult to write a good grammar, and easy to write an ordinary one. Lowth and Johnson failed in the attempt to furnish a classical English grammar: ignorant of the northern languages they could not appreciate many of our idiomatic analogies, and have attempted to legislate for English style by laws inferred from the practice of Greek and Latin authors. If Dr. Render does not rank above them, he may at least plead the superior difficulty of writing in an acquired and concerning a foreign language.

This grammar is respectable, but not excellent. We see nothing that can entitle it to supersede the long previous work of Wendeborn; neither do we see reason for disusing the new in favour of the old crutch: one may limp along with either, and better perhaps with both: for the repetition of rules in a new form always tends to imprint them in the memory. Dr. Render is peculiar in representing the double ess of the Germans by *sz* and not by *ss*. He sometimes overlooks an impurity, as page 67 *Abey* for *Abey*, page 274 *lorz* for *los*, page 276

Herls for *Hertle*, page 278 *Leichnamme* for *Leichnam*, the second and fourth of which instances must be errors of the amanuensis, and not of the printer. Among the observations on prosody it ought to have been stated that the Germans exact an observation of masculine and feminine names in their poetry. This is also French law; but it is unknown to the English language, and therefore required mention.

There is a certain parade of philosophy in this grammar which is not in good taste. The theory and history of language have received no accessions of knowledge from the introducing dissertations, or interwoven commentaries. Something is added to the correcter appreciation of some of our current translations from the German. An anthology is appended, or rather interspersed, of various pieces in prose and verse adapted form that exercise of version and reversion, which sir William Jones, after the example of the ancient rhetoricians, has recommended as the most important discipline of the student of language.

ART. II. *English Parsing; comprising the Rules of Syntax, exemplified by appropriate Lessons under each Rule; with an Index containing all the Parts of Speech in the different Lessons compared.* By JAMES GILKS, Master of the Free School, Gravesend. 12mo. pp. 136.

THE manner in which this little work is executed will best be understood by a short specimen.

"RULE 20.

"The conjunction disjunctive hath an effect contrary to that of the conjunction copulative, for as the verb, noun, or pronoun, is referred to the preceding terms taken separately, it must be in the singular number."

"LESSON 1.

"Ignorance or negligence has caused this mistake.

"Ignorance is a common substantive, third person, singular number, nominative case, and comes before the verb 'has caused.'" (RULE) "The nominative case comes before the verb." Or is a disjunctive conjunction. Negligence is a common substantive, third person, singular number, nominative case, and or connects "ignorance and negligence." (RULE) "Conjunctions connect the same moods and tenses of verbs, and cases of nouns and pronouns." "Has caused is a regular verb active or transitive, indicative mood, perfect tense, third person singular, and agrees with its nomi-

native case, "ignorance or negligence." (RULE) "The conjunction disjunctive hath an effect contrary to that of the conjunction copulative, for as the verb, noun, or pronoun, is referred to the preceding terms taken separately, it must be in the singular number." *This* is an adjective pronoun, of the demonstrative kind, third person, singular number, and agrees with its substantive, "mistake" (RULE) "The adjective pronouns, *this* and *that*, must agree in number with their substantives." *Mistake* is a common substantive, third person, singular number, objective case, and is governed by the verb,

"has caused." (RULE) "Active or transitive verbs govern the objective case."

Mr. Giles has, with as little variation as possible, taken all his rules from Lindley Murray's very excellent Grammar, and has followed his mode of parsing as closely as the nature of the work would allow, these lessons being intended as an introduction from his Grammar to his English Exercises. We are of opinion that this book may be used by teachers with great advantage.

ART. III. *An English Spelling-book, with reading Lessons adapted to the Capacities of Children: in three Parts, calculated to advance the Learners by natural and easy Gradations; and to teach Orthography and Pronunciation together.* By LINDLEY MURRAY. 12mo. pp. 216.

WE have on more occasions than one borne testimony to the great merit of Mr. Lindley Murray as an able grammarian, and are very glad to meet with him again in our annual survey. We have looked over his present book with considerable attention, and find in it much to commend. The volume is divided into three parts: the first, which may be had separately, treats of the letters, and easy monosyllables, and contains corresponding reading lessons. In this division an excellent tabular view is given of the elementary vowel and consonantal sounds, and the similar sounds, such as b and p, d and t, are also arranged by themselves in a second table, with proper examples. To this succeeds a list of diphthongs, with copious examples of their force and correspondence with the various simple sounds. Chapter 7 exemplifies the silent consonants that occur in monosyllables, and chapter 8 the hard and soft sounds of the double and single consonants. These, with an explanation of the stops and points, and various monosyllabic reading lessons, compose the first part.

The second part contains lists of words of two and three syllables, arranged according to their vowel sounds and accents, with various reading lessons.

The four first chapters of the third part consist of lists of polysyllabic words and lessons, on which we have no particular remarks to make: chapters 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9 are highly useful, containing words of the same sound but different in spelling and meaning, words in which the pronunciation differs remarkably from the spelling, and

the most frequent vulgarisms of pronunciation.

The 15th chapter contains a complete analysis of the various sounds of the letters when in combination. Chapter 16 relates to the silent letters, and chapter 17 (the last) treats of the rules of spelling.

We have met with a few oversights in different parts of the work, but our principal objections are to the first section of the last chapter, and such preceding portions of the volume as depend upon it. This section contains the rules for the division of syllables.

There are two principal uses of the division of words into syllables; first, to enable the learner to spell accurately; secondly, to assist him in acquiring the true pronunciation: but besides these advantages, a judicious syllabic analysis may be made to illustrate and deeply impress on the memory of the learner various grammatical facts, and familiarize him with the principal rules in compounding words. It is, in our opinion, upon these principles that the syllabic divisions ought to be formed; but Mr. Murray's rules are for the most part either arbitrary, or proceed on certain supposed mutual relations of consonants and vowels, which not being of universal application render various exceptions necessary, and are productive of needless intricacy.

The first rule is—"A single consonant between two vowels must be joined to the latter syllable." Why? The only use of such a rule would be its universality; but Mr. Murray is obliged to allow the letter x to be an exception, as well as certain compound words, among

which by a strange inadvertence he places the word pri son er as analogous to dis use, up on, &c.

Rule 5. "When three or more consonants not proper to begin a syllable meet between two vowels, such of them as can begin a syllable belong to the latter, the next to the former syllable." In consequence of this rule we have the arbitrary and erroneous divisions, but cher, slaugh ter, instead of butch er, slaught er. Indeed the incongruity of this rule is so evident, that Mr. Murray himself has not adhered to it; for he writes pro-

perly scorch es, instead of, according to his own rule, scor ches, though in the very preceding word he writes hor ses for hors es.

We would therefore recommend to Mr. Murray before he publishes a new edition, which we doubt not will be speedily called for, to re-consider his rules for the division of syllables, and make the corresponding corrections in such parts of the book as depend upon them. With these alterations, it will command our entire approbation.

CHAPTER VIII.

BIOGRAPHY AND CORRESPONDENCE.

THERE is no species of literature which has been received of late with such distinguished favour by the public as biography; nor is this to be wondered at, for it gratifies at once both the most laudable and the most perverse curiosity. In contemplating the character of an eminent man, it is delightful to observe the first germination and gradual developement of the seed of greatness, to behold it raise its slender growth in the shade of obscurity and retirement, nourished by the dew of instruction, strengthened by the blasts of discipline; winning, without violence, but by irresistible perseverance, its silent way through every obstacle; gradually overtopping the weeds and undergrowth by which it was concealed from the hasty and incurious glance, and, at length, rearing its shapely canopy of boughs far above its surrounding rivals, verdant with leaves, glowing with blossoms, luxuriant with fruit, magnificent in the summer of its prosperity, sturdy and unmoved by the wintry storms of adversity, the pride of the neighbourhood in its vigour, and venerable even in its latest decay. It rarely, however, falls to the lot of the biographer to celebrate a truly great and uniformly consistent character; for the distinguishing excellence is almost always found to stint and starve the growth of the other virtues and talents. But if the satisfaction derived from the contemplation of such mingled characters, is considerably lessened by their faults and errors, yet their moral value, as examples and warnings, is proportionably increased. An able and faithful historian may apply them to admirable use; and both rouse the emulation of his readers by the great qualities of his hero, and excite, with double energy, their abhorrence of vice, by displaying errors and virtues in full contrast in the same character.

The modern fashion of writing biography, is to render the person celebrated as much as possible his own historian, by the publication of his private correspondence; a method which, although possessed of some peculiar advantages, is at the same time liable to many objections. In the first place it is a strong inducement to misjudging or unprincipled persons to violate the confidence of epistolary correspondence, and publish to the world the unguarded and unpremeditated effusions of friendship; in consequence of which, the literary, and even moral, character of the writer may be unjustly, yet plausibly, brought into jeopardy; and much uneasiness may be given to persons incidentally mentioned or alluded to. It is also pampering a base appetite for private scandal and anecdote, and for an impertinent inquisitiveness into circumstances which strangers have no right to know. The letter which one friend receives from another is always communicated under an implied condition, if not of absolute secrecy, yet at least of discretion, in the selection of persons to whom it is confided; and, to violate such a trust, requires a much more ample justification, than many editors can allege in their own behalf.

The biographical publications of the last year are of more than usual value : Mr. Hayley has brought forward a third volume of the letters of Cowper, which, upon the whole, will not be found inferior to the preceding ones. Lord Teignmouth has erected a durable monument to the memory of his illustrious friend, sir William Jones ; and, after making every necessary allowance for the partiality of friendship, it must be confessed by every unbiassed reader, that the bright assemblage of abilities and virtues in this excellent person, fully qualifies him to rank among those worthies, whom future generations of Britons will remember with pride and respect. Six volumes of correspondence, between Richardson, our great novelist, and his friends, have been edited by Mrs. Barbauld ; and the work is enriched by a preliminary essay, containing a very acute and most elegant critique on the merits and defects of the three great productions of this celebrated writer. Lord Grenville has conferred a favour on the public, by communicating to it some letters of the great lord Chatham to his nephew, lord Camelford, which shew the noble writer in the mild majesty of private life, as an affectionate kinsman, and a genuine christian. Miss Seward has published a very interesting account of the life of Dr. Darwin till his removal from Litchfield. Enough, and more than enough, has appeared from two quarters, of the political and private life of John Wilkes, a man detestable for his moral profligacy, but whose political firmness will be long remembered with gratitude by every friend to the liberty and laws of England. A new and enlarged edition of the life of that ardent and intrepid and guileless, but rash and imprudent man, Gilbert Wakefield, has been published since his death by his two intimate friends, Mr. Rutt, and Mr. Wainwright. Dr. Priestley, whom the Unitarians revere as the restorer of primitive christianity, and whose name his country will always inscribe among her greatest philosophers, has found a biographer (unequal indeed to the mighty task of appreciating his various talents) in Mr. Corry. Mr. Irvine has published a very meritorious sketch of the lives of the Scottish poets ; and an anonymous author has communicated some curious and entertaining theatrical anecdotes in a life of Macklin.

ART. I. *The Life and Posthumous Writings of William Cowper, Esq.* By WILLIAM HAYLEY, Esq. Vol. III. 4to. pp. 416.

THE favourable reception which the public gave to the two former volumes of this work was a sufficient encouragement for the editor to employ his industry in collecting materials for a third ; and we doubt not that he will be thought equally to have consulted the reputation of his deceased friend, and the interests of literature, in his publication of the present volume. It consists entirely of additional letters of Cowper, exclusively of some desultory remarks on the letters of eminent persons, prefixed by the editor, and the fragment of a poem, with which the volume concludes.

Of Mr. Hayley's Remarks on Epistolary Compositions, we have not much to say beyond the epithet which he him-

self gives them, that they are *desultory*. Their chief scope seems to be, the refutation of the common opinion, that letter-writing in England has not attained to the degree of perfection which it has done in France and other countries. He has maintained his point rather by reference to a few instances than by a general estimate ; and there is nothing in the comparison so prominent as his digression to the quarrel between lady Wortley Montagu and Pope, and his apologetical discussion of the epistolary merits of the latter writer. The subsequent sketch of the published letters of eminent persons in different ages and countries is amusing though too superficial to afford much instruction. On reverting to the letters of his

friend, he repeats his former eulogies upon them, which, we believe, their intrinsic merits have fully justified in the opinion of the public; were it not so, his vindication, in the words of Pliny, of *excess* in praising a friend, would scarcely excuse his want of judgment or sincerity as an editor, however *amiable* such a defect might appear.

The letters of Cowper now published, in number 163, are, with very few exceptions, in correspondence with the Rev. John Newton, and the Rev. William Unwin. The cast of these two sets of letters is considerably different. The first have the air of being written to a kind of father-confessor, a revered friend, who had obtained an ascendancy over him at a time when his mind was weakened by the effects of past derangement, and for whose religious and moral character he felt a sincere esteem; but whom, when he returned to the literary ideas and occupations which his genius and education prompted, he discerned not to be qualified for the guide of his taste and the confidant of his studies. The second are marked with all the tender and playful freedom, and the perfect reciprocation of sentiment, which were called forth by a younger friend, (he was the son of the lady with whom Cowper passed so much of his life,) who, to an entire conformity with him of serious principles, added all the elegant furniture of mind arising from early and liberal culture. The letters to Mr. Newton are, however, by no means void of pleasantry, nor, indeed, of literary observation; and, on the other hand, those to Mr. Unwin contain much solid and grave matter; but the general tenor of both corresponds with the ideas above suggested. In particular, those remarks upon books and authors which will most interest the reader, are almost all communicated to Mr. Unwin.

One solitary letter appears written to a *great man*; one, to whom the public were once willing to grant that title exclusively of mere station. Presuming upon the familiar intimacy of early life, the modest Cowper ventured to send it as introductory to the present of his first volume of poems. We shall copy it.

“My lord,

“I make no apology for what I account a duty; I should offend against the cordiality of our former friendship, should I send a volume into the world, and forget how much

I am bound to pay my particular respects to your lordship upon that occasion. When we parted, you little thought of hearing from me again; and I as little, that I should live to write to you, still less, that I should wait on you in the capacity of an author.

“Among the pieces I have the honour to send, there is one, for which I must entreat your pardon. I mean that of which your lordship is the subject. The best excuse I can make is, that it flowed almost spontaneously from the affectionate remembrance of a connection that did me so much honour.

“As to the rest, their merits, if they have any, and their defects, which are probably more than I am aware of, will neither of them escape your notice. But where there is much discernment, there is generally much candour; and I commit myself into your lordship’s hands with the less anxiety, being well acquainted with yours.

“If my first visit, after so long an interval, should prove neither a troublesome, nor a dull one, but especially if not altogether an unprofitable one, *omne tibi punctum*.

“I have the honour to be, though with very different impressions of some subjects, yet with the same sentiments of affection and esteem as ever, your lordship’s faithful, and most obedient, humble servant.”

This letter *produced no answer*. We shall not inquire whether pride, indolence, or insensibility, were the cause of this neglect: if the former, we cannot be sorry that his lordship has lived to see the name of *Cowper* placed at a height in the scale of fame which leaves that of *Thurlow* far beneath it. To posterity the difference will be still more sensible.

Did we think it our business to point out every letter in this collection which is conspicuous either for good sense, taste, or humour or to enter into controversial discussions, wherever we see reason to differ from the author, we should be apt to give this article a disproportionate length. But, as we doubt not that it will be read through by every one who has perused the preceding volumes, and as we wish not to obtrude our own sentiments unnecessarily, we shall content ourselves with adding another specimen or two of the entertainment to be expected from the book.

Cowper’s sentiments concerning public and private education are well known from his masterly poem of “*Tirocinium*.” It may be interesting, however, to see how he reasons upon this important subject in plain prose. The following is a second letter on education written to his friend Unwin, who had a

son of the age which rendered a determination of this point requisite.

"My dear friend,

"Now for the sequel. You have anticipated one of my arguments in favour of a private education, therefore, I need say but little about it. The folly of supposing that the mother-tongue, in some respects the most difficult of all tongues, may be acquired without a teacher, is predominant in all the public schools that I have ever heard of. To pronounce it well, to speak and to write it with fluency and elegance, are no easy attainments; not one in fifty of those who pass through Westminster and Eton, arrive at any remarkable proficiency in these accomplishments; and they that do, are more indebted to their own study, and application for it, than to any instruction received there. In general, there is nothing so pedantic as the style of a school-boy, if he aims at any style at all, and if he does not, he is of course inelegant, and perhaps ungrammatical. A defect, no doubt, in great measure, owing to a want of cultivation, for the same lad that is often commended for his Latin, frequently would deserve to be whipped for his English, if the fault were not more his master's than his own. I know not where this evil is so likely to be prevented as at home. Supposing always, nevertheless, (which is the case in your instance) that the boy's parents, and their acquaintances, are persons of elegance and taste themselves. For to converse with those who converse with propriety, and to be directed to such authors, as have refined and improved the language by their productions, are advantages which he cannot elsewhere enjoy in an equal degree. And though it requires some time to regulate the taste, and form the judgment, and these effects must be gradually wrought even upon the best understanding, yet I suppose, much less time will be necessary for the purpose, than could at first be imagined, because the opportunities of improvement are continual.

"A public education is often recommended as the most effectual remedy for that bashful and awkward restraint, so epidemic among the youth of our country. But I verily believe, that, instead of being a cure, it is often the cause of it. For seven or eight years of his life, the boy has hardly seen or conversed with a man, or a woman, except the maids at his boarding-house. A gentleman or lady are consequently such novelties to him, that he is perfectly at a loss to know what sort of behaviour he should preserve before them. He plays with his buttons, or the strings of his hat, he blows his nose, and hangs down his head, is conscious of his own deficiency to a degree that makes him quite unhappy, and trembles lest any one should speak to him, because that would quite overwhelm him. Is not all this miserable shyness the effect of his education? To

me it appears so. If he saw good company every day, he would never be terrified at the sight of it, and a room full of ladies and gentlemen, would alarm him no more than the chairs they sit on. Such is the effect of custom.

"I need add nothing further on this subject, because I believe little John is as likely to be exempted from this weakness as most young gentlemen we shall meet with. He seems to have his father's spirit in this respect, in whom I could never discern the least trace of bashfulness, though I have often heard him complain of it. Under your management, and the influence of your example, I think he can hardly fail to escape it. If he does, he escapes that which has made many a man uncomfortable for life; and ruined not a few: by forcing them into mean and dishonourable company; where only they could be free and cheerful.

"Connections formed at school, are said to be lasting, and often beneficial. There are two or three stories of this kind upon record, which would not be so constantly cited as they are, whenever this subject happens to be mentioned, if the chronicle that preserves their remembrance, had many besides to boast of. For my own part, I found such friendships, though warm enough in their commencement, surprisingly liable to extinction: and of seven or eight, whom I had selected for intimates, out of about three hundred, in ten years' time not one was left me. The truth is, that there may be, and often is, an attachment of one boy to another, that looks very like a friendship, and while they are in circumstances that enable them mutually to oblige, and to assist each other, promises well, and bids fair to be lasting. But they are no sooner separated from each other, by entering into the world at large, than other connections, and new employments, in which they no longer share together, efface the remembrance of what passed in earlier days, and they become strangers to each other for ever. Add to this, that the *man* frequently differs so much from the *boy*, his principles, manners, temper, and conduct, undergo so great an alteration, that we no longer recognize in him our old play-fellow, but find him utterly unworthy, and unfit for the place he once held in our affections.

"To close this article, as I did the last, by applying myself immediately to the present concern—little John is happily placed above all occasion for dependance on such precarious hopes, and need not be sent to school in quest of some great man in embryo, who may possibly make his fortune."

We shall only remark upon this statement, that if, in fact, modern school-boys are found to be little affected with the awkward bashfulness here complained of, it is probably owing to the cus-

tom (whether, upon the whole, right or wrong, we shall not determine) of bringing them, when at home, earlier and more freely into mixed company. With respect to the perishable nature of boyish friendships, Cowper had too much reason, from his experience, to dwell upon that topic.

Cowper's talent of drawing a literary character, is pleasingly exemplified in his memorial of that truly elegant modern Latinist, Vincent Bourne.

"I love the memory of Vinny Bourne. I think him a better Latin poet than Tibullus, Propertius, Ausonius, or any of the writers in his way, except Ovid, and not at all inferior to him. I love him too with a love of partiality, because he was usher of the fifth form at Westminster, when I passed through it. He was so good-natured, and so indolent, that I lost more than I got by him; for he made me as idle as himself. He was such a sloven, as if he had trusted to his genius as a cloak for every thing that could disgust you in his person; and indeed in his writings, he has almost made amends for all. His humour is entirely original—He can speak of a magpie or a cat, in terms so exquisitely appropriated to the character he draws, that one would suppose him animated by the spirit of the creature he describes. And with all his drollery, there is a mixture of rational, and even religious reflection, at times, and always an air of pleasantry, good-nature, and humanity, that makes him, in my mind, one of the most amiable writers in the world. It is not common to meet with an author, who can make you smile, and yet at nobody's expense; who is always entertaining, and yet always harmless, and who, though always elegant and classical, to a degree not always found in the classics themselves, charms more by the simplicity and playfulness of his ideas, than by the neatness and purity of his verse; yet such was the poet Vinny. I remember seeing the duke of Richmond set fire to his greasy locks, and box his ears to put it out again."

We could with pleasure copy some of his remarks upon Johnson's *Lives of the Poets*, particularly his defence of Prior against the censure of that austere critic; but there is no danger that they will be overlooked, by the literary reader. His observation on a critique of Blair's upon a line in the *Georgics* (letter 103) appears to us dictated by true feeling as well as classical taste; in both of which that author, in the passage referred to, shews a remarkable deficiency. The humour of his comic exemplification of the theory of language adopted by Blair

and Beattie irresistibly compels us to copy it.

"I take it for granted, (he says, in a letter to Mr. Unwin) that these good men are philosophically correct (for they are both agreed upon the subject) in their account of the origin of language; and if the scripture had left us in the dark upon that article, I should very readily adopt their hypothesis, for want of better information. I should suppose for instance, that man made his first effort in speech, in the way of an interjection, and that ah or oh being uttered with wonderful gesticulation, and variety of attitude, must have left his powers of expression quite exhausted: that in a course of time he would invent names for many things, but first for the objects of his daily wants. An apple would consequently be called an apple, and perhaps not many years would elapse before the appellation would receive the sanction of general use. In this case, and upon this supposition, seeing one in the hand of another man, he would exclaim with a most moving pathos, 'Oh apple!—well and good. Oh apple! is a very affecting speech, but in the mean time it profits him nothing. The man that holds it, eats it, and he goes away with Oh apple! in his mouth, and with nothing better. Reflecting on his disappointment, and that perhaps it arose from his not being more explicit, he contrives a term to denote his idea of transfer or gratuitous communication, and the next occasion that offers of a similar kind, performs his part accordingly. His speech now stands thus—'Oh give apple!' The apple-holder perceives himself called upon to part with his fruit, and, having satisfied his own hunger, is perhaps not unwilling to do so. But unfortunately there is still room for a mistake, and a third person being present, he gives the apple to him. Again disappointed, and again perceiving that his language has not all the precision that is requisite, the orator retires to his study, and there, after much deep thinking, conceives that the insertion of a pronoun, whose office shall be to signify that he not only wants the apple to be given, but given to himself, will remedy all defects: he uses it the next opportunity, and succeeds to a wonder, obtains the apple, and by his success, such credit to his invention, that pronouns continue to be in great repute ever after."

Cowper's ideas of religion, though, unfortunately for himself, tinctured with gloom, were, upon the whole, rational and liberal; and he shows in several passages, that he was not a man to be duped with false pretences to sanctity, but, in his judgment of characters, applied the test of practical virtue and piety, rather than that of zeal for particular opinions.

Though a member of the national church, he could distinguish what was really useful in her institutions, from what was specious; and the following remarks upon Mr. Paley's sermon preached at the consecration of bishop Law, contain much sound sense and serious truth.

"I lay it down for a rule, that when much ingenuity is necessary to gain an argument credit, that argument is unsound at bottom. So is his, and so are all the petty devices by which he seeks to enforce it. He says first, that the appointment of various orders in the church, is attended with this good consequence, that each class of people is supplied with a clergy of their own level and description, with whom they may live and associate on terms of equality. But in order to effect this good purpose, there ought to be at least three parsons in every parish, one for the gentry, one for the traders and mechanics, and one for the lowest of the vulgar. Neither is it easy to find many parishes where the laity at large have any society with their minister at all. This therefore is fanciful, and a mere invention. In the next place he says, it gives a dignity to the ministry itself; and the clergy share in the respect paid to their superiors. Much good may such participation do them! They themselves know how little it amounts to. The dignity a parson derives from the lawn-sleeves, and square cap of his diocesan; will never endanger his humility.

"Pope says truly—

'Worth makes the man, and want of it the fellow;

The rest is all but leather or prunella.'

"Again—'Rich and splendid situations in the church have been justly regarded as prizes held out to invite persons of good hopes, and ingenuous attainments.' Agreed. But the prize held out in the scripture is of a very different kind; and our ecclesiastical baits are too often snapped by the worthless, and persons of no attainments at all. They are indeed incentives to avarice and ambition, but not to those acquirements, by which only the ministerial function can be adorned, zeal for the salvation of men, humility, and self-denial. Mr. Paley and I therefore cannot agree."

The twelve letters to lady Hesketh, written in the early part of the poet's life, will be welcome to readers of corresponding religious sentiments, and afford

some interesting matter of the biographical kind. They commence a little before his appointment to the office in the house of lords, which he found himself unable to take up; and proceed to his residence at Huntingdon, after recovery from his derangement, of which melancholy affliction he speaks with great calmness and pious resignation.

The unfinished poem with which the volume concludes is entitled "Yardley Oak." It was fortunately discovered by Hayley in a heap of the writer's old papers. Though a fragment, it was corrected with great care, and it is extraordinary that none of Cowper's intimate friends had the least knowledge of its existence. It appears to have been written in 1791. This piece has all the characteristics of "the Task;" the same strong, familiar, yet poetical diction, the same minuteness and novelty of description, intermixed with the same elevated strain of moral reflection. The versification is remarkably Miltonic; free, richly varied, and often strikingly melodious. We less regret its remaining in the state of a fragment, as that part of it which relates to the obvious subject, the description of a superannuated oak, once king of the forest, may be regarded as complete; and what we lose was planned on so wide a scale, that it manifestly did not admit of being formed into a single whole; at least, we are not tantalized with a foresight of what it might have been. Conceiving the oak as having been the mute witness of the lapse of ages, he speaks, as it were, in its stead, and reverts to the condition of the father of mankind, while yet a solitary being. What could have limited his discourse, when he commences with that period in which, according to his picturesque imagery,

"——— History, not wanted yet,

Lean'd on her elbow, watching time, whose course

Eventful should supply her with a theme?"

We will not rob this choice morsel of any more of its beauties, but leave it entire to the reader's appetite.

ART. II. *The Letters of Gessner and his Family; from the German.* Crown 8vo. pp. 248.

THIS is an interesting correspondence between Gessner and his son Conrad, who left his paternal roof at Zurich, in order to study painting at Dresden.

Here he remained two years; he then paid a visit to his parents, and afterwards set out for Rome, from which place the correspondence is renewed.

The German Theocritus, by profession, and, as it were, by birth a printer and bookseller, found leisure in mature life to cultivate the art of painting. His own works, which were printed at his own press, were also decorated by his own graver. Gessner was alike successful in the employment of his pencil and his pen: if he was considered as the first of pastoral poets, the most correct, elegant, and chaste, he was also numbered among the best artists in Germany. His letter on landscape-painting, addressed to Mr. Fuesslin, his countryman, and himself a painter, shews, as we have remarked in another place, the attention with which Gessner had studied the works of the first artists, and the felicity with which he had united and blended the tastes of the painter and the poet.

His son Conrad was born with a portion of his father's genius, and imbibed all his enthusiasm: his father, amiable, indulgent, and judicious, spared no expense or labour to perfect him in his profession, which, in return, the young man pursued with unremitting assiduity and deserved success. All these letters are on the subject of painting; those from the father contain advice and instruction resulting from his own experience and observation, and do great credit to his taste and his judgment. Those from the son breathe the ardour of genius in the bosom of youth; they also contain remarks on the various styles of different masters, and indicate his own improvements.

A few letters are also incorporated, of masculine sense and strong maternal affection, from the pen of Madame Gessner to her son: indeed the collection altogether is interesting. The young artist will profit by the perusal; he will find a great many hints which may help to improve his taste, direct his studies, and advance him in his profession. Their value, however, is not limited to the students of the academy: as exhibiting a picture of domestic felicity, of filial and parental love, they must be universally interesting. Take the following as a specimen, from the delicate and pleasing pen of Madame Gessner:—

"You will, no doubt, read more than once, my dear son, the letter which your father has just written to you. The instructive observations of an able artist are united with the affectionate advice of a tender father,

who wishes to encourage the ardour of his son, and give him those directions which will be most useful to him. Your letters prove, that you know how to profit from both. There are passages in them which shew me your whole heart undisguised, and which are of inestimable value to mine. I am not capable of judging of your talents, as an artist; but I observe in your conduct the principles of a good and honest man, which is the most solid foundation of my peace and comfort. This, believe me, is the sweetest recompence which a mother can experience from her children, who, not satisfied with merely bringing them into the world, feels it the duty and pleasure of her whole life to be useful to them on every possible occasion. Continue as you have begun, my dear son; and we shall one day owe to each other our mutual happiness.

"Fear has given you lessons in architecture; do not omit, therefore, to recompense him for his trouble in a suitable manner. I think with sorrow of his departure; because this separation from the friend of your youth must be very painful to you. Arm yourself with courage, and endeavour to moderate the too lively affections of your heart. I have frequently remarked, with some regret, the excessive attachment you indulge towards those, who see and feel as you do yourself, and the total neglect with which you seem to treat every one else. I should reproach a man with such a fault, who was destined to pass his life in a small and unvarying circle; but in an artist, who has a great object in view, and whose country is the whole world, this disposition seems to me likely to produce a great number of inconveniences.

"Alas, my son! the life you have hitherto led in your father's house has been in fact a pastoral life, and not such a one as was necessary for the education of a man, whose destiny summons him into the world. I feel it but too strongly; your daily commerce with your father, the angelic goodness of his heart, the friendliness and soft simplicity of his character, which preserved an habitual serenity and innocent quietude round his fireside; the select circle of friends which a conformity of taste and sentiment, and a real love for all that is good and noble, so strongly attached to him; all these were sources of the purest degree of pleasure for your youth: and may the remembrance of these happy days long remain impressed on your mind! it will still procure you many enjoyments, and, above all, an advantage of great importance to you, that of rendering you more difficult in the formation of new friendships; the openness and sincerity of your character will, no doubt, often make you feel embarrassed in the great world, until experience has taught you the art of living in it; but never forget, my dear child, that in this world you must be guided by your head, and not trust to your heart alone; the union of them is what constitutes

a truly estimable man, and renders him useful to society, but in that, as well as in every thing else, your father will be your best model.

"Adieu, my dear son; I am your affectionate mother."

ART. III. *An authentic Account of the late unfortunate Death of Lord Camelford; with an Extract from his Lordship's Will, and some Remarks upon his Character. By the Rev. Wm. COCKBURN, A. M.* 8vo. pp. 16.

ART. IV. *A Letter to the Rev. W. Cockburne, &c.* 8vo. pp. 16.

THE principal object which Mr. Cockburne seems to have had in view in the publication of these few pages, was to state in general terms that lord Camelford, who had made himself so notorious by the eccentricities of his character, and the irregularities of his conduct, was possessed of a generous disposition; that his feelings were very acute; that, although a stern adversary, he was the kindest and most generous of friends. His benevolence was active, and no appeal was ever made in vain to his humanity. The paragraph quoted from lord Camelford's will strongly marks the nobleness of his disposition:

"There are many other matters which at another time I might be inclined to mention, but I will say nothing more at present, than that in the present contest I am fully and entirely the aggressor, as well in the spirit, as in the letter of the word; should I therefore lose my life in a contest of my own seeking, I most solemnly forbid any of my friends or relations, let them be of whatsoever description they may, from instituting any vexatious proceedings against my antagonist; and should, notwithstanding the above declaration on my part, the laws of the land be put in force against him, I desire that this part of my will may be known to the king, in order that his royal heart may be moved to extend his mercy towards him."

The secondary object of this publication was to expose the negligence of the officers of the police: Townsend was made acquainted with the intended duel, at the opera, about ten o'clock, and a regular information was lodged at Marlborough street before nine. Yet to the best of my knowledge, says Mr. Cockburne, no steps were taken to prevent

the meeting till near two o'clock, when some officers were placed at lord Camelford's door, but alas, too late!

In consequence of this charge, Mr. Neve, one of the magistrates of the public office in Great Marlborough street, has addressed "A Letter to the Rev. W. Cockburne, occasioned by his Pamphlet," &c. It is written with considerable acrimony; with acrimony arising, as it seems, from a sense of gross and wilful injury. Mr. Neve has made it appear that the officers of Marlborough street, though defeated in their exertions to prevent the unhappy duel, were indefatigably active on the occasion; he has made it appear, too, that lord Camelford, from the eccentricity of his character, was an object of their particular solicitude, and on several former occasions had been indebted to this office for the care of that reputation of which himself had been so negligent. We are sorry to add, that it appears too from this pamphlet, that although Mr. Cockburne was informed that the statements which he had made relative to this office were altogether unfounded; and although he had been required by one of the magistrates, Mr. Conant himself, to recal, or at least stop the distribution of, his pamphlet; he has nevertheless wilfully persevered in the propagation of a calumny. To avoid the suspicion of having been actuated by some sinister motive, it was clearly incumbent on Mr. Cockburne to have stated the reasons which could have induced him to turn a deaf ear to the facts communicated to him by Mr. Conant. Mr. Neve has completely exonerated the magistrates from the charge of inattention.

ART. V. *The Historie and Life of King James the Sext, written towards the latter End of the Sixteenth Century.* 8vo. pp. 294.

THE historiographer to queen Anne, David Crawford of Drumsay, found and quoted the fragment of a life of James, the sixth of Scotland, and the first of England, which is here for the first time published from the original

manuscript. It extends from 1566 to 1580, and appears to have been drawn up about the year 1590, as the marriage of king James is alluded to as a recent event. The superintendence of this edition has been undertaken by Malcolm

Laing, esq. the distinguished historian of Scotland, which is a sufficient pledge both for the value of the biography, and the fidelity of the publication. The manuscript itself belongs to lord Belhaven.

A short specimen of the narrative will suffice.

"Thair was Robert Dowglas, earle of Buchan, lieutenant for the regent, chacit with three hundred horsmen in his company; thair were taken prisoneris nine scoire and ten gentillmen or thairby, and this was done upoun the fyft day of July, a littil eftir midnyght.

"Then he cawsit bring all the prisoneris befor him, and spake unto thame in this manner. Gude contreyemen, ye know that all victorie lyes in the hand of God, to whais holy name be all laud, praise, and honor for ever. And albeit ye haue thir dayes by gane stubburnly resistit to the queene's maiestie's lawful pouer, and me hir lieutenant, I will not use onie severity againes you at this time, for onie euill example offrit unto me be the tyrannie usit be the regent. But be ye contrare, I will offer you all humanitie that I may, providing that fra this day furthe, ye will behaue yourselues as dewtieful subiects to the queene, and neuer cum in the contrare: quhilk I beseeke you to do, and promise this unto me, as ye will answer to God. And they all, with a joyful voyce and cheerful countenance, be holding up thair handis, promittit faithfullie to do that, and presentlie ilk one of thame promittit to be gude for utheris, be thair subscriptiones then maid; and so he demittit thame freely.

"Thairefter he cum toward the tonne of Monrose, and pitched doune his campe in the syght of the toun. And the magistrattis fearing his invasioun, sent out twa honest men to enquire of him, quhat he meant to cum sa narr thair in warlyk manner; and gif he intendit to do thame onie skayth or not. He ansrit, that he desirit simplic, that first they should acknowledge him as the queene's lieutenant be lettre patent, quhilk he than shew unto thame; secondly, that thai should neuer oppon thameselves in word or deed againes the queene's autoritie, but should fortifie and assist hir and hir lieutenant with all thair might; thridly, that for observing and acknowledging of thir promiess's, they should give in some of thair burgess unto him to remane with him as ostages; and last of all, because they hade offendit in time bygaine, that they should offer him a certane pecuniat sum, in recompence of thair remission to be grauntit for the same.

"The twa men acceptit the petitiones verrie humlye as messengeris, and desyrt a saife convoy from the campe to the toun, that thai myght report the same to the counsall, and thairefter to bring anser. And quhen the magistrattis; with the assistance of their counsall, hade redd and considerit the petitiones, thai thought gude, for isherwing of the imminent present danger, to accept of the queene's autoritie; to desire the lieutenant humble and earnestlie that he wald not burden thame with ostages, seeing it was a thing not usit in this comonweill, and how difficill a thing it were for them to performe; seeing na man wald willingly graunt thairunto, and to send them bund, it should be thought againes all christian humanitie, quhilk they hopit his heart did abhorre; and thairefter, in respect of the pouertie of the toun, that he wald nominat some small sowme unto thame, that might be collected but harme of the pure. Quhen thir answer were with all humilitie and reuerence presentit unto him with monie words of pittie and lamentation, he acceptit of thame in that same forme, and tauld thame quhat a sowme he requyrit, and this was quicklie brocht unto him: Quhairupoun he departed with his campe toward Glenbervie againe. The norallis of thir proceedings were caryed to the regent; and he cuming northward, maid his proclamatiouns, willing all men to follow him: and they being abkeist to the queene's lieutenant but so laitlye of befoire, absentit thaimselues at that time; quhilk was the cheef cans of his suddaine returne, quhairby the said lieutenant triumphit as he list, without onie impediment."

From the account of the queen's sickness at Jedburg, the author appears to have been a roman catholic, and to have inclined to the Hamilton party: whether the account of the death of Mary has been detached from the prejudice of faction, or was never composed, may perhaps be ascertained by future research; for the manuscript terminates in so abrupt a manner, that a continuation must surely once have existed.

How honourable it is to the literary zeal and industry of Scotland thus to publish the manuscripts of their libraries, and to illustrate their national antiquities: while at Oxford, at Cambridge, and in the British museum, so many unprinted chronicles and poems, Saxon, and Norman, and Oriental, are slumbering in useless invisibility, or mouldering into irrevocable oblivion!

ART. VI. *Memoirs of Charles Macklin, Comedian; with the Dramatic Characters, Manners, Anecdotes, &c. of the Age in which he lived: forming an History of the Stage during almost the whole of the last Century: and a chronological List of all the Parts played by him.* 8vo. pp. 444.

THE appearance of this volume a little surprises us, as we perfectly well remember to have read, about five years ago, two octavo volumes of memoirs of this dramatic Nestor, compiled from his own papers and memorandums, by Mr. Kirkman, of Lincoln's inn. That work, like the present, contains Macklin's criticisms on, and characters and anecdotes of, Betterton, Booth, Wilks, Cibber, Garrick, Mossop, Sheridan, Foote, Quin, Barry, &c. &c. We have not compared the two works, but from recollection we are inclined to believe that Mr. Kirkman's biographical narrative is more regular and connected than the present, and contains moreover several original letters from Macklin to his children. Those letters did infinite honour to Macklin as a father and a husband: sensible of his own indiscretions, but good at bottom, his instructions and advice evinced the warmest solicitude for the respectability, the strict integrity, and honour, of his children. Only one letter, and that of no interest, is introduced here. Our present memorialist also has been guilty of an unpardonable omission in not even alluding, in the remotest manner, to the most prominent and unfortunate incident in the whole life of Macklin, namely, that he "was indicted for the wilful murder of Thomas Hallam, by thrusting a stick into his left eye, and thereby giving him a mortal wound of the breadth of a quarter of an inch, and depth of one inch and a half, May the 10th, 1735, of which wound he languished till the next day, and then died." This was the unhappy effect of Mack-

lin's violent and passionate temper: it was committed in a momentary fit of anger, without premeditation or malice, and the jury very properly brought in a verdict of manslaughter. The compliment, too, paid by lord Mansfield to Macklin, when the latter convicted Messrs. Clarke, James, Leigh, and others, of a conspiracy and riot at the theatre, is omitted in these Memoirs. The defendants, it appeared, had, with the most malevolent and unprovoked intentions, meditated the utter ruin of poor Macklin: he convicted them in the court of King's Bench, extended his mercy towards the fallen culprits, and exemplified throughout the business such spirit, generosity, and general good feeling, that lord Mansfield complimented him in open court: "Mr. Macklin, you have met with great applause to-day; you never acted better."

If the volume before us is, in some respects, deficient of matter which Mr. Kirkman justly thought worthy of introduction, it is on the other hand free from a great deal of very tedious and dull detail which is there given of theatrical broils, the petty-fogging intrigues of managers, and the jealousies of actors and actresses. This volume is written with a good deal of spirit, abounds with anecdote, theatrical criticism, characters, &c. and is altogether exceedingly amusing. If we consider it, also, as affording an historical sketch of the stage during the lapse of a century, it is entitled to rank higher than a work of mere amusement.

ART. VII. *An Account of the Life of James Beattie, LL. D. Professor of Moral Philosophy and Logic at Aberdeen.* By ALEXANDER BOWER. 8vo. pp. 240.

JAMES Beattie was born on the 5th November, 1735, and went to a Latin school kept at Lawrence-kirk, his birth-place, by a Mr. Milne. In 1749 he was sent to Aberdeen, obtained silver medals for his proficiency, and became a bursar, that is, a student assisted by public revenues, at that university. He finished at college in 1754, and undertook for a maintenance the parish-school at Fordoun, where he also officiated as parish clerk, but continued to keep terms as a

student of divinity. In 1758 he got elected to the grammar-school at Aberdeen, probably through the interest of lord Gardenstone, who early distinguished the assiduity and acquirements of Beattie. His poems, many of which had appeared singly in Scotch magazines, were first collected in 1761, and published by subscription: but the advertisement announcing the collection had appeared in 1760, and had been handed through lord Gardenstone to

government, with strong recommendations of the author as an object of patronage. Similar solicitations had been made in behalf of a Mr. Skene. Two vacancies occurring at once in the professorships at Aberdeen, two patents came down at once filled up alike, the one appointing Mr. Beattie, and the other appointing Mr. Skene, to be professor of philosophy. This vague word would do for either chair,—the lectureship on natural and civil philosophy and history, or the lectureship on moral philosophy and logic. The gentlemen were both universal geniuses, adapted for either department; but both preferred the latter, as it was a course more in vogue, and therefore more profitable. They drew lots for the place; and Beattie became professor of moral philosophy.

There is a passage which we must quote, because we cannot decypher.

"Mr. Beattie had the honour of seeing him (Mr. Ferguson) in Aberdeen, in the month of October, 1766. For he then married Miss Catharine Burnet, daughter of Mr. James Burnet, merchant there, who was nearly related to Dr. Joseph Black."

Whether this paragraph narrates the marriage of Mr. Beattie, or of Mr. Ferguson, we cannot guess.

In 1770 a degree, granted by King's College, transformed Mr. into Dr. Beattie. About this period his prose works appeared successively. Dr. Beattie survived two promising sons, and died

at Aberdeen on the 18th of August, 1803.

Dr. Beattie's reputation is on the wane: it was artificially heightened in order to obtain and to justify the patronage of majesty. Of his poems the *Minstrel* is the best; it is harmonious, but it wants incident and drift: the author loiters in endless description, and laments in common-place sentences, so as to excite in his readers an action between a yawn and a sigh. His prose is feeble than his poetry: the style is clear; but it is the clearness of stagnation, through which one discovers a muddiness of thought at bottom. The theory of language, particularly the chapter on prosody, retains some hold, if not some claim on attention.

But we are forgetting, over Dr. Beattie, his biographer, who has performed his monumental task very much at length, and hopes to make a giant of his hero, by causing him to overspread in his death fourteen sheets of letter-press. Of Scotch schools, Scotch colleges, and Scotch celebrity, copious accounts are interspersed; and if one is not very anxious for the principal character, at least one does not hear much about him. The criticism at page 215 is a profanation of the ashes of Burns: to put Beattie in competition with a poet of that rank, is to compare the millener's paper geraniums with nature's mountain daisy.

ART. VIII. *Memoirs of the Life, Writings, and Correspondence, of Sir William Jones.*
By Lord TEIGNMOUTH. 4to. pp. 531.

OF the literary characters which have adorned the present age, it would not be easy, perhaps, to produce a single one so generally accomplished and universally estimable as the late sir William Jones. To a vigour of intellectual faculties that has scarcely ever been surpassed, he joined the elegance of cultivated life, together with a manly independent spirit, and a heart open to all the social affections. His writings, in an almost unprecedented degree, unite profound and recondite literature with fine taste and a lively imagination; and while no man was ever more awake to subjects of learned curiosity, he devoted his most serious attention to the discharge of his professional duties. The memoirs of such a person cannot but be highly interesting; and the task of giving them

to the public has happily been undertaken by one, whose intimacy with the deceased afforded him every opportunity of accurate information, while his very respectable character and elevated rank are a warrant for the truth of his representations, and the propriety of his sentiments.

Lord Teignmouth has adopted that mode of biographical composition, consisting of narrative interspersed with letters, which has been sanctioned by various late examples. Of this mixed mode we have given our opinion at some length in our account of Mr. Hayley's *Life of Cowper* (Ann. Rev. vol. ii. 457), and we shall not here repeat it. Whatever be its defects, we are sensible that it is capable of producing a deservedly popular work.

There is no part of biography more pleasing and instructive than that which gives a view of the early years of an eminent person, and points out the circumstances by which moral and intellectual character has been originally formed, or, at least, lastingly modified. The life of sir W. Jones is remarkable in this particular. Being in his infancy left to the care of a widow mother, who appears to have been a woman of excellent understanding, as well as a most exemplary parent, she commenced his education, in the manner described in the following paragraph.

"In the plan adopted by Mrs. Jones for the instruction of her son, she proposed to reject the severity of discipline, and to lead his mind insensibly to knowledge and exertion, by exciting his curiosity and directing it to useful objects. To his incessant importunities for information on casual topics of conversation, which she watchfully stimulated, she constantly replied, *read, and you will know*; a maxim, to the observance of which he always acknowledged himself indebted for his future attainments. By this method, his desire to learn became as eager as her wish to teach; and such was her talent of instruction, and his facility of retaining it, that in his fourth year he was able to read distinctly and rapidly any English book. She particularly attended at the same time to the cultivation of his memory, by making him learn and repeat some of the popular speeches in Shakespeare, and the best of Gay's Fables."

We cannot altogether concur with the noble biographer in the epithet of "premature instruction," which he indirectly applies to such a plan; and we are persuaded that, where nature has been tolerably propitious, such early attention to furnish the mind and form habits of active inquiry, will generally be rewarded by uncommon proficiency.

The school history of young Jones is singularly interesting. Harrow was the place which had the honour of initiating him in the learned languages, or, more properly, of conducting him to such a mastery in them, that nothing more remained for him in the pursuit of classical literature, than to re-peruse with mature judgment authors which were already rendered easy and familiar to him. His ardour for learning was insatiable, and took place of all the usual relaxations of a school boy; yet it was attended with no singularities of behaviour, or unsocial propensities. The following

anecdote, which also relates to two other celebrated men, will give an idea of the spirit by which he was actuated at that early period of life.

"He invented a political play, in which Dr. William Bennet, bishop of Cloyne, and the celebrated Dr. Parr, were his principal associates. They divided the fields in the neighbourhood of Harrow, according to a map of Greece, into states and kingdoms; each fixed upon one as his dominion, and assumed an ancient name. Some of their school fellows consented to be styled barbarians, who were to invade their territories and attack their hillocks, which were denominated fortresses. The chiefs vigorously defended their respective domains against the incursions of the enemy; and in these imitative wars, the young statesmen held councils, made vehement harangues, and composed memorials, all doubtless very boyish, but calculated to fill their minds with ideas of legislation and civil government. In these unusual amusements, Jones was ever the leader; and he might justly have appropriated to himself the words of Catullus:

"*Ego gymnasii flos, ego decus olei.*"

Such was the character he established by his talents and exertions, that his first master, Dr. Thackeray, said of him, that if he were left naked and friendless upon Salisbury Plain, he would find the road to fame and riches; and his second master, Dr. Sumner, made him his prime favourite, and declared that Jones knew more Greek than he did.

The next stage in our young scholar's education was Oxford. How far this celebrated seat of learning is entitled to boast of its share in forming the mind of this illustrious disciple, the biographer's narrative enables us to judge. We are told that his expectations of meeting with a Sumner or an Askew in every master of arts were disappointed; and that from the public lectures, he derived little gratification or instruction, as being very much below the standard of his attainments. They were, at that period, "dull comments on artificial ethics, and logic detailed in such barbarous Latin, that he professed to know as little of it as he then did of Arabic." His own plan of study was very different, comprehending a critical examination of all the great authors of antiquity, and the ardent pursuit of oriental literature, which even before he left school was a favourite object with him. His college tutors, finding that he might safely be intrusted with the management of his own time

and studies, "dispensed with his attendance on their lectures, alledging with equal truth and civility, that he could employ his time to more advantage." His dislike of the university thenceforth subsided; and he felt great satisfaction in the means of instruction afforded by its libraries and learned members, which rendered his residence there equally pleasant and improving. He stood forth afterwards as the vindicator of its fame, and ever regarded it with respect and attachment. Nothing properly academic, however, appears in the plan he adopted, which comprised the modern languages, the polite exercises, and, in short, extended to every thing recommended in Milton's scheme of education, which he had by heart. Thus, as he nobly observed, "with the fortune of a peasant, he was giving himself the education of a prince."

His residence at Oxford was shortened by his acceptance of the office of private tutor to lord Althorpe, (the present earl Spencer) in which situation he enjoyed the opportunity of visiting the continent. Such was his proficiency in the French language, that his first publication was a translation into French of a Persian manuscript containing the life of Nadir Shah, which was brought into England by the king of Denmark. It may be remarked as a singular coincidence, that another literary ornament of this country, Mr. Gibbon (also distinguished for an early passion for excursive reading) made his commencement as a writer in the same foreign language.

Most of the earlier letters of Mr. Jones, introduced in this work, are in a correspondence with Mr. Reviczki, a Polish nobleman of great accomplishments, and particularly attached to oriental literature. They are written partly in Latin, partly in French, and chiefly relate to literary topics. Translations of them are given by the biographer in the text, and the originals are in the appendix. It is not in letters of this kind that we are to look for strokes of real character; although, therefore, we do not dispute the propriety of inserting them, as containing valuable critical matter, and displaying the extent of the writer's acquisitions, we shall not extract any of them for the entertainment of our readers. The following letter of Mr. Jones to lord Althorpe, after he had resigned the

post of his preceptor, and was become a student of the law, will probably be read with general interest.

"November 22.

"I rejoice, my dear friend, that you have acquired that ingenious distrust, which Epicharmus calls a *sineu of wisdom*. It is certain that doubt impels us to inquire, and inquiry often ends in conviction. You will be able, when you come to London, to examine with the minutest *scrupulosity*, as Johnson would call it, the properties of that singular animal, who is in the rivers of South America, what Jupiter was feigned to be among the gods, a *darter of lightning*, and should be named *αστραπτορος*, instead of *gymnotos*. He certainly has (if an academic may venture to affirm any thing) a mode of perception peculiar to himself; but whether that perception can properly be called a *new sense*, I leave you to determine: it is a modification, indeed, of feeling; but are not all our senses so? I desire, however, that in this, and in every thing, you will form your own judgment. As to the *παλαγγινισια* of our noble constitution, which has happily presented itself to your imagination, the very idea fixes me with rapture. No, my dear lord, never believe that any thing is impossible to virtue; no, if ten such as you conceive such sentiments as your letter contains, and express them as forcibly, if you retain these sentiments, as you certainly will, when you take your place in parliament, I will not despair of seeing the most glorious of sights, a *nation freely governed by its own laws*. This I promise, that, if such a decemvirate should ever attempt to restore our constitutional liberty by constitutional means, I would exert in the cause, such talents as I have; and, even, if I were oppressed with sickness, and torn with pain, would start from my couch, and exclaim with Trebonius, "if you mean to act worthily, O Romans! I am well." The speech, you find, was composed and delivered without any news about Maryland, it is * *λογος θμυλα μοναρχικος και κρατιστικος*, and breathes a deliberate firmness. Lord Chatham spoke with a noble vigour for a veteran orator, and your bishop pronounced an elegant harangue. I wish lord Granby had more courage as a public speaker; all men speak highly of him, but he will never be eloquent till he is less modest. Charles Fox poured forth with amazing rapidity and continued invective against lord G. Germaine; and Burke was so pathetic, that many declare they saw him shed tears. The ministers in both houses were sullen and reserved, but lord Sandwich boldly contradicted the duke of Richmond on the state of the navy. I grieve that our senate is dwindled into a school of rhetoric, where men rise to display their abilities rather than to deliberate, and wish to be admired without hoping to co-

vince. Adieu, my dear lord : I steal these few moments from a dry legal investigation, but I could not defer the pleasure of answering a letter which gave me inexpressible delight."

To this, for the further illustration of the writer's political character, we shall subjoin an extract from another letter, to the same noble person. Its date is Feb. 4, 1780.

"At the same time I solemnly declare, that I would not enlist under the banners of a party, a declaration which is I believe useless, because no party would receive a man, determined as I am, to think for himself. To you alone, my friend, and to your interests I am firmly attached, both from early habit and from mature reason, from ancient affection unchanged for a single moment, and from a full conviction that such affection was well placed. The views and wishes of all other men I will analyse and weigh with that suspicion and slowness of belief, which my experience, such as it is, has taught me; and to be more particular, although I will be jealous of the *regal* part of our constitution, and always lend an arm towards restraining its proud waves within due limits, yet my most vigilant and strenuous efforts shall be directed against any oligarchy that may rise, being convinced, that on the popular part of every government depends its real force, the obligation of its laws, its welfare, its security, its permanence."

A remarkable incident in the life of sir W. Jones, was his becoming a candidate to represent in parliament the university of Oxford. As he had not concealed his sentiments respecting the American war, or his predilection for the popular part of the constitution, it is rather extraordinary that he should expect to be honoured with the political confidence of that learned body; and his failure must occasion less surprise than that he met with respectable support. A very spirited and classical ode to liberty, which he printed at this period, was supposed to have lost him many votes! About the same time he published a pamphlet, entitled, "An Inquiry into the legal Mode of suppressing Riots, with a Constitutional Plan of future Defence." The doctrine in this piece was not likely to be acceptable to the ministers of that period, and the writer aggravated his political offences by the open support he gave to the attempts for promoting a reformation of parliament, and his acceptance of a proposal from the society for constitutional information, to become one of its members. His anonymous publication of "A Dialogue between a Farmer and a Country Gentleman on the Principles of

Government," was thought so dangerous, that a bill of indictment was found against the dean of St. Asaph (his brother-in-law) for its republication in Wales; but, (such are the turns and changes in the political world) at the very time that this prosecution was pending, the accession of lord Shelburne to the post of prime-minister, put Mr. Jones in possession of the office he had long desired, that of one of the judges in India, together with the honour of knighthood. These extraordinary occurrences are related with great fairness by the noble biographer, and are elucidated by several letters to and from different persons.

India was the great theatre of sir W. Jones's public life; and the reader cannot view, without the highest admiration, his indefatigable exertions to promote the interests of science and literature; and, what was more important, to place upon a just and solid foundation the juridical administration of the countries under the English dominion in that quarter of the world. His services in those respects are displayed both in the narrative of his biographer, and in the letters intermixed. His purely literary labours are, indeed, well known to the learned world by his numerous separate publications, which have appeared in a collective form in the edition of all his works since his death. The great object of his industry, with the purpose of making himself professionally useful, was the compilation and translation of a digest of Hindu and Mahomedan laws, for the direction of our judges in deciding controversies between the natives of India. His letter to the governor-general, lord Cornwallis, on this subject, is full of important information, and testifies the ardour with which he pursued his benevolent purpose. His proposal of superintending such a work could not fail of a favourable reception; and he proceeded with so much vigour in the task, that he had the satisfaction of seeing a great part of it completed before his lamented death. This event is thus related by the biographer.

"I now turn to the last scene of the life of sir William Jones. The few months allotted to his existence, after the departure of lady Jones, were devoted to his usual occupations, and more particularly to the discharge of that duty which alone detained him in India, the completion of the digest of Hindu and Mahomedan law. But neither the consciousness of acquitting himself of an

obligation which he had voluntarily contracted, nor his incessant assiduity, could fill the vacancy occasioned by the absence of her, whose society had sweetened the toil of application, and cheered his hours of relaxation. Their habits were congenial, and their pursuits in some respects similar: his botanical researches were facilitated by the eyes of lady Jones, and by her talents in drawing; and their evenings were generally passed together, in the perusal of the best modern authors in the different languages of Europe. After her departure he mixed more in promiscuous society; but his affections were transported with her to his native country.

"On the evening of the 20th of April, or nearly about that date, after prolonging his walk to a late hour, during which he had imprudently remained in conversation in an unwholesome situation, he called upon the writer of these sheets, and complained of aguish symptoms, mentioned his intention to take some medicine, and repeated jocularly an old proverb, that "an ague in the spring is medicine for a king." He had no suspicion at the time, of the real nature of his indisposition, which proved, in fact, to be a complaint common in Bengal, an inflammation in the liver. The disorder was, however, soon discovered by the penetration of the physician, who, after two or three days, was called in to his assistance; but it had then advanced too far to yield to the efficacy of the medicines usually prescribed, and they were administered in vain. The progress of the complaint was uncommonly rapid, and terminated fatally on the 27th of April 1794. On the morning of that day, his attendants, alarmed at the evident symptoms of approaching dissolution, came precipitately to call the friend who has now the melancholy task to record the mournful event. Not a moment was lost in repairing to his house. He was lying on his bed in a posture of meditation, and the only symptom of remaining life was a small degree of motion in the heart, which, after a few seconds, ceased, and he expired without a pang or groan. His bodily suffering, from the complacency of his features and the ease of his attitude, could not have been severe; and his mind must have derived consolation from those sources where he had been in the habit of seeking it, and where alone, in our last moments, it can ever be found.

"The deep regret which I felt at the time, that the apprehensions of the attendants of sir William Jones had not induced them to give me earlier notice of the extremity of his situation, is not yet obliterated. It would have afforded me an opportunity of performing the pleasing, but painful office, of soothing his last moments; and I should have felt the sincerest gratification in receiving his latest commands; nor would it have been less satisfactory to the public, to have known the dying sentiments and behaviour of a man, who had so long and deservedly enjoyed so

large a portion of their esteem and admiration.

"An anecdote of sir William Jones, upon what authority I know not, has been recorded, that immediately before his dissolution he retired to his closet, and expired in the act of adoration to his creator. Such a circumstance would have been conformable to his prevailing habits of thinking and reflection, but it is not founded in fact: he died upon his bed, and in the same room in which he had remained from the commencement of his indisposition.

"The funeral ceremony was performed on the following day, with the honours due to his public station: and the numerous attendance of the most respectable British inhabitants of Calcutta evinced their sorrow for his loss, and their respect for his memory."

This narrative is succeeded by a summary of the character, moral and intellectual, of this eminent person; which, though drawn by a friendly hand, contains nothing that the history of his life does not abundantly justify. In two points, however, the writer has laboured to give a colouring, perhaps, more conformable to his own wishes and opinions, than to the rules of exact delineation. Attempting to soften what would be obnoxious to many in the political sentiments of his friend, he has given a quotation from one of his Asiatic discourses to prove "that he was not tainted with the wild theories of licentiousness, mis-called liberty, which have been propagated with unusual industry since the revolution in France." Yet it is certain, that the fundamental principle of that revolution, as well as of all other political changes of a popular kind, viz. that the people are the only source of all legitimate authority, was held as fully and firmly by sir William Jones, as by any political theorist whatsoever; although he had too much wisdom and virtue not to have abhorred those atrocious violations of justice and humanity, which have so indelibly disgraced the *practice* of the French revolutionists, and which were constantly deplored by the true friends of liberty.

The other point is the state of his opinions with respect to the christian revelation. Having admitted that he sat out in early life with doubts on this head, the biographer takes uncommon pains to prove that they terminated in settled conviction of its truth and high importance. We cannot but think, however, that he has laid more stress than they will bear upon certain declarations

of his, which, indeed, amount to a profession of general belief in the divine nature and mission of Christ, but scarcely to that degree of certainty which the biographer would infer. It is remarkable, that a very sublime prayer, composed by him twelve years before his death, is purely theistical; and an epitaph which he wrote shortly before that event, and which he evidently intended for himself, speaks no other language, its date alone excepted. This we shall copy as a valuable sketch of the character he wished to be, and appears really to have been.

“Here was deposited
the mortal part of a man,
who feared God, but not death;
and maintained independence,
but sought not riches;
who thought
none below him but the base and unjust,
none above him, but the wise and virtuous;
who loved
his parents, kindred, friends, country,
with an ardour,
which was the chief source of
all his pleasures and all his pains;
and who, having devoted
his life to their service,
and to
the improvement of his mind,
resigned it calmly,
giving glory to his Creator,
wishing peace on earth,
and with
good-will to all creatures,
on the (twenty-seventh) day of (April)
in the year of our blessed Redeemer,
one thousand seven hundred (and ninety-
four.)”

The truth probably was, that the evidence for the Mosaic and Christian revelation obtained his assent as historical propositions, and that he was forcibly impressed with the sublime and pure morality of the latter; but that, with respect to its peculiar doctrines, he had not been able to satisfy his mind.

ART. IX. *Original Correspondence of Jean Jacques Rousseau, with Mad. La Tour De Franqueville, and M. Du Peyron, late Burgher of Neuchâtel. Translated from the French. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 695.*

THESE letters will give more pleasure to the enemies than to the friends of Rousseau. Enemies, indeed, he has now none, in the strict sense of the word, for his day of warfare is over, and his generation past away.

The correspondence with Madame la Tour de Franqueville began in a very *novelish* way; the word romantic should

It is to be mentioned to the honour of lord Teignmouth's candour, that in his preface he has apprized the reader of the discovery, that a remarkable passage in the 367th page of his *Memoirs*, appearing as the Sanscrit representation of the story of Noah and his three sons, and which seems to have made a great impression on sir William Jones, was the forgery of a learned Hindu.

The appendix of this volume contains “The design of Britain Discovered, an heroic poem,” which was drawn up by Mr. Jones at the age of twenty-three: “A Prefatory Discourse to an Essay on the History of the Turks:” and some short original pieces in Latin, Italian, and English. It concludes with a very elegant tribute to his memory by the duchess of Devonshire, with which we cannot forbear to decorate our pages.

“Teignmouth, 1795.

“Unbounded learning, thoughts by genius
fram'd,
To guide the bounteous labours of his
pen,
Distinguished him, whom kindred sages
nam'd,
“The most enlighten'd of the sons of
men.”
“Upright through life, as in his death
resign'd,
His actions spoke a pure and ardent breast;
Faithful to God, and friendly to mankind,
His friends revered him, and his country
blest.
“Admired and valued in a distant land,
His gentle manners all affection won;
The prostrate Hindu own'd his fostering
haud,
And Science mark'd him for her fav'rite
son.
“Regret and praise the general voice be-
stows,
And public sorrows with domestic blend;
But deeper yet must be the grief of those,
Who, while the sage they honour'd, lov'd the
friend.”

be kept for a better meaning. Two ladies being delighted with the *Nouvelle Heloise*, thought proper to assume the name of Clara and Julia; and Clara writes to Rousseau, whom she had never seen, to tell him this, and to intreat him to enter into a correspondence with the divine creature, who is her friend. “I have insisted with her,” she says, “that the

• Dr. Johnson.

soul of Julia lives in her frame. With the exception, however, of Julia's fault, and all who know how to estimate her maintain the same. This, from excess of modesty, she refuses to admit; and, with a sublime candour, which but characterises her the more, assures us that, to resemble Julia in every thing, she would even have committed her fault; and that she is no otherwise sure of not committing such a fault, than because no such man as St. Preux is to be found, supposing, however, she were not a married woman." This reply produces a letter from Julia herself, which, in its turn, compliments Clara. Rousseau suspects that this comes from some man, who designs to make a fool of him; this suspicion is removed, and the correspondence goes on, with various interruptions on the part of the gentleman, who sometimes is pleased by the ardour which the letters express; and at other times, feels that the whole business is very ridiculous, and wishes to break it off. He succeeds in affronting Clara, and making Julia condescend to use her own christian name. She continues the correspondence. Rousseau, in one of his better humours, says, "if you are a woman, you should so demonstrate yourself to my eyes. I incline to believe, that your face occasions me as much torment as if I had seen it. If you will not describe your person to me, at least give me some account of your dress, that my imagination may fix on something I shall be sure belongs to you; and that I may pay my devotions to the person who wears your gown, without a breach of fidelity to you."

To this the lady replies minutely:

"However I may describe my features to you with exactness, it will still be impossible to give you an idea of their collective expression: this defect I know not how to remedy; I can only substitute my concern in its place. With respect to my figure, I need leave nothing to your imagination. To begin then: I measure in my shoes, which have heels of moderate height, four feet, nine inches, ten lines, in stature; * of emboupoint I have just as much as is desirable. My face, thanks to the small-pox, with which I am slightly marked, has less fairness than the rest of my person; but it is not, for all this, much amiss for a brunette. Its contour is a perfect oval, and its profile pleasing. My hair is dark, and graceful in its growth; my forehead rather high, and of a regular form; my eyebrows black, and arched; my eyes are of a

dark-blue colour, large, and prominent; the pupil small, and the eyelashes black; my nose neither large nor delicate, nor short nor long:—is not an aquiline; notwithstanding which, it contributes to my having somewhat of the physiognomy of an eagle; my mouth is small, but not deficient in outline: my teeth are clean, white, and regular; my chin is agreeably formed, and my neck well turned, though rather short; my arms, hands, fingers, and even my nails, are such as a painter might take for models. Let me now attempt to describe my physiognomy, since, thanks to my stars, I am fortunate enough to have one. It announces more of tranquillity than gaiety, more kindness than mildness, more vivacity than malice, more soul than understanding. My look is conciliating; my manners are unaffected, and my smile is genuine. From this picture, which is nevertheless a strong likeness, you will suppose me as beautiful as an angel: this assuredly would be a mistake; my face is precisely one of those one looks at twice. I have now to speak of another article, which, in my opinion, is too closely connected with the person to be omitted, and which you yourself have not disdained to mention: it is my manner of dressing. In common, my hair is the only ornament of my head; I dress it as negligently as possible, and add no embellishment whatever; and, to confess the truth, I am vain of my hair to an excess, that is absolute weakness. As I am modest in my habits, and, in my temperament, susceptible of cold, I shew less of my person than any other woman of my age: nothing in my apparel deserves the name of dress. On this day, for instance, I have on a grey satin gown, spotted with pink: this is not brilliant; but it squares to admiration with my fortune and my taste. It will never be said of me:—as she cannot make herself handsome, she tries to appear rich. I wear neither diamonds nor jewels of any kind, but on occasions of great ceremony, or to gratify the vanity of others. This, I believe, is all I can tell you of the individual who has so strongly excited your curiosity. If any feature that would have been characteristic has escaped my search, it has not been owing to my want of attention."

Rousseau's answer was written in a cheerful mood.

"I received, madam, almost at the same instant, your present and your portrait, two articles of great value in my estimation: inasmuch as the one proceeds from you, and the other represents you. It seems you are well aware of the necessity I shall have for an almanack, to contain the history of my sensations on the view of your portrait, and to remind me, in the least offensive manner, that a man, born on the 7th of July, 1712, cannot,

* Equal to about five feet, two inches, English measure.

so long after as the 27th of January, 1763; betray an interest of so much curiosity, as to certain articles, without the penalty of constituting himself an old fool. Unfortunately, the poison, I fear, is stronger than the antidote; and your letter is more calculated to make me forget my age, than your almanack to bring it to my recollection. No other magic had been necessary to Medea, to restore to youth old Aëson; and had Aurora been formed like you, decrepid Tithonus, groaning beneath disease, would have stood in need of no further assistance than the sight of her, to recover the youth and vigour he had lost. But for me, at such a distance from you, I gain from all this nothing but regret and ridicule; and the youthfulness of my heart is but an evil added to many others; for nothing can be more ridiculous than a dotard but twenty years old. In the next place, I would not for the world expose myself in future to the view of that face of a perfect oval; and that is not the part the least fair of the person to whom it belongs. I should be in constant dread, that certain pink spots on the grey satie would become transparent; and that, to be the better judge of the fairness of your face, I might, spite of the chilliness you mention, be tempted to seek for objects of comparison through a thousand safeguards.

"Come per aqua o per christallo intiero,
Trapassa il raggio e n'ol divide o parte;
Per entro il chiuso manto osa il pensiero,
Si penetrar nella vietata parte.*

"But let us, madam, for a moment, abandon your face and person, which it ill becomes an imagination fifty years old to profane, to say something of the charming physiognomy, that cannot fail to acquire you friends among persons of every age, and which is the surest indication that you possess a heart formed eternally to preserve them. It will not be my fault, if it be not the means of completing what your letters had so substantially begun; and if I do not entertain for you, during the rest of my life, an attachment worthy the excellence of your character. What satisfaction shall I not experience to hear pronounced, by so pretty a mouth, all the obliging things you have written to me; and to read in a pair of dark-blue eyes, fringed with black eyelashes, the friendship you now toward me! This same friendship imposes on me duties I willingly fulfil; and if my age render adulation ridiculous, it is no less an apology for sincerity. I readily forgive you for idolising the beautiful hair you describe; and; even at this distance, in some measure partake of that idolatry: but my approbation of your manner of wearing it, must depend on a question one dares not put to your sex. I will, notwithstanding, propose it to you.—How old are you?"

The correspondence continued sixteen years, during all which time the parties only saw each other thrice. Rousseau broke it off in a way, which can only be accounted for by his unhappy malady. One interesting anecdote occurs in these letters. It is the lady who writes.

"Some time ago two Englishmen of distinction prevailed on M. le Chevalier de Mehegan to accompany them to Montmorency, to shew them the house you had occupied in that place. (Be it known these Englishmen, as is the custom of their nation, did not first pay a visit to their friend.) The party set out on Sunday, the twenty-fifth of September, and scarcely were they got into the town of Montmorency, than some of the inhabitants, recollecting they had seen M. Mehegan visit at your house, assembled together some other persons, and he found himself in the midst of these kind-hearted peasants, who gathered round him to inquire eagerly after your health. Ah, sir! how is your friend's health now? said one. We had a great loss in him, said another: he was so charitable, he was a father to us all; he gave us wine when we stood in need of it, and there was no good he did not do us, said a third. Another added, he was our advocate with my lord, the Marreschal; in him we have lost our all! We shall regret him to our latest hour! The worthy creatures then shed tears; and neither M. Mehegan nor his companions could refrain from shedding them also. The emotion of the strangers was, however, soon suspended by a sequel they did not expect; and at which you no doubt will be as much surprised as they were. It is not at all astonishing, said they, that this good M. Rousseau should be so treated, for he told fortunes. All this needs no comment, and well deserves, my friend, the statue mentioned in your letter to the archbishop. But this is not all: when the strangers returned to their inn, M. Mehegan mentioned what they had heard to the landlord, who informed him that the very same thing had happened to every person passing that way, and known to those peasants for your acquaintance; that the love and veneration entertained for you by all the inhabitants was not to be imagined; and that, if you had been inclined to profit by their zeal, there was not one that would not have sacrificed himself for you."

The letters to M. du Peyron include those which were written from England, when Rousseau's derangement seems to have been at its height.

There is nothing in these volumes that can repay the reader for the time spent in perusing them. We have never seen a

* As rays of light pass through water and crystal without obstruction, so do the thoughts penetrate the most secret receptacles, and are by no limits stayed.

more worthless correspondence; still the correspondence of such a man as Rousseau, worthless as in itself it may be, must be regarded as a literary relic. We would not worship the parings of St.

Peter's toe-nail; but if it were ascertained that they were genuine, he must be a very puritanical collector who would not give them a place in his cabinet.

ART. X. *Memoirs of the Life of Dr. Darwin, chiefly during his Residence at Lichfield; with Anecdotes of his Friends, and Criticisms on his Writings.* By ANNA SEWARD. 8vo. pp. 430.

A LIFE of Dr. Darwin, by Anna Seward, will excite more expectations than the work itself will gratify. It contains, indeed, something to amuse, and something to interest; but not all that might have been hoped from the celebrity of the subject, and the well known and acknowledged talents of the writer.

The preface prepared us for disappointment. Miss Seward professes not to treat at large of that *mobility of his professional existence formed by his residence at Lichfield*, and merely to give a general view of that which passed at Derby. For a full detail of this latter half, we are referred to Mr. Bilsborrow, or Bilsbury.*

"Erasmus Darwin was the son of a private gentleman near Newark, in Nottinghamshire;" which sentence, we suppose, implies that he was born there: he came to Lichfield to practise physic at the age of twenty-four, in 1756. Nothing is related of his previous life, except that he had studied at Cambridge and at Edinburgh. The description of his person and manners at this time, though not free from the eccentricity of style which characterises the whole book, has the great and rare merit of making the reader almost visually acquainted with the personage it introduces.

"He was somewhat above the middle size; his form athletic, and inclined to corpulence; his limbs too heavy for exact proportion; the traces of a severe small-pox; features and countenance which, when they were not animated by social pleasure, were rather saturnine than sprightly; a stoop in the shoulders, and the then professional appendage, a large full-bottomed wig, gave, at that early period of life, an appearance of nearly twice the years he bore. Florid health, and the earnest of good-humour, a sunny smile on entering a room, and on first accosting his friends, rendered, in his youth, that exterior agreeable, to which beauty and symmetry had not been propitious.

"He suffered extremely; but whatever he said, was for gravely or in jest, was always well and waiting for, though the in-

evitable impression it made might not always be pleasant to individual self-love. Conscious of great native elevation above the general standard of intellect, he became, early in life, sore upon opposition, whether in argument or conduct; and always revenged it by sarcasm of very keen edge. Nor was he less impatient of the sallies of egotism and vanity, even when they were in so slight a degree, that strict politeness would rather tolerate than ridicule them. Dr. Darwin seldom failed to present their caricature in jocose, but wounding irony. If these ingredients of colloquial despotism were discernible in *unworn* existence, they increased as it advanced, fed by an ever growing reputation within and without the pale of medicine.

"Extreme was his scepticism to human truth. From that cause, he often disregarded the accounts his patients gave of themselves, and rather chose to collect his information by indirect inquiry, and by cross-examining them, than from their voluntary testimony. That distrust, and that habit, were probably favourable to his skill, in discovering the origin of diseases, and thence to his pre-eminent success in effecting their cure; but they impressed his mind, and tinctured his conversation, with an apparent want of confidence in mankind, which was apt to wound the ingenuous and confiding spirit, whether seeking his medical assistance, or his counsel as a friend. Perhaps this proneness to suspicion mingled too much of art in his wisdom."

Dr. Darwin, during all the first part of his medical career, abstained from poetry, prudently preferring the advantages of professional fame; he was warned by the fate of Armstrong and Aken-side, names which we couple as physicians, not as men, or moralists, or poets. His outset was fortunate: a man of fortune in the neighbourhood was saved by him, after he had been given over by an able physician: this immediately introduced him to extensive practice. He now married; and for thirteen years, till the untimely death of his wife, seems to have been a happy and excellent husband. Among his friends, at this time, the names appear of Kier, Boulton, Watt, Day, and Edgeworth, who will all be remembered by posterity. The very sin-

* The name is spelt both ways in this volume.

gular domestic history of Thomas Day, forms the most interesting part of the volume. Miss Seward says, that it has been unaccountably omitted by the gentleman who wrote his life: we can account for the omission. There is a want of delicacy, and even of decorum, in publishing so much of the private history of the living as appears in this narrative; it is gratifying public curiosity at the expense of private feeling. What woman is there who does not feel a natural and proper indignation, if she knows that the secret history of her life, her courtship and her marriage, and her distresses, has been made the subject of tea-table *tittle-tattle*? but to publish such anecdotes in an authenticated form is violating the sacredness of private life. It is easier to justify Mr. Kier for having omitted this history, in a work whereof it would have been made an important part, than to excuse Miss Seward for unnecessarily inserting it among the memoirs of Dr. Darwin.

Some characteristic anecdotes of Dr. Darwin are now recorded. He once thought inoculation for the measles might materially soften the disease, and, after the example of lady Wortley, he made the trial in his own family upon two of his children. Each had the disease so severely, that he never repeated the experiment. His eldest son had contracted from the father a habit of stammering: he sent him abroad, believing that, in the pronunciation of a foreign language, he would be less likely to hesitate, than in speaking those words and sentences at which he was accustomed to stumble. The remedy was successful.

"Dr. Darwin was conversing with a brother botanist, concerning the plant *kalmia*, then a just imported stranger in our green-houses and gardens. A lady, who was present, concluding he had seen it, which in fact he had not, asked the doctor what were the colours of the plant. He replied, "Madam, the *kalmia* has precisely the colours of a seraph's wing." So fancifully did he express his want of consciousness, respecting the appearance of a flower whose name and rareness were all he knew of the matter.

"Dr. Darwin had a large company at tea. His servant announced a stranger lady and gentleman. The female was a conspicuous figure, ruddy, corpulent, and tall. She held by the arm a little, meek-looking, pale, effeminate man, who, from his close adherence to the side of the lady, seemed to consider himself as under her protection.

"Dr. Darwin, I seek you, not as a physician, but as a belle esprit. I make this husband of mine," and she looked down with a side glance upon the animal, "treat me every summer with a tour through one of the British counties, to explore whatever it contains worth the attention of ingenious people. On arriving at the several inns in our route, I always search out the man of the vicinity who is most distinguished for his genius and taste, and introduce myself, that he may direct, as the objects of our examination, whatever is curious in nature, art, or science. Lichfield will be our head-quarters during several days. Come, doctor, whither must we go? What must we investigate to-morrow, and the next day, and the next? here are my tablets and pencil."

"You arrive, madam, at a fortunate juncture. To-morrow you will have an opportunity of surveying an annual exhibition perfectly worth your attention. To-morrow, madam, you will go to Tutbury bull-running."

"The satiric laugh with which he stammered out the last word, more keenly pointed this sly, yet broad, rebuke to the vanity of her speech. She had been up amongst the boughs, and little expected they would break under her so suddenly, and with so little mercy. Her large features swelled, and her eyes flashed with anger—"I was recommended to a man of genius, and I find him insolent and ill bred."—Then, gathering up her meek and alarmed husband, whom she had loosed when she first spoke, under the shadow of her broad arm and shoulder, she strutted out of the room.

"After the departure of this curious couple, his guests told their host he had been very unmerciful. I chose, replied he, to avenge the cause of the little man, whose nothingness was so ostentatiously displayed by his lady-wife. Her vanity has had a smart emetic. If it abates the symptoms, she will have reason to thank her physician, who administered without hope of a fee."

On one occasion Dr. Darwin was inclined to try the transfusion of blood. Lady Northesk, who was supposed to be dying of hemorrhage, was to have been the subject; and Miss Seward offered to supply the blood from her own veins: the whole account is exceedingly interesting. Darwin did not make the experiment: "if she die," said he, "the world will say I killed lady Northesk, though the London and Bath physicians have pronounced her case hopeless, and sent her home to expire." The experiment was, indeed, too hazardous, from the difficulty of constructing a machine, except in extreme cases; and he saved his patient, by changing the system of nutri-

tious food, gravy, jellies, and strong wines, for milk, vegetables, and fruit.

The Zoonomia was begun in 1771. Every young professor of medicine, says Miss Seward, if God has given him comprehension, assiduity, and energy, should devote his nights and days to studying this great work. It will teach him more than the pages of Galen and Hippocrates, than schools and universities know to impart ! As this lady cannot be supposed to be very deeply versed in physical science, this advice will do little mischief at Edinburgh. On what she does understand, she usually writes entertainingly, and often well. Her remarks on instinct, in opposition to Dr. Darwin's foolish chapter, are thoroughly convincing.

The Lichfield botanical society, which published a translation of the system of Linnæus, and communicated with the periodical publications, never consisted of more members than its three founders, Darwin, sir Brooke Boothby, and a Mr. Jackson ; yet, more literary society was then to be found in Lichfield than any provincial town could boast of. Miss Seward notices Dr. Johnson's total silence as to Darwin, and the frequent hints of the intellectual barrenness of his native place, in his letters to Mrs. Thrale. These extraordinary men mutually disliked each other ; their difference of opinion upon the most important subjects would alone have produced this. Darwin must have despised Johnson's superstition, as Johnson would, on his part, abhor Darwin's impiety. The intolerance of Johnson's manner, and his great colloquial superiority, operated as another cause. Crippled as he was in utterance, it was impossible that Darwin could contend with him in argument ; and feeling himself, as Miss Seward justly observes, at least his equal in genius, and his superior in science, he was too intellectually great to be his humble listener, and therefore shunned him, on having experienced what manner of man he was.

The origin of the Botanic Garden is connected with a very singular anecdote.

"About the year 1777, Dr. Darwin purchased a little, wild, unbrageous valley, a mile from Lichfield, amongst the only rocks which neighbour that city so nearly. It was irriguous from various springs, and swampy from their plenitude. A mossy fountain, of the purest and coldest water imaginable, had, near a century back, induced the inhabitants of Lichfield to build a cold bath in the bo-

som of the vale. That, till the doctor took it into his possession, was the only mark of human industry which could be found in the tangled and sequestered scene.

"One of its native features had long excited the attention of the curious,—a rock which, in the central depth of the glen, drops perpetually about three times in a minute. Aquatic plants border its top, and branch from its fissures. No length of summer drought abates, no rains increase its humidity, no frost congeals its droppings. The doctor cultivated this spot ;

"And paradise was opened in the wild."

"In some parts he widened the brook into small lakes, that mirrored the valley ; in others, he taught it to wind between shrubby margins. Not only with trees of various growth did he adorn the borders of the fountain, the brook, and the lakes, but with various classes of plants, uniting the Linnæan science with the charm of landscape.

"For the Naiad of the fountain, he wrote the following inscription :

"SPEECH OF A WATER NYMPH.

"If the meek flower of bashful dye,
Attract not thy incurious eye ;
If the soft murmuring rill to rest,
Encharms not thy tumultuous breast,
Go where ambition lures the vain,
Or avarice barbers peace for gain !"

While Darwin was ornamenting this spot, which had always been Miss Seward's favourite scene, he restrained her from visiting it. It was his intention to accompany her on her first visit ; but he was called away into the country, and she therefore went there alone.

"She took her tablets and pencil, and, seated on a flower bank, in the midst of that luxuriant retreat, wrote the following lines, while the sun was gilding the glen, and while birds of every plume poured their song from the boughs.

"O, come not here ye proud, whose breasts
infold
Th' insatiate wish of glory, or of gold ;
O come not ye, whose branded foreheads
wear
Th' eternal frown of envy, or of care ;
For you no Dryad decks her fragrant bow-
ers,
For you her sparkling urn no Naiad pours ;
Unmark'd by you light graces skim the green,
And hovering Cupids aim their shafes un-
seen.

"But thou, whose mind, the well-attemper'd
ray
Of taste and virtue lights with purer day ;
Whose finer sense each soft vibration owns,
Mute and unfeeling to discordant tones ;
Like the fair flower that spreads its lucid form
To meet the sun, but shuts it to the storm !

For thee my borders nurse the glowing
wreath,
My fountains murmur, and my zephyrs
breathe;

My painted birds their vivid plumes unfold,
And insect armies wave their wings of gold.

"And if with thee some hapless maid should
stray,

Disastrous love companion of her way,
O lead her timid steps to yonder glade,
Whose weeping rock incumbent alders shade!
There, as meek evening wakes the temperate
breeze,

And moon-beams glimmer through the trem-
bling trees;

The rills that gurgle round shall sooth her
ear,

The weeping rock shall number tear for tear;
And as sad Philomel, alike forlorn,
Sings to the night, reclining on her thorn;
While, at sweet intervals, each falling note
Sighs in the gale, and whispers round the
grot,

The sister-woe shall calm her aching breast,
And softest slumbers steal her cares to rest.

"Thus spoke the Genius," as he stept along,
And bade these lawns to peace and truth be-
long:

Down the steep slopes he led, with modest
skill,

The grassy path-way, and the vagrant rill;
Stretched o'er the marshy vale the willow
mound,

Where shines the lake amid the cultur'd
ground;

Rais'd the young woodland, smooth'd the
wavy green,

And gave to beauty all the quiet scene.

"O! may no ruder step these bowers pro-
fane,

No midnight wassailers deface the plain;
And when the tempests of the wintry day
Blow golden autumn's varied leaves away,
Winds of the north, restrain your icy gales,
Nor chill the bosom of these HALLOWED
VALLES!

"When Miss Seward gave this little poem to Dr. Darwin, he seemed pleased with it, and said, 'I shall send it to the periodical publications; but it ought to form the exordium of a great work. The Linnæan system is unexplored poetic ground, and an happy subject for the muse. It affords fine scope for poetic landscape; it suggests metamorphoses of the Ovidian kind, though reversed. Ovid made men and women into flowers, plants, and trees. You should make flowers, plants, and trees, into men and women. I,' continued he, 'will write the notes, which must be scientific; and you shall write the verse.'"

"Miss Seward observed, that, besides her want of botanic knowledge, the plan was

not strictly proper for a female pen; that she felt how eminently it was adapted to the efflorescence of his own fancy.

"He objected the professional danger of coming forward an acknowledged poet. It was pleaded that, on his first commencing medical professor, there might have been some danger; but that, beneath the unbounded confidence his experienced skill in medicine had obtained from the public, all risque of injury, by reputation flowing in upon him from a new source, was precluded, especially since the subject of the poetry, and still more the notes, would be connected with pathology.

"Dr. Darwin took his friend's advice, and very soon began his great poetic work; but previously, a few weeks after they were composed, sent the verses Miss Seward wrote in his Botanic Garden to the Gentleman's Magazine; and in her name. From thence they were copied in the Annual Register; but, without consulting her, he had substituted for the last six lines, eight of his own. He afterwards, and again without the knowledge of their author, made them the exordium to the first part of his poem, published, for certain reasons, some years after the second part had appeared. No acknowledgment was made that those verses were the work of another pen. Such acknowledgment ought to have been made, especially, since they passed the press in the name of their real author. They are somewhat altered in the exordium to Dr. Darwin's poem, and eighteen lines of his own are interwoven with them."

We have transcribed this curious statement in justice to Miss Seward.

"As to the amours of the plants and flowers," says the authoress, "it is a burlesque upon morality to make them responsible at its tribunal. The floral harms do not form an imaginary, but a real system, which philosophy has discovered, and with which poetry sports. The impurity is in the imagination of the reader, not on the pages of the poet." This puritanism, which is thus properly noticed, originated with the author of the Pursuits of Literature, who, in some of the very few good lines which his satire contains, ridiculed the endless personification in the Botanic Garden. The passage was copied by a Mr. Polwhele, in a worthless and forgotten poem. We never remember lines more loathsome and abominable than those in which the gentleman thought proper to represent botany as a favourite study, because it was obscene! It was remarked at the time, with just severity, that he seemed to be following the advice given to the

* By the Genius of the place is meant its first cultivator, Dr. Darwin.

Franciscan in Buchanan's satire, that he should taint the innocent by the impurity of accusation.

Signior in Venerem siqua est, accende monendo.

Pande voluptatisque modos formasque latentes,

Quærendoque doce Veneris quem nesciat usum.

Here we believe this affectation of decency ended. Botany has continued to be a favourite pursuit among our females; crim. con. has not yet increased in consequence; nor have we yet heard that the society for the suppression of vice has presented the sexual system as a nuisance.

The greater part of this volume is filled with criticisms on the Botanic Garden. It cannot be said that Miss Seward is a blind admirer of Darwin, for she allows that there was a radical defect in his poetic system, which would for ever have incapacitated him from being a first-rate epic, or dramatic writer. Occasionally too she points out with judgment, and true taste, the faults occasioned by this system, and illustrates them by passages upon similar subjects, manifestly superior, because they appeal to the feeling, and not to the fancy, as in the description of a November evening by Mr. Lloyd, and that of the loss of the Halsewell in Lewesdon Hill. Thus too in the following instance:

"BOTANIC GARDEN.

"And now the rising moon, with lustrous pale,
O'er heaven's dark arch unfurls her milky veil.

"This picture is charming: yet when Milton paints the same object thus:

"——— Now reigns,
"Full orb'd, the moon, and with more pleasant light,
"Shadowy, sets off the face of things;"

the charm is on the nerves as well as on the eye. The moral epithet, *pleasant*, excites sensation, while the picturesque epithet, *shadowy*, has all the truth, the grace, and power, of the pencil. It is that charm on the *nerves* to which Mr. Fellowes so well applies the word *sensation*. It seems a new term in criticism, and is useful to express what pathos would express too strongly, and therefore with less accuracy. Pathos is the power of affecting the heart; by sensation is meant that of acting upon the nerves.

"Beneath their torpor, the heart, or the passions, cannot be affected; but the nerves

may be awakened to lively, or pensive pleasure, by composition which, not exciting any positive passion, may not act upon the heart in a degree to justify the application of the word *pathetic*; and for this gentler, subtler, and more evanescent influence, which almost imperceptibly touches the passions, without agitating them, Mr. F.'s term is happy."

But though Miss Seward can occasionally discover the faults of this meretricious poetry, she more frequently mistakes them for beauties, as in the nonsensical couplet last quoted, which she says exhibits a charming picture. Darwin's poetical system has had a fair trial; that it should ever be upheld by a man of more genius, or more attainments, cannot reasonably be expected; and if it has failed, it has been not for any want of ability in the poet, but for the inherent absurdity of the system itself. The Botanic Garden was a poem every way adapted to excite the attention and wonder of the public; so much novelty, so much knowledge, so much fancy: what has been its fate? it is now purchased for the sake of the notes, not of the poetry, which is perhaps read through once, and never again recurred to. A few detached passages will find their way into school-books, and may be learned as a task, but they are not calculated, like the fragments of Akenside and Cowper, to impress themselves on the memory, nor to excite any love for the author, nor any wish to peruse the whole work. His posthumous volume, the Temple of Nature, found neither friend nor enemy: it was still-born, and the world will leave it to repose.

Before Darwin commenced author himself, he was not insensible to the merit of his contemporaries, but afterwards delighted rather to censure than to praise in a jealous spirit, which forms the most unamiable part of his character. Upon his second marriage, he removed to Derby, and from that time Miss Seward gives only the outlines of his history. The most remarkable part is that relating to the death of his son, who destroyed himself: it is said, in this volume, that the doctor exclaimed, "poor insane coward!" and never afterwards mentioned the subject. Miss Seward has since contradicted this anecdote, which seems to have been thought little honourable to Darwin's feelings by his friends. For ourselves, instead of concluding that Darwin was unfeeling, because he betrayed no outward signs of sorrow, we

should applaud him for putting in practice that self-command, which every religion, and every philosophy, enjoins. His conduct, as here related, was consistent with his principles.

On the vicious language of this volume we shall offer no remarks: to particularize its affectations and its barbarisms would be a long and useless task, for they are too remarkable ever to be

imitated. We notice, more willingly, its merits: the good sense distinguishing so many of the criticisms; the poetical power which carries us among the scenes she describes, and makes us familiar with the countenance and manners of the persons of her drama, as well as with the mind; and that perpetual presence of talents which never suffers the reader's attention to flag.

ART. XI. *The Lives of the Scottish Poets; with preliminary Dissertations on the Literary History of Scotland, and the early Scottish Drama.* By DAVID IRVING, A. M. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 948.

WHEN a man of singular humour, a few years since, had rendered a personal service to the King, he was asked by Mr. Dundas what could be done for him? "Make me a Scotchman, Sir!" was his reply, "and every thing will then follow of course." Taking up the present volume, we recollected the editions of Andrew Winton and Thomas of Ercildon, of Barbour and Blind Harry, of the Compendious Booke of Godly Songs, and even the Scotch slang and ribaldry of Allan Ramsay, and we thought that if Chaucer and Pierce Plowman could speak from their graves, with what propriety each of these worthies might exclaim—Make me a Scotchman, and editors will follow of course. Our neighbours do but their duty; the reproach is to us.

"Hardly," says Mr. Pinkerton, "can any department of genius, or science, be mentioned, in which our countrymen have not gained fame, except epic poetry, comedy, and the laborious provinces of antiquities, and works of profound erudition. If we add to these, painting and sculpture, a complete list of our deficiencies in the fine arts will be given!" But though Scotch literature is thus deficient in all works of the highest class, it abounds with those of secondary value. Their poets, in particular, hold a high rank; between the ages of Chaucer and Spenser they exceeded all the English writers, except only Sackville; and since the general disuse of their own dialect as a written language, they have contributed their fair proportion to our mass of poetry.

The present work relates exclusively to such poets as have used their vernacular dialect; but there is prefixed a dissertation on the literary history of Scotland, which enters into a wider field. Mr. Irving begins by controvert-

ing the received opinion, that the druidical system existed in Scotland; the very weighty authority of Mr. Ledwich would induce us to believe that druidism was professed by all the Celtic tribes, how widely soever dispersed; and this seems to be confirmed by the facts which Mr. King has collected in his *Munimenta Antiqua*. Be this as it may, the author is justified in supposing that the first alphabet which found its way into Scotland was the Roman, and that its introduction was coeval with that of Christianity. This took place early in the fifth century, when the Southern Picts were converted by St. Ninian. "St. Ninian," says Mr. Irving, "has been extolled as a man of singular attainments; but it may reasonably be questioned whether he contributed in any considerable degree to disseminate useful knowledge among his converts." This is a sentence of needless disparagement: Ninian had been educated at Rome; he had probably, therefore, as much knowledge as fell to the share of his contemporaries; and assuredly the man who lays the foundation of the Gospel among a savage nation, never should be mentioned without honour. St. Columba effected the work which Ninian had begun: he baptized the King, and the people of course became Christians; he brought with him the Culdees, and established the monastic system, for which he is entitled to a more respectful mention than Mr. Pinkerton has vouchsafed him. Scotland is said, after its conversion, to have made rapid advances in every branch of knowledge; but Mr. Irving, who is, in Dr. Johnson's sense of the phrase, a sturdy moralist, allows that a great portion of the praise bestowed on his country is due to Ireland. He gives up Ailred to the English, Sedulius to the Irish, Rabanus Maurus to Germany,

and Claudius Clemens to Spain; Scotus Erigena he also yields to Ireland, a name far above all others of his generation. He, therefore, begins the list of Scottish authors with Richard, prior of St. Victor at Paris, who flourished about the middle of the twelfth century, and who, according to Mair, has the merit of having first maintained that the Blessed Virgin was free from original sin.—Whether or not Richard were the inventor of this part of the Catholic mythology, it certainly proceeded from Scotland; for little doubt can be entertained that Duns Scotus, who established the opinion, was a Scotchman. Mr. Irving has taken some pains to establish the claim of Scotland to this illustrious schoolman; whose genius, as he truly observes, reflects no inconsiderable lustre on the nation to which he belongs. A portrait of Duns is said to have been in the possession of Sir Andrew Balfour; his head, as represented in one of the seraphic historians, is remarkable for the resemblance it bears to the ablest metaphysician now living. With John Mair, or Major as his name is more generally written, the account of the scholastic philosophers is terminated. Scotland undoubtedly produced her full proportion in number and in celebrity.

The early poetry of the Scots is next considered. The first specimen produced is a Latin Ode upon William Wallace, said to have been written soon after his death. It is very short, and we may therefore be permitted to copy it.

“ Invida mors tristi Gulielmum funere
Vallam,

Quæ cuncta tollit, sustulit :

Et tanto pro cive, civis ; pro finibus urna
est ;

Frigusque pro lorica obit.

Ille quidem terras, loca se inferiora, reli-
quit :

At lata factis suppressens,

Parte sui meliore solum cœlumque per-
errat,

Hoc spiritu, illud gloriâ.

At tibi si inscriptum generoso pectus ho-
nesto

Fuisset, hostis prodiit

Artibus, Angle, tuis, in poenas parcior
isses,

Nec oppidatum spargeris

Membra viri sacrandâ adytis. Sed scin,
quid in ista

mananitate viceris ?

Ut Vallæ in cunctas oras spargantur et
horas

Laudes, tuumque dedecus.”

Mr. Irving considers it as highly im- probable that the ode can have been composed at so early a time ; yet good latinity was more likely to have been produced then, than a century later.

The next specimen is from a Latin poem on the battle of Otterburn, by Thomas Barry, provost of Bothwell. It is remarkable for its multiplicity of rhymes. The author then proceeds to the vernacular poetry, a subject which introduces some curious remarks upon the original languages of Scotland.—With Mr. Pinkerton, he inclines to think that the Picts were of Gothic descent, and the opinion is enforced by some striking passages in the old historians. St. Columba preached to the Picts by an interpreter, but his language was certainly understood by the Gael. Bede says, that, in his time, the Gospel was preached in five different languages in the island of Britain—those of the Angles, Britons, Scots, Picts, and Romans. It is not easy to elude or weaken the obvious inference from these authorities. The arguments drawn from etymology Mr. Irving has invalidated in an amusing but able manner.

“ Beda, observes, that the Pictish name of a certain place at the east end of Antoninus's wall was *Peanfahel* : and from this solitary word, Camden and Innes have supposed that an argument may be derived in proof of the identity of the Welch and Pictish languages. In the Welch, they have affirmed, this compound term signifies the head of the wall : but, on the other hand, it has been very confidently asserted, that the Welch tongue contains no such words as *pean* and *fahel*. But if it were even admitted, that *peanfahel* is either a simple or a compound term, which may be traced in both languages, no important conclusion could thence be deduced. The same combinations of letters may often be found in languages which have distinct origins. *Scribes, cave, thus, cur, rides*, are either Latin or English, according to the manner in which they are pronounced. The letters *a, m, a, t*, may either signify *a mat* or *he loves*. The Italian pronoun *egli* might, in a Scottish song, be commodiously transformed into *Eglin-O*. The Greek word *eis* and the French *nous* are formed by the same arrangement of the same letters : but are we thence authorised to conclude, that Greek and French are dialects of the same language? Pliny supposes the Celtic word *Druid* to be derived from *drus* an oak ; as if those who, in all probability, never heard of the Greeks or their language, should have applied to such a source. Yet this etymology is, perhaps, as correct as that of Camden and Innes. Dr. Gibson, in one of his notes on the *Polem-*

Middinia, affords another illustration of the danger of relying too much on etymological conjectures.

Incipit Harlai cunctis sonare Batellum.

"The origin of the word *harlai*, he remarks, must be traced to the Icelandic *hardlya*, or, by contraction *harla*; *perquàm, valde, fortiter*. According to this notion, the verse must be interpreted, "He begins to summon them to the hardy fight." But its real signification is, "He begins to play a Scottish tune called *The battle of Harlaw*." The following wretched epigram on Erasmus is the production of an obscure poet named Thomas Prujean:

"That thou'rt a man, each of thy learn'd works shews:

But yet thy name tells us thou wast a mouse.

"Dr. Dupont, in an epigram on Andrew Melvin, has displayed the same elegance of taste:

Qui non *Mel*, sed fel, non *vinum* das, sed acetum,

Quàm male tam belli nominis omen habes!"

"These are rare illustrations of the plastic nature of etymology. Of the impropriety of drawing from the consideration of detached words extensive conclusions with regard to the history of languages, I shall subjoin a remarkable exemplification. "The Holy Scripture," says Dr. Bentley, "informs us, that Laban, the Syrian, when he made a league with his son-in-law, Jacob, called the heap of stones that, after the custom of those times, was erected for a memorial of it, *Igar Sakdutha*, The heap of witness: which, we are sure, from the Syriac versions of the Old and New Testament, continued to be pure and vulgar Syriac for 2000 years." Of the permanency of the Syriac language, Dr. Bentley seems to regard this circumstance as a convincing proof. Let us apply this canon of criticism to another subject. The second and seventh verses of the dirge composed on the death of King Alexander, scarcely differ in a single word from the Scottish of the present day. This circumstance, according to Dr. Bentley's scheme, ought to convince us, that the language of Scotland has continued pure and unimixed for the space of five hundred and seventeen years."

The origin of the Scottish language has been very ably and satisfactorily elucidated by Mr. Walter Scott, in his introduction to *Syr Tristrem*.

The Scottish universities are of comparatively late date. Oxford and Paris not only received the students from Scotland, but also those donations which would have been more wisely appropriated to similar purposes at home: Balliol* Col-

lege and the Scottish College at Paris, were both founded before any such foundations existed in the country of the donors. The public lectures at St. Andrews commenced in 1410, some time before the university was formally established.

Glasgow was founded forty years afterwards by Bishop Turnbull; and Aberdeen, in 1500, by Bishop Elphinstone; Hector Boyce was the first principal. Edinburgh had no university till 1582. Literature was now rapidly increasing in Scotland, as in every part of civilized Europe. A long list of names appear of those who still continue to interest and to instruct posterity. Major, Lesly and Buchanan, as historians; Dunbar, Douglas, Henryson and Lindsay, as poets; Knox and the various theological writers who sacrificed their talents to purposes of immediate utility.

The state of Scottish literature from the union of the two crowns till that of the two kingdoms, has been considerably undervalued, or rather it has been considered as British literature, the national dialect having been laid aside. Drummond and Burnet rank high among our poets and historians. But the chief productions of the sister kingdom during this period were in Latin. A singular account is given of one writer, whose works and eccentricities have almost been forgotten.

"Sir Thomas Urquhart, philologist and soldier, poet and mathematician, was, if we may credit himself, the most extraordinary character that the world has yet produced. "Betwixt what is printed," he remarks, "and what ready for the presse, I have set forth above a hundred severall bookes, on subjects never hitherto thought upon by any." This number is certainly ample enough; but he soon augments it to a wonderful degree: "Had not I been violently pluk'd away by the importunity of my creditors, I would have emitted to publick view above five hundred severall treatises or inventions never hitherto thought upon by any." His *Logopundectision* is intruded as one of these admirable inventions; but the honour of having first conceived the design of forming a universal language is by no means due to Urquhart. The execution of the same plan had already been recommended by the ingenious Bishop Bedell to one Johnston, a clergyman of his diocese. "The Bishop," says Dr. Burnet, "finding the man had a very mercurial wit and a great capacity, he resolved to set him to work, that so he might

* The word is spelt thus at Oxford; not with one l, as is the usual custom.

not be wholly useless to the church; and therefore he proposed to him the composing an universal character, that might be equally well understood by all nations: and he shewed him, that since there was already an universal mathematical character, received both for arithmetic, geometry, and astronomy, the other was not impossible to be done. Johnston undertook it readily; and the Bishop drew for him a scheme of the whole work, which he brought to such perfection, that, as my author was informed, he put it under the press, but the rebellion prevented his finishing it. Urquhart's scheme of a universal language seems to have excited very little curiosity: and indeed it can only be regarded as one of the incoherent dreams of learning.

"His *Discovery of a most exquisite Jewel*, includes a rhapsodical and bombastical vindication of the Scottish nation, interspersed with anecdotes and characters of some of our most eminent scholars and warriors. Those who consult the work, in the hope of meeting with solid or accurate information, will undoubtedly be disappointed; but the writer's enthusiastic attachment to his native country renders even his wildest flights interesting.

"His translation of the first three books of Rabelais has procured him higher applause than his other productions. It is remarked by Mr. Motteux that he possessed learning and fancy equal to the task which he had undertaken; and that his version preserves the very style and air of the original.

"Urquhart was undoubtedly possessed of a lively fancy, and of no inconsiderable portion of learning; but his compositions seem to betray some latent sparks of lunacy. His own praise is one of the topics on which he is apt to expatiate in extravagant terms. The *Jewel*, written under an assumed character, contains many high encomiums on the real author, and represents him as endowed with qualities which no man is readily allowed to ascribe to himself. His attempt to trace his own lineage to the æra of the creation, affords a ludicrous specimen of vanity. Many of his reveries serve to remind us of the chivalrous philosopher Lord Herbert: and he appears to have been equally prompt to engage in fantastic quarrels. "As the heart," says Urquhart, "is *primum vivens*, so was it my heart which, in my younger years, before my braines were ripened for eminent undertakings, gave me the courage for adventuring in a forrain climat, thrice to enter the lists against men of 3 severall nations, to vindicate my native country from the calumnies wherewith they had aspersed it; wherein it pleased God so to conduct my fortune, that after I had disarmed them, they in such sort acknowledged their error, and the obligation they did owe me, for sparing their lives, which justly by the laws of arms I might have taken, that in lieu of three enemies, that formerly they were, I acquired

three constant friends, both to myselfe, and my compatriots, whereof by severall gallant testimonies they gave evident prooffe, to the improvement of my countreys credit in many occasions."

Mr. Irving candidly admits the evil effects of the reformation upon literature in Scotland. A very inconsiderable number of the learned ecclesiastics, he says, were of the Presbyterian persuasion: for under the auspices of Genevan discipline, literature has rarely made any rapid advances. A detestable discipline it is! fatal to all that is beautiful in art, all that is ennobling in intellect, all that is lovely in religion. The character of Anti-Christ might be far more fitly appropriated to Calvin than to the Pope; the one has only corrupted Christianity, but the other has set up a devil in the stead of deity.

It does not appear when grammar schools were first established; but in 1494, the Scottish Parliament enacted that the eldest sons of barons and freeholders should be sent to these schools, in order to be instructed in the Latin language; and that they should afterwards prosecute the study of law for the space of at least three years. For infringing this statute, a penalty of twenty pounds was appointed. Yet in the course of half a century, the neglect of these most important institutions was complained of. This was probably owing to the triumph of the calvinists. These unlettered zealots, says our author, seem to have been actuated by an opinion, which still prevails among those who pretend to internal illumination, that a preacher of the Gospel can derive no advantage from secular learning. I confess, says Dr. South, God has no need of any man's parts or learning, but certainly then he has much less need of his ignorance.

Mr. Irving characterises the Scottish authors who have flourished since the union with due honour; and not with more honour than is really their due, save only in one instance. Robertson, he says, may without arrogance or temerity, be pronounced the greatest historian whom the world has yet produced. In the language of old Trevisa, "that is not soth in wordes and in dede, but that speche is saved by an excusacyon of spekyng that is called yperbolica." It is, however, pleasant to observe how much more willingly Mr. Irving bestows his applause than his censure upon the dead, for of the living he speaks with a

manly freedom. Even the following remark upon a passage in Jortin is not introduced without a confession of reluctance.

"The value of his works would, perhaps, have been enhanced if he had sometimes forgotten that he was so accomplished a philologist. The following quotation from this author is characteristic: "Some unpublished sermons of Bishop Chandler were sent to me to peruse. They are such as might be expected from him, and upon points in which he was skilled. He was more a divine than a philologist.—James the First was more of a king than a poet; and the Duke of Marlborough was more of a general than a pioneer."

This dissertation is concluded by some remarks upon the neglect of Greek in Scotland, and upon the disgraceful diplomas of Aberdeen and St. Andrews; but when this gentleman attempts to involve our universities in the same disgrace, we perceive how very little he is acquainted with their actual state. The concluding passage we transcribe with sincere approbation.

"Among the circumstances which chiefly operate in retarding the progress of classical learning, may also be enumerated the paucity of substantial rewards which await literary eminence. The number of professorships in the four universities is not very considerable; and some of these are apparently in danger of being registered among the commodities of city-politicians. To fellowships our colleges are total strangers. The bursaries, which might originally afford a competent provision, seem at present to partake of the nature of a mathematical point. The salaries of the parish school-masters have dwindled into a miserable pittance; and the landholders have too generally manifested a resolution to leave them in their present deteriorating condition. Many of the parochial teachers, as we have lately been assured, do not earn half the wages of a journeyman mason. The unmerited poverty of these humble scholars has sunk them beneath their proper level in society. In England the character of a schoolmaster is eminently respectable; and the present age has seen that profession adorned by Parr, Vincent, and Markham. It is to be hoped, and even expected, that those who value the prosperity of Scotland, will exert themselves in ameliorating the condition of an order of men whose useful labours entitle them to the gratitude of their fellow-citizens. Till some exertions of this kind shall be made, we may remain silent spectators of the gradual encroachments of ignorance. When an irksome species of labour is so poorly rewarded, it need not be supposed that men of proper qualifications will often present themselves.

ANN. REV. VOL. III.

"The partiality with which the vacancies in our schools are frequently supplied, is another ill-boding circumstance. The claims of the different candidates are professedly decided by a comparative trial; but this ceremony, it is well known, is on many occasions terminated by an act of injustice. The task of examination is generally left to the clergy; and when one of the competitors is *properly recommended*, his fortune is determined before the slightest enquiry is instituted with respect to his literary qualifications. This conduct indeed may sometimes arise from a distortion of benevolent sentiments; but in the mean time the cause of letters is exposed to deep and lasting injury.

"These general assertions it were but too easy to strengthen by an enumeration of particular instances: but this would be a painful, and, perhaps, a dangerous task. The observations which I have already presumed to state, will, I am aware, be sufficient to provoke abundance of hostility. These prevalent examples of a most baneful species of abuse, it, however, becomes every good citizen to execrate. When the rewards of literature are openly bestowed upon sycophants, such a remonstrance as the present may be ineffectual, but it certainly cannot be deemed superfluous."

The second dissertation, on the early Scottish drama, occupies only a few pages; the Scots were pulling down churches when they ought to have been building theatres. Calvinism, we will not say Presbyterianism, for that would be to confound the doctrine with the discipline—Calvinism, of course, is hostile to all that can soften the manners or strengthen the understanding.

The first biography is of Thomas of Erccildon, whom Mr. Walter Scott has immortalized both as a poet and an editor. John Barbour follows at the distance of a century, a writer of very great merit, and his contemporary Winton. These early lives are necessarily brief, so little being known of the authors. The life of king James the first affords more materials. Why are not his works published by some editor who is equal to the task? To rank him above all other royal authors would be but poor praise for one who, in the republic of letters, has so honourably distinguished himself. The King's Quair is a delightful poem, and if Christis Kirk of the Grene be indeed his composition, as there is good reason to believe, king James must, like Chaucer, have been equally qualified to excel in comic as in serious poetry.

Henry the minstrel follows, the blind poet, of whom nothing is known, except
K k

that he was blind. After a chapter upon the anonymous productions of this period, we then come to Henryson and Dunbar, both men of considerable genius; the latter in Mr. Ellis's opinion the greatest poet that Scotland has produced; yet several of his poems still remain unpublished, and those which are published have never been printed in a collective form. A complete edition was expected from Mr. Pinkerton, whose antiquarian knowledge would certainly be more worthily employed upon Dunbar than upon Drummond. This was the golden age of Scottish poetry, notwithstanding the sesquipedalian pedantry, wherewith even the best poets were infected. Stephen Hawes is the only English writer who fell into this affectation. But the public soon grew weary of *celstitude and pulchritude*, and king James in his *Eneydes of a Prentice in the Divine Art of Poesie* among the *Reulis & Cautelis to be observit & eschewit in Scottis Poesie*, especially warns the aspirant to beware of *rhyming in termis, quibilk is to say, that your first or hinnest word in the lyne exceed not twa or thre syllabis at the maist, using thre als scindill as ye can*. He assigns as a reason, that all long words have a syllable in them so very long, that the length thereof eats up in the pronouncing the other syllables in the same words which should be long by position, and therefore spoils the flowing of the line.

The second volume begins with the life of Gawin Douglas, in whom Scotland might justly pride herself, had he not been forced by a ferocious faction to take refuge in England, where he died a banished man. Few men have been more richly gifted; his birth was noble, his character pure in that abominable age, and his genius such as to secure for him an immortality on earth. A good anecdote of him is recorded here: When archbishop Beaton and the nobles of the same party had determined to attack the earl of Angus, who was nephew to Douglas, the poet, then bishop of Dunkeld, was sent as a mediator, to persuade them, if possible, to submit the cause to legal arbitration.

"He first accosted Beaton, whom he found in Blackfriars Church; and entreated him to perform his duty by assuming the character of a peace-maker. But the dissembling and turbulent prelate protested that he was at once ignorant of their designs, and unable to prevent them from being carried into execution. And sealing his asseveration with an

oath, he made a solemn appeal to his conscience: but having too rashly struck his right hand against his breast, he discovered to his indignant companion that his clerical habit concealed a coat of mail. "My Lord," exclaimed Douglas, "I perceive your conscience is not good; for I hear it clatter."

Douglas was fortunate in his exile, he was graciously received by Henry 8. in the better days of that monarch, when his court was the seat of learning, and he enjoyed a liberal pension till his death.

The courageous wit which characterised sir David Lindsay is well exemplified.

"The king being one day surrounded by a numerous train of nobility and prelates, Lindsay approached him with due reverence, and began to prefer an humble petition, that he would instal him in an office which was then vacant. "I have," said he, "servit your Grace lang, and luik to be rewardit as others are: and now your maister taylor, at the pleasure of God, is departit; wherefore I wold desire of your Grace to bestow this little benefite upon me." The king replied that he was amazed at such a request from a man who could neither shape nor sew. "Sir," rejoined the poet, "that maks nae matter; for you have given bishoprics and benefices to mony standing here about you, and yet they can nouthier teach nor preach; and why may not I as weill be your taylor, thocht I can nouthier shape nor sew; seeing teaching and preaching are nae less requisite to their vocation, than shaping and sewing to aue taylor?"

Few biographical notices remain of the other poets of the age, of Bellen-den, sir Richard Maitland, Scot, Arbuthnot, or Montgomery. We now come to our James the first, or rather James the sixth of Scotland, for let Scotland have the credit of him. The Scottish Solomon had his merits, and could we forget the murder of Raleigh, we might contemplate his reign with complacency, and forgive his pusillanimity and his follies. As in his moral character he is less remarkable for any particular vice, than for the total want of all virtue, so his compositions are rather good for nothing than bad. It was his misfortune to be placed in a situation where every weakness became conspicuous, and to be born some centuries too late. In the golden ages of dullness Solomon the second should have flourished; that inherent superstition which Buchanan could not eradicate, would then have made him a monk and a saint, and he would have

written erudite commentaries upon the apostles and doctors of the church, whose titles would have been preserved, and whose praises copied from one bibliographer by another, secure never to be controverted.

The union well nigh annihilated the Scottish, as a written dialect. Alexander, Gordon, and Drummond immediately wrote in English, and Scotland for nearly two centuries produced no poet of her own tongue, considerable enough to be mentioned in these volumes. Allan Ramsay revived the national poetry; a national feeling, natural and honourable in itself, occasioned his success, or such a writer as Allan Ramsay could not have succeeded. His success is to be regretted since it has made Burns a Scottish poet, who should have been a British one. It mattered not greatly in what dialect Ramsay himself had written; but Burns deserved a wider sphere of popularity, for no writer was ever more happily qualified to become permanently popular. Could he have written in English with equal powers, he would have been read with the same delight in England, and in Ireland, and in America, as in the lowlands of Scotland; as it now is we read him as a foreign writer, with this provoking difference, that we never understand him so clearly as if he had written in a language altogether foreign to us; it is like English *macaronised* with some uncouth tongue, which no Englishman has ever studied,—and we, therefore, skip and go on, or cast an eye upon the glossary, as boys get at the meaning of Homer by the Latin translation, and lose the spirit. It is a happy thing that we have no Welsh-English, or Irish-English!

Undoubtedly Burns secured his immediate reputation by writing in his conversational language. He wrote better, not only because he could write necessarily with more command and more intimate knowledge, but because he was cut off from all the common phrases and tricks of speech which are the stock in trade of all versifiers. Instead of the commonplace diction of words, the meaning of which is misapplied, or so applied as to have no meaning at all, he wrote in the real language of his readers, to whom, therefore, every expression came with its full force and freshness. Hence his poems are less intelligible to an Englishman

than the King's Quair, or the Bruce, though the orthography of the two languages has become much more alike. Perhaps, also, he was indebted to the same cause for the patronage which he experienced, though that patronage ended in making him an exciseman!

Mr. Irving considers Scottish and English as being analogous to the different Greek dialects, but this analogy is not correct. The Greek dialects differed chiefly in the terminations of their declined and conjugated words, and in the preference given to one vowel above another: but the vocabulary of all was the same. They might therefore be intermixed for the sake of euphony without occasioning the slightest embarrassment to the reader: now the Scottish words which embarrass an Englishman are exclusively Scottish, and these are so numerous that a separate dictionary is necessary to explain them. It has been objected as an incongruity, that Ramsay has chequered his *Gentle Shepherd* with English phraseologies of affected refinement. Mr. Irving's defence is singularly injudicious: "if," he says, "it be absolutely absurd for a Scottish peasant to be introduced speaking the English language, it must have been established as a general rule that a dramatic personage should always employ the language of the country to which he is supposed to belong. According to this hypothesis, Buchanan, Racine, and other poets who have founded their dramas on subjects of the same date, ought to be severely reprehended for having failed to write in Hebrew!" The objection is grievously misunderstood; for the fault complained of is as if Racine had actually written in Hebrew, and occasionally ornamented it with a little French.

Ramsay, Ross, Dr. Geddes, Ferguson and Burns are the only poets in this part of the work. The work may certainly be considered as a valuable addition to our literary history. We have seldom seen proofs of such wide and well-directed research as are indicated in Mr. Irving's notes. Would not encouragement be found in Scotland for a collected edition of those poets who are here biographized, down to the union, excluding such only as have been edited too recently to need republication? Such a collection would well deserve a national encouragement, and Mr. Irving is eminently qualified for the task.

ART. XII. *The Correspondence of Samuel Richardson, Author of Pamela, Clarissa, and Sir Charles Grandison. Selected from the Original Manuscripts bequeathed by him to his Family. To which are prefixed a Biographical Account of that Author, and Observations on his Writings.* By ANNA LÆTITIA BARBAULD. 6 vols. 8vo.

THE curiosity of the public, which, says Mrs. Barbauld, in an advertisement prefixed to the present work, "has always shewn an eagerness more natural, perhaps, than strictly justifiable, to penetrate into the domestic retirements, and be introduced to the companionable hours of eminent characters," has been gratified within the compass of a very few years, with several collections of familiar letters of great and various excellence. Those of Gibbon, of Burns, of Lady Wortley Montague, and of Cowper, will immediately suggest themselves to the memory of our readers, as containing the most beautiful models of epistolary style that our language affords. A glance at the contents of the present publication, and a few reflections on the situation of the author, will amply evince that it would be rash to indulge such expectations with regard to it, as have been gratified by those just enumerated. Richardson, it is true, was a man of genius, unquestionable genius, and those who have perused with admiration, (as who among our readers has not ?) all or part of his epistolary novels, will reasonably expect amusement and instruction from his private correspondence. But the style of Richardson certainly cannot boast of brilliancy, harmony or elegance, he cannot, therefore, like Cowper, give a value by the graces of manner alone to the monotonous detail of domestic life. His confined knowledge of books, and total want of classical learning, preclude the hope of literary criticism, such as instructs us in Gibbon. The uniform composure and propriety of his feelings gives little scope to the play of sentiment, the eager aspirations after fame, which interest us in Burns, or the alternation of passions, the most lively of which he must have outlived before his letters were deemed worthy of preservation by himself or others—for the oldest of them bear date after the publication of *Pamela*, and he fiftieth year of the author. The narrow circle in which he moved would have afforded neither lively anecdote, nor matter for varied and novel description, had he even possessed the sprightliness, ease and fancy of Lady Mary. His own works make the principal subject of his letters ;

consequently the value set upon these by each reader must principally determine, in his estimation, that of the present volumes. It is true, indeed, that it is not merely the letters, but the *Correspondence* of Richardson that is here offered to the public ; but his favourite topic was likewise that of his friends and admirers. One important advantage, however, Richardson has enjoyed, which Burns alone, among his predecessors, could boast, that of being ushered into the world not only by a friendly, but a masterly hand—by a biographer in whom candour and judgment, superior abilities and a high moral sense are equally and eminently conspicuous. The prefixed life of our author, with which are incorporated criticisms on his works, opens with a concise history of romances. Those of chivalry, of which *Amadis de Gaul* was the parent ; "the languishing love romances of the French ;" the *Decamerone* of Boccaccio, the *Cent Nouvelles* of the queen of Navarre, and the *Roman Comique* of Scarron, which aimed at giving a more natural, but humourous picture of life and manners ; *Zaid* and the *Princesse de Cleves*, which made the first approach to the modern serious novel, and *Gil Blas*, among foreign productions, and among native ones, *Sidney's Arcadia*, *Atalantis*, and the works of De Foe, pass in review before the reader, each characterised by a few distinct and lively touches. From the last mentioned writer it is acknowledged that Richardson might have caught "in some measure, his peculiar manner of writing ;" but the epistolary method of telling a story, the advantages and disadvantages of which, compared with other methods, are ably stated, appears to have been entirely of Richardson's own invention.

The events of Richardson's life were few and trivial. He was the son of a joiner in London, who being connected with the duke of Monmouth, thought proper, after his execution, to retire into Derbyshire, in which county (but in what town or village our author, for some unknown reasons, always avoided mentioning) Samuel Richardson was born in 1689. His father originally intended him for the church, but heavy

losses having disabled him from supplying the necessary expences of a liberal education, this destination was changed, and at the age of fifteen or sixteen, whilst as yet nothing but common school learning had been bestowed upon him, Samuel made choice for himself of the business of a printer, and was bound apprentice to a Mr. Wilde in London. Of his childhood he has left us the following interesting and characteristic anecdotes.

"I recollect, that I was early noted for having invention. I was not fond of play, as other boys: my school-fellows used to call me *Serious and Gravity*; and five of them particularly delighted to single me out, either for a walk, or at their father's houses, or at mine, to tell them stories, as they phrased it. Some I told them, from my reading, as true; others from my head, as mere invention; of which they would be most fond, and often were affected by them. One of them particularly, I remember, was for putting me to write a history, as he called it, on the model of *Tommy Potts*; I now forget what it was, only that it was of a servant-man preferred by a fine young lady (for his goodness) to a lord, who was a libertine. All my stories carried with them, I am bold to say, an useful moral."

"From my earliest youth, I had a love of letter-writing: I was not eleven years old when I wrote, spontaneously, a letter to a widow of near fifty, who, pretending to a zeal for religion, and being a constant frequenter of church ordinances, was continually fomenting quarrels and disturbances, by back-biting and scandal, among all her acquaintance. I collected from the scripture texts that made against her. Assuming the style and address of a person in years, I exhorted her, I expostulated with her. But my hand-writing was known. I was challenged with it, and owned the boldness; for she complained of it to my mother with tears. My mother chid me for the freedom taken by such a boy with a woman of her years; but knowing that her son was not of a pert or forward nature, but, on the contrary, shy and bashful, she commended my principles, though she censured the liberty taken."

Notwithstanding the ill-will which this freedom might draw upon him from individuals, he was, he tells us, a general favourite with young and old.

"As a bashful and not forward boy, I was an early favourite with all the young women of taste and reading in the neighbourhood. Half a dozen of them, when met to work with their needles, used, when they got a book they liked, and thought I should, to borrow me to read to them; their mothers

sometimes with them; and both mothers and daughters used to be pleased with the observations they put me upon making.

"I was not more than thirteen, when three of these young women, unknown to each other, having an high opinion of my taciturnity, revealed to me their love secrets, in order to induce me to give them copies to write after, or correct, for answers to their lovers' letters: nor did any one of them ever know that I was the secretary to the others. I have been directed to chide, and even repulse, when an offence was either taken or given, at the very time that the heart of the chider or repulser was open before me, overflowing with esteem and affection; and the fair repulser, dreading to be taken at her word, directing this word, or that expression, to be softened or changed. One highly gratified with her lover's fervour, and vows of everlasting love, has said, when I have asked her direction; I cannot tell you what to write; but, (her heart on her lips) you cannot write too kindly; all her fear was only, that she should incur slight for her kindness."

After serving a diligent apprenticeship to "a master who grudged him every hour that tended not to his profit," during which period he "stole from the hours of relaxation and rest" some time for the improvement of his mind by reading,

"Our author continued five or six years working as a compositor and corrector of the press to a printing-office, and part of the time as an overseer; and, at length thus working his way upwards into day-light, he took up his freedom, and set up for himself; at first in a court in Fleet-street, from whence, as his business grew more extensive, he removed into Salisbury-court."

Of his domestic connections he thus speaks, in a letter to lady Bradshaigh.

"I told you, madam, that I have been married twice; both times happily; you will guess so, as to my first, when I tell you that I cherish the memory of my lost wife to this hour: and as to the second, when I assure you that I can do so without derogating from the merits of, or being disallowed by my present; who speaks of her on all occasions, as respectfully and affectionately as I do myself.

"By my first wife I had five sons and one daughter; some of them living to be delightful prattlers, with all the appearances of sound health, lively in their features, and promising as to their minds; and the death of one of them, I doubt, accelerating from grief, that of the otherwise laudably afflicted, mother. I have had, by my present wife, five girls and one boy; I have buried of these the promising boy, and one girl: four girls I

have living, all at present very good; their mother a true and instructing mother to them.

"Thus have I lost six sons (all my sons) and two daughters, every one of which, to answer your question, I parted with with the utmost regret. Other heavy deprivations of friends, very near, and very dear, have I also suffered. I am very susceptible, I will venture to say, of impressions of this nature. A father, an honest, a worthy father, I lost by the accident of a broken thigh, snapped by a sudden jirk, endeavouring to recover a slip passing through his own yard. My father, whom I attended in every stage of his last illness, I long mourned for. Two brothers, very dear to me, I lost abroad. A friend, more valuable than most brothers, was taken from me. No less than eleven affecting deaths in two years! My nerves were so affected with these repeated blows, that I have been forced, after trying the whole *materia medica*, and consulting many physicians, as the only palliative (not a remedy to be expected) to go into a regimen; and, for seven years past have I forborne wine and flesh and fish; and, at this time, I and all my family are in mourning for a good sister, with whom neither I would have parted, could I have had my choice."

It was not till the year 1740 that Richardson gave public indication of those talents, which were to distinguish him from the body of sober and industrious tradesmen, who rise by patient assiduity to affluence and consideration. The booksellers, for whom he had been in the habit of writing indexes, prefaces, and "honest dedications," at this period "desired him to give them a volume of Familiar Letters upon a variety of supposed occasions. He began, but, letter producing letter, like John Bunyan 'as he pulled, it came,' till, unexpected to himself, the result was his *History of Pamela*." The two first volumes, all that were at first published, were written, says Mrs. Barbauld, in three months; but here is some mistake, for he himself is quoted as saying, "by a memorandum on my copy, I began it Nov. 10, 1739, and finished it Jan. 10, 1739-40." The applause with which this work was received was unbounded, and the most extravagant compliments were paid to the author. At the present day, when it is little read, Mrs. Barbauld's admirable critique will instruct as well as entertain the public.

"The fame of this once favourite work is now somewhat tarnished by time, as well as eclipsed by the author's subsequent publications; but the enthusiasm with which it was

received, shews incontrovertibly, that a novel written on the side of virtue was considered as a new experiment.

"Appreciating it at this distance of time, we must acknowledge that the faults are great, but the beauties are genuine. The character of Pamela, so long as her sole object was to resist her master's attempts, is beautifully drawn, with many affecting incidents, and little strokes of nature. Her innocent prattle to Mrs. Jervis, the rustic dress in which she equips herself, when determined to leave her place, her stealing down to the kitchen, to try if she could scour the pewter, in order to accustom herself to coarse household work—"I see I could do it," says she, "it only blistered my hand in two places;" the sudden spring she gives on seeing her father, by which she overturns the card-table, and the affecting account of her sufferings on attempting to make her escape, are all worthy of a master-hand. There are not many under-characters in this work; the most pleasing, and perhaps the best sustained, of the whole, are those of Goodman Andrews and his wife, Pamela's father and mother. It would not be easy to find a prettier picture of low life, and of true English low life, in its most respectable garb; made respectable by strict honesty, humility, patience of labour, and domestic affection; the whole rendered saintly and venerable by a touching air of piety and resignation, which pervades all their sentiments. The behaviour of the old man, when he walks to Mr. B.'s to enquire after his child; and his humble grief, is truly pathetic. The language of the good couple is simple, without being vulgar. It is not the simplicity of Arcadian shepherds: it is such as people in low life, with the delicacy of a virtuous mind, might fall into without any other advantages than a bible education. It is the simplicity of an English cottage. Mrs. Jervis, the virtuous house-keeper, is well-intentioned, grateful, but timid. The other, Mrs. Jewkes, is drawn in coarse but natural colours. The pride and passion of lady Davers are strongly drawn, some may think, perhaps too strongly, for a lady of her fashion; but we every now and then see instances in which nature will get the better of the decorums of life, and one of Richardson's correspondents tells him he could find him half a dozen lady Davers (her wit excepted) amongst his quality acquaintance.

"The character of Mr. B. himself is drawn with less address than that of any one in the piece: he is proud, stern, selfish, forbidding, (selfish, that is to say, in his love, for he has generosity enough in money matters) and his ideas of the authority of a husband are so high, that it is not easy to conceive of Pamela's being rewarded by marrying him, unless her regard for external circumstances was greater than the author would wish to have supposed. The moral

of this piece is more dubious than, in his life time, the author's friends were willing to allow. So long as Pamela is solely occupied in schemes to escape from her persecutor, her virtuous resistance obtains our unqualified approbation; but from the moment she begins to entertain hopes of marrying him, we admire her guarded prudence, rather than her purity of mind. She has an end in view, an interested end, and we can only consider her as the conscious possessor of a treasure, which she is wisely resolved not to part with but for its just price. Her staying in his house a moment after she found herself at liberty to leave it, was totally unjustifiable; her repentant lover ought to have followed her to her father's cottage, and to have married her from thence. The familiar footing upon which she condescends to live with the odious Jewkes, shews also, that her fear of offending the man she hoped to make her husband, had got the better of her delicacy and just resentment, and the same fear leads her to give up her correspondence with honest Mr. Williams, who had generously sacrificed his interest with his patron in order to effect her deliverance. In real life we should, at this period, consider Pamela as an interested girl; but the author says, she married Mr. B. because he had won her affection, and we are bound, it may be said, to believe an author's own account of his characters. But again, is it quite natural that a girl, who had such a genuine love for virtue, should feel her heart attracted to a man who was endeavouring to destroy that virtue? Can a woman value her honour infinitely above her life, and hold in serious detestation every word and look contrary to the nicest purity, and yet be won by those very attempts against her honour to which she expresses so much repugnance? Does not pious love to assimilate with pious, and pure with pure? There is, indeed, a gentle seduction of the affections, from which a virtuous woman might find herself in danger, especially when there existed such a bar to a legitimate union as great disparity of rank and fortune; but this kind of seduction was not what Mr. B. employed."

"His attempts were of the grossest nature, and, previous to, and during those attempts, he endeavoured to intimidate her by sternness. He puts on the master too much to win upon her as the lover. Can affection be kindled by outrage and insult? Surely, if her passions were capable of being awakened in his favour, during such a persecution, the circumstance would be capable of an interpretation very little consistent with that delicacy the author meant to give her. The other alternative is, that she married him for

"The gilt coach, and dappled Flanders mares."

Indeed, the excessive humility and gratitude

expressed by herself and her parents on her exaltation, shews a regard to rank and riches beyond the just measure of an independent mind. The pious Goodman Andrews should not have thought his virtuous daughter so infinitely beneath her licentious master, who, after all, married her to gratify his own passions.

"The indelicate scenes in this novel have been justly found fault with, and are, indeed, totally indefensible. Dr. Watts, to whom he sent the volumes, instead of compliments, writes him word, that he understands the ladies complain they cannot read them without blushing."

A spurious continuation of Pamela some time after gave occasion to Richardson to injure his literary reputation more than an enemy could have done, by adding two dull volumes, which Mrs. Barbauld says are "less a continuation of the story, than the author's defence of himself." It appears that he never could forgive Fielding for the ridicule of Pamela conveyed in his Joseph Andrews; his letters contain various proofs of an enmity which led him to deny his illustrious rival any claim to genius, and to reprobate his licentiousness in the harshest manner. "Yet," says our editor, "he could tolerate Cibber." It was eight years after the publication of Pamela, that the two first volumes of *Clarissa* were given to the world. Of this masterpiece Mrs. Barbauld has given a clear analysis and excellent critique. A specimen must suffice.

"That *Clarissa* is a highly moral work, has been always allowed; but what is the moral? Is it that a young lady who places her affections upon a libertine, will be deceived and ruined? Though the author, no doubt, intended this as one of the conclusions to be drawn, such a maxim has not dignity or force enough in it, to be the chief moral of this interesting tale. And, it has been already mentioned, that *Clarissa* can hardly stand as an example of such a choice, as she never fairly made the choice. On the contrary, she is always ready, both before her elopement and after it, to resign the moderate, the almost insensible predilection she feels for Lovelace, to the will of her parents; if she might only be permitted to refuse the object of her aversion. Is she, then, exhibited as a rare pattern of chastity? Surely this is an idea very degrading to the sex. Lovelace, indeed, who has a very bad opinion of women, and thinks that hardly any woman can resist him, talks of trying her virtue, and speaks as if he expected her to fail in the trial. But, surely, the virtue of *Clarissa* could never have been in the smallest danger. The virtue of Pamela was tried,

because the pecuniary offers were a temptation which many, in her station of life, would have yielded to; and, because their different situations in life opposed a bar to their legitimate union, which she might well believe would be insuperable. The virtue of Werter's Charlotte was tried, and the virtue of the wife of Zeluco was tried, because the previous marriage of one of the parties made a virtuous union impossible.—But Clarissa! a young lady of birth and fortune, marriage completely in her lover's power—she could have felt nothing but indignation at the first idea which entered her mind, that he meant to degrade her into a mistress. Was it likely that she, who had shewn that her affections were so much under her command, while the object of his addresses appeared to be honourable marriage, should not guard against every freedom with the most cautious vigilance, as soon as she experienced a behaviour in him, which must at once destroy her esteem for him, and be offensive to her just pride, as well as to her modesty? It is absurd, therefore, in Lovelace to speak of trying her chastity; and the author is not free from blame in favouring the idea that such resistance had any thing in it uncommon, or peculiarly meritorious. But the real moral of *Clarissa* is, that virtue is triumphant in every situation; that in circumstances the most painful and degrading, in a prison, in a brothel, in grief, in distraction, in despair, it is still lovely, still commanding, still the object of our veneration, of our fondest affections; that if it is seared on the ground it can still say with Constance,

“Here is my throne, kings, come and bow to it!”

“The novelist that has produced this effect, has performed his office well, and it is immaterial what particular maxim is selected under the name of a moral, while such are the reader's feelings. If our feelings are in favour of virtue, the novel is virtuous; if of vice, the novel is vicious. The greatness of *Clarissa* is shewn by her separating herself from her lover, as soon as she perceives his dishonourable views; in her chusing death rather than a repetition of the outrage; in her rejection of those overtures of marriage, which a common mind might have accepted of, as a refuge against worldly dishonour; in her firm indignant carriage, mixed with calm patience and christian resignation, and in the greatness of mind with which she views and enjoys the approaches of death, and her meek forgiveness of her unfeeling relations. In one particular the author has been blamed, and perhaps justly, for encouraging superstition, in representing *Clarissa* so greatly terrified at the curse laid upon her by her unnatural father. He may be faulty as a moralist, but it has a good dramatic effect: and I question if Richardson went much beyond his own ideas of the effi-

cacy of a parent's curse on this occasion. The too high colouring of some of the scenes has been objected to, as tending to inflame passions which it was the author's professed aim to regulate. He was led to it, in some measure, by the nature of his story, but he seems to have begun writing with a coarseness of ideas in this respect, which he got rid of by degrees. His *Clarissa* is far less objectionable than his *Pamela*; his *Grandison* not at all so. The death of *Sinclair* is painted with great strength, but excites painful disgust as well as horror; yet, being intended to excite a salutary disgust to the haunts of vice and infamy; perhaps, in that light may be borne with. Its operation is that of a strong medicine, meant to create a nausea. The death of *Belton* is an admirable piece of painting, and not excelled by anything in the admired scene of *Cardinal Beaufort*.

“It is not perfectly delicate that *Clarissa* should have so many interviews with *Lovelace* after the catastrophe. *Clarissa*, indeed, could not help it, but the author could. He should only have exhibited them together in those few striking scenes in which our feelings are wound up to the highest pitch. No long parleys, nothing that can be called trivial should pass between them then. If the reader, on opening casually the book, can doubt of any scene between them, whether it passes before or after the outrage, that scene is one too much.

“The character of *Lovelace*, though laboured with great art, is, perhaps, after all, more of a fancy piece than a real portrait of an English libertine. Where is the libertine who would attempt in England the seduction of young women, guarded by birth and respectable situations in life, and friends jealous of their honour, and an education which would set them far out of the reach of any disgraceful overtures? A love of intrigue, rather than a love of pleasure, characterizes *Lovelace*; he is a cool systematic seducer, and the glory of conquest is what he principally aims at. Had such a character been placed in France, and his gallantries directed to married women, it would have been more natural, and his epistolary memoirs rendered more probable; but, in England, *Lovelace* would have been run through the body, long before he had seen the face of *Clarissa*, or colonel *Morden*.”

Sir Charles *Grandison* appeared about four or five years after the completion of *Clarissa*. Mrs. Barbauld gives to this work in general the eloquent praise it merits, but, among other objections, makes the following.

“Sir Charles *Grandison*, however, lies open, as what work does not? to criticism. Besides the double love, which has been manipulated, there was another point which

perplexed the author much: sir Charles, as a Christian, was not to fight a duel, yet he was to be recognized as the finished gentleman, and could not be allowed to want that most essential part of the character, the deportment of a man of honour, courage, and spirit. And, in order to exhibit his spirit and courage, it was necessary to bring them into action by adventures and encounters. His first appearance is in the rescue of Miss Byron, a meritorious action, but one which must necessarily expose him to a challenge. How must the author untie this knot? He makes him so very good a swordsman, that he is always capable of disarming his adversary without endangering either of their lives. But are a man's principles to depend on the science of his fencing-master? Every one cannot have the skill of sir Charles; every one cannot be the best swordsman; and the man whose study it is to avoid fighting, is not quite so likely as another to be the best. Dr. Young, indeed, complimented the author upon his success in this nice point, in a flourishing epigram, which is thus expressed:

What hast thou done? I'm ravished at the scene;

A sword undrawn, makes mighty Cæsars mean.

But, in fact, it was not undrawn. In the affair with sir Hargrave, he may be said to have really fought a duel; for, though he refuses the challenge in words, he virtually accepts it, by going into the garden with him, knowing his purpose. In like manner he with Greville retires to a private spot, and there, on his adversary's drawing, which he might be sure he would do, draws, disarms, and gives him his life. But Greville might not have given him his, nor could every one turn a duel into such harmless play. Can, then, a better expedient be suggested? If not, must we not fairly confess that, in certain cases, the code of the gospel and the code of worldly honour are irreconcilable, and that a man has only to make his choice which he will give up."

The concessions offered by sir Charles in matters of religion to the proud and bigotted Poretta family, are "among those which a conscientious man will scruple, and a wise man will refuse to make."

Richardson, during his latter years, spent a considerable portion of his time at his country house, which was first at North End, Hammersmith, afterwards at Parson's Green. To arrange the prodigious mass of letters from which the present work is a selection, was the amusement of his leisure. He was now blessed with ease and affluence, surrounded by an amiable family, flattering

friends, and reverential admirers; but a nervous malady which had afflicted him for many years, and furnishes a constant subject of complaint in his letters, continually increasing upon him, embittered his life, which was terminated at length by a stroke of apoplexy, in July 1761. His character is judiciously summed up by Mrs. Barbauld "He was sober and temperate, regular and assiduous in business, of high integrity and undoubted honour;" but "his admirers were constrained to acknowledge that his imagination was not quite so pure as his conduct.

"He seems, by some means or other, to have acquired a most formidable idea of the snares to which young women are exposed, and of their incapacity (in general) to resist them. He seemed to think women had a great deal to hide, and though his chief intimacies were with ladies, he sometimes betrays a mean opinion of the sex in general. Perhaps we might find the origin of some of these ideas, if we were in possession of the love letters he wrote for his female companions, in the early period of his life, with their dangers and escapes; but, it is certain his writings rather tend to inspire a certain bashful consciousness, and shrinking reserve, than the noble simplicity of truth and nature, in the intercourse between the sexes."

He was a careful kind father, and a good husband, in essentials; but his exalted notions of the authority of husbands and fathers, and the duty of wives and children, appear to have precluded any thing like equal friendship, or familiar affection, between him and his family. To a very sensible letter of lady Bradshaigh on this topic, which we propose to cite hereafter, he answers ungraciously enough,

"I had rather, as too much reverence is not the vice of the age, lay down rules that should stiffen into apparent duty, than make the pert rogues too familiar with characters so reverend;" and adds, "I could wish, from the respectful manner (avoiding formality and stiffness as much as possible) in letters to a parent, let my eye fall on what part of the letter it would, to be able to distinguish it from one directed to a playmate."

A good deal of captiousness and half-serious petulance appears in his letters, and we are told tintured his conversation; but to children he was familiarly kind. By the way, one does not quite like his care to hand down to posterity

these certificates of his own virtues. He was exceedingly pious and religious; not very conversant, apparently, in polemical divinity, nor bigoted to any particular mode of faith; but sufficiently warm against unbelievers. Vain he certainly was, and almost perpetually occupied with himself and his works, but we ought to make allowance for the prodigious quantity of flattery continually heaped upon him by his admirers, male and female; particularly the latter, among whom he chiefly lived.

We now take leave, with regret, of this admirable piece of biography and criticism, and proceed to the letters themselves. Those of that benevolent, but unfortunate schemer Aaron Hill, first occur; they contain, mixed with abundant compliments to his correspondent, many passages relative to his own projects, and some characteristic of his extravagant self-opinion and heated imagination, through the fumes of which occasional flashes of sense, feeling, and fancy are apparent.

"What you tell me concerning my *Cæsar* gives me the pleasure you intended it should; but I receive it from a different quarter. It was your purpose to balance my chagrin at the inconsiderable effect of that essay, by representing it as obtaining some notice; whereas all the delight I enjoy from this generous artifice, is in my reflection on the view it arose from. For my part, I am afraid to be popular. I see so many who write to the living, and deserve not to live, that I content myself with a resurrection when dead. I very often remember, with pleasure, an old man (I am sure near a hundred), whom I rode by in a journey to Devonshire, and observed in the midst of a field, that had newly been plowed, very busy with a stick and a basket. When I came up to the place he was at work in, I found he was making holes in the ground, and in every one of them planting an acorn. Friend, said I, is it for profit, or pleasure, you labour?—For neither, sir, replied the honest old patriot; but here will be a grove when I want no shelter."

Dr. Young's letters are tinged with the gloom and discontent which clouded his life and his writings; but they are well expressed, and some of them not unpleasing. Richardson seems to have been aware of the degrading querulousness of his complaints relative to church preferment, and gives him some wholesome advice on the subject. Mrs. Barbauld, speaking of *Clarissa*, says, "Richardson loved to draw death-beds. He

seems to have imbibed from his friend, Dr. Young, an opinion of their being a touchstone of merit or demerit. There are three described in this work, besides that of *Lovelace*." This very plausible conjecture seems to be overturned by the following passage in a letter from our author to Young.

"Let me ask, however great and noble what you say of Mr. Addison's death is, whether it may not bear shortening? Will it not be thought laboured? And when, from the different nature of diseases, some of them are literally incapacitating, and deliriums happen often, is it not, or may it not be, discouraging to surviving friends to find wanting, in the dying, those tokens of resignation and true christian piety which Mr. Addison was graciously enabled to express so exemplarily to lord W. Sir J—S— was a good man, yet I have heard you mention his anxiety, and painful death, with no small concern."

The letters to and from the Miss Fieldings and Miss Collier, are such as it might be pleasant to receive from a friend, but contain little to interest the public. Richardson called many of the young ladies with whom he corresponded his daughters, and seems to have assumed the privilege of telling them of their faults pretty plainly; while they, on the other hand, are all reverence, compliments, and submission. Some letters from *Lætitia Pilkington* afford, as Mrs. Barbauld observes, a striking lesson of the degradation and distress subsequent on the loss of female virtue; but it mars the moral a little to find her, when she afterwards returns to Dublin, flourishing again in gay society and comparative affluence. Richardson appears to have administered liberally to her necessities; she was bashful neither in her requests, nor her acknowledgements, which, had her benefactor been averse to flattery, must have distressed and disgusted him. We cannot quite agree with Mrs. Barbauld in her opinion of the letters of *Colley Cibber*, who "shows," says she, "in every line the man of wit, and the man of the world." They seem to us more characteristic of a flippant libertine—for instance.

"Sir,
"I have just finished the sheets you favoured me with; but never found so strong a proof of your sly ill-nature, as to have hung me upon tenters, till I see you again. Z—ds! I have not patience, till I know what's become of her.—Why, you! I don't know

what to call you!—Ah! Ah! you may laugh if you please: but how will you be able to look me in the face, if the lady should ever be able to shew hers again? What piteous, d—d, disgraceful pickle have you plunged her in? For God's sake send me the sequel; or—I don't know what to say!"

"Sir,

"The delicious meal I made of Miss Byron on Sunday last, has given me an appetite for another slice of her, off from the spit, before she is served up to the public table; if about five o'clock to-morrow afternoon will not be inconvenient, Mrs. Brown and I will come and piddle upon a bit more of her: but pray let your whole family, with Mrs. Richardson at the head of them, come in for their share. This, sir, will make me more and more
Your's, &c.

C. Cibber."

We cannot but think that Richardson's acquaintance with Cibber, though it was not formed "till the more dissipated part of his life was over," reflects some discredit on so zealous a moralist. The imagination of a worn out debauchee can as little be restored to purity, as his frame to vigour; and his ideas might not improbably contribute to sully those of our author. In a letter to Miss Highmore, who was then, it seems, attached to Mr. Duncombe, whom she afterwards married, we have a specimen of that peculiar kind of humorous teasing in which several of his novel characters excel.

About half the third volume is composed of a correspondence with Mr. Edwards, author of the *Canons of Criticism*; the letters are sensible and friendly, but contain nothing sufficiently striking for citation. Mr. Edwards died on a visit to Richardson, by whom, and his worthy family, he was nursed with the utmost tenderness. We have a few charming letters in broken English, which enhances their effect, from the wife of the poet Klopstock; her calamitous and untimely death broke off this interesting correspondence almost in its infancy. We shall excite the reader's regret by an extract.

"You will know all that concerns me. Love, dear sir, all what me concerns! And love shall be all what I will tell you in this letter.

"In one happy night I read my husband's poem, the *Messiah*. I was extremely touched with it. The next day I asked one of his friends, who was the author of this poem? and this was the first time I heard Klopstock's name. I believe, I fell immediately in love

with him. At the least, my thoughts were ever with him filled, especially because his friend told me very much of his character. But I had no hopes ever to see him, when quite unexpectedly I heard that he should pass through Hamburg. I wrote immediately to the same friend, for procuring by his means that I might see the author of the *Messiah*, when in Hamburg. He told him, that a certain girl at Hamburg wished to see him, and for all recommendation, showed him some letters, in which I made bold to criticize Klopstock's verses. Klopstock came, and came to me. I must confess that, though greatly prepossessed of his qualities, I never thought him the amiable youth whom I found him. This made its effect. After having seen him two hours, I was obliged to pass the evening in a company, which never had been so wearisome to me. I could not speak, I could not play; I thought I saw nothing but Klopstock. I saw him the next day, and the following, and we were very seriously friends. But the fourth day he departed. It was an strong hour the hour of his departure! He wrote soon after, and from that time our correspondence began to be a very diligent one. I sincerely believed my love to be friendship. I spoke with my friends of nothing but Klopstock, and showed his letters. They rallied at me, and said I was in love. I rallied them again, and said that they must have a very friendshipless heart, if they had no idea of friendship to a man as well as to a woman. Thus it continued eight months, in which time my friends found as much love in Klopstock's letters as in me. I perceived it likewise, but I would not believe it. At the last Klopstock said plainly, that he loved; and I startled as for a wrong thing. I answered, that it was no love, but friendship, as it was what I felt for him; we had not seen one another enough to love (as if love must have more time than friendship!). This was sincerely my meaning, and I had this meaning till Klopstock came again to Hamburg. This he did a year after we had seen one another the first time. We saw, we were friends; we loved; and we believed that we loved; and a short time after I could even tell Klopstock that I loved. But we were obliged to part again, and wait two years for our wedding. My mother would not let marry me a stranger. I could marry then without her consent, as by the death of my father my fortune depended not on her; but this was an horrible idea for me; and thank heaven that I have prevailed by prayers! At this time knowing Klopstock, she loves him as her lively son, and thanks God that she has not persisted. We married, and I am the happiest wife in the world. In some few months it will be four years that I am so happy, and still I dote upon Klopstock as if he was my bridegroom.

"If you knew my husband; you would not wonder. If you knew his poem, I could

describe him very briefly, in saying he is in all respects what he is as a poet. This I can say with all wifely modesty But I dare not to speak of my husband; I am all raptures when I do it. And as happy as I am in love, so happy am I in friendship, in my mother, two elder sisters, and five other women. How rich I am!"

We have a good many letters from Richardson to Miss Mulso, chiefly on sentimental subjects, which appear to have been very freely discussed between them; but the want of the lady's part, of course, renders the other uninteresting, and sometimes not very intelligible. Of lady Bradshaigh, "the largest contributor to this correspondence," Mrs. Barbauld thus speaks.

"She married (after a persevering courtship, on his part, of ten years, as she herself informs us) sir Roger Bradshaigh, of Haigh, near Wigan, in Lancashire, at which place they lived in what was called the true English stile of country gentry, before the villa of the manufacturer had eclipsed, by its ephemeral splendour, the paternal seat of the hereditary landholder."

"Lady Bradshaigh bore the character of a most worthy, pious, and charitable woman. Sir Roger and herself were a very happy couple, as, indeed, sufficiently appears from the letters. She was active and managing, and her large household was so regulated as to be a pattern of order and decorum. They had no children. Lady Bradshaigh lived many years at Haigh, as a widow, keeping up the same stile of cheerful hospitality as in her husband's life-time. She died at an advanced age, above eighty, with all the sentiments of a piety which had been habitually wrought into the constitution of her mind.

"Lady Bradshaigh's mental qualifications seem to have been a good deal of sound native sense, and strong feeling, with a lively impressive imagination. She wrote with ease, and was fond of writing. She had a cheerful and generous disposition, as well as great natural vivacity, and in her letters exhibits a flow of expression, which, if the critic will not admit to be wit, must at least be allowed to rise to an agreeable sprightliness."

This correspondence opened in a manner truly romantic. A lady, calling herself Belfour, wrote to Richardson, whilst as yet only part of his *Clarissa* was published, pleading very warmly for the reformation of *Lovelace*, and a happy ending of the story; he replied; the incognita rejoined; and the correspondence was carried on about a year

before Richardson was made acquainted with the real name of the lady. A sincere friendship followed the disclosure, which continued till the death of our author. The letters written after their personal acquaintance began are the most interesting. We cannot but think that Richardson formed the lively style of his *Charlotte Grandison*, in great measure, from this lady's; but her spirited style and sensible remarks in the following letter, he wanted enlargement of mind to take pattern by.

"Sir,

"You are very provoking—you will not understand me. You said, without making any exceptions, that to have the dress and address of a rake, they must appear insolent, and curse and swear, and behave like monkeys. Now, I have often seen rakes behave with the strictest decency, though with a well-bred gaiety. What I would ask is, If there are not rakes who, in modest company, can appear like modest men, and with a genteel, easy, politeness? The dress and address of such a man, without his vices, is what I would recommend to the sober men, who are too often formal, and disagreeable in their manner, for want of a liberal education. And have I not before said, and I think with regret, that a man could not be educated as a gentleman ought to be, (such are the evil habits of men!) without being infected with vices below truly great men, though custom has so familiarized them to the gentleman? More's the pity! But would a good man be the worse for carrying the outside of such a one as I mean? Would it hurt a man's morals, to have the appearance of even *Lovelace*, as Miss Howe describes him at colonel Ambrose's ball? Let me see—I will give you her words:—'So little of the fop, yet so elegant and rich in his dress! His person so specious, his air so intrepid! So much meaning and penetration in his face! So much gaiety, yet so little of the monkey! Though a travelled gentleman, yet no affectation! No mere toupée-man, but all manly! And his courage and wit—the one so known, the other so dreaded!' Now, sir, I suppose this was designed to be thought an amiable appearance, do not you think it was? You answer yes. Well, then, to this body let us join a great and good soul—and pray, sir, what fault have you to find with the union? Might not your starch, and your weeping, your whining Hickmans and Ormes, be as valuable with such an appearance, as with the contrary? Ask either Miss Howe or Miss Byron. I durst venture to put the question to a *Clarissa*.

"You write my words, without taking my meaning, or you would not have been so startled. Is a bad person, a bad address,

necessary to complete a good man? Nor do I pretend to say the contrary. But, to draw a hero, I believe you will think it expedient to give him personal qualifications, as well as moral, though of less consideration. Nor would a sensible, moral man, be proud of his appearance, or be a self-mirrer.

"The address I wish to have imitated. I wish, not because it is that of a rake, but because it is that of a man who has seen the world, and has had opportunities of improving himself. Have not I, over and over, lamented the wickedness of your sex; that you could not obtain that improvement, without suffering a corruption of morals? And who says this? "A man's morality is often the price paid for travelling accomplishments."

"I absolutely deny, that, from what I have said, you can with justice pronounce that I *allow* of moderate rakery. I could not so far belie my heart. And then such things do you say, strengthened with your lines, and your double lines, that—just now I cannot abide you! I shall not talk of forgiveness, in hours, for I cannot forgive you, I know not how long.

"How you make me hate and despise old Cibber! You seem to think I am pretty much in his way of thinking. Thank you, sir! I laugh not at what he laughed at; nor should he have laughed me out of countenance, though I might have blushed with indignation. Where does he find the doctrine, that men may be criminal without being censurable? In his own corrupt heart. I believe, indeed, he is a perfect stranger to the most excellent of doctrines. He does not search too narrowly, for fear of finding that all crimes are not only censurable, but punishable. With what a heart does he stand upon the brink of that grave that is gaping to devour him! He draw a good man! A despicable wretch! He noted for his address! Yes; he was noted for the most finished cockcomb that ever humanity produced, as well off the stage as on, where he so often ridiculed his own character. And this is the man whose dress and address you think I shall approve! Well, sir, I only say, that if I have not a capacity to make myself understood, pray let the subject drop; for, you know me not. But I am a fool for being so serious; for your misconstructions are wilful. Surely they must be so, or I have very ill expressed my thoughts. And all this has arisen from my saying, the dress and address of a moderate rake, that is, of a well-bred man, was the most agreeable. And so I say still. And if for that I deserved cutting to pieces, you will now perhaps think proper to grind me to powder.

"Pray, sir, let me beg, if I have not lost all my interest, that you will never name your good man again to that old irreclaimable sinner of seventy-nine. His vile opinion

will taint the character. Vice, in youth, is not excusable; but in old age it is unpardonable. These are my thoughts, as naughty as I am."

"You have forgot, sir, that the first time I saw you, after reading your daughter's letter, I gave you my opinion of it; that I thought it a pretty letter upon an important occasion, well considered, and shewed an excellent and a humble mind, and consistent with her duty to you and to herself.

"Perhaps I only said part of this, but I thought it all. The style was the style you like. And, now I have so fair an opportunity, shall I resume my old spirit of sauciness, and find some faults with the style you generally make use of from children to their parents? Is not the repetition of so many respectful words, rather overdoing it? Is it not something too formal, and does it not seem to throw a child at too great a distance from an object which, I think, ought to be approached with an easy familiarity, though with love and respect? The having nothing less than reverence in their thoughts, may create an awe, and occasion a fear, beyond the fear of offending; and a parent may lose the endearing tenderness of a child, purely out of reverence for him.

"I have heard you complain of the want of freedom in your good, your amiable children. Their high notions of your superiority, and their great reverence for you, must be the reason, and I love and value them for it. Far be it from me to take off the reverence due from children to their parents, yet I would not have it perpetually dropping from their pen; and I should wish it rather, nay, abundantly, in the mind, but less in the expression; yet not backward in that, upon proper occasions. My excellent mother would never suffer her children to begin their letters with 'honoured madam'; she said it was too stiff: the tender epithets pleased her best. If she was dear to us, she doubted not of all the honour she could wish for."

She tells an anecdote much in the lady G.'s manner. The correspondence with lady Bradshaigh's sister, lady Echlin, entertained us as little as any in this selection. "She had not," the editor allows, "the parts and vivacity of her sister; she seems to have been rather a good and pious, than a brilliant woman: but piety and goodness it is always pleasing to contemplate." Unaffected piety and goodness it is certainly pleasing to contemplate; but the pharisaical spirit and sanctimonious rigidity so frequently apparent in her letters, does not, we own, greatly delight us.

Speaking of Richardson's selection of moral sentiments from his own works, she says,

"I am not surprised at any body's wishing you would oblige the world with a new piece of agreeable entertainment; but, give me leave to think that such persons as refuse to read your last excellent book, are over fond of reading amusing stories. Can any one of your best friends so little regard (or slight) the pith and marrow of nineteen volumes, as not to applaud you for bestowing time and pains on that choice collection, with no other view but to do good to your fellow creatures. Profit you did not expect! Surely then, your laborious work may justly be praised, as a benevolent act of charity; but no thanks do you get, except from old fashioned matrons, like your humble servant, who are better pleased with musty morals than a pretty love-story. I am even ill-natured enough to wish that whenever you are disposed to write again, you would disappoint your amorous readers, by not making the passion of love their entertainment. Allow me to say, the finest lessons you have written, and the best instruction you can give, blended with love intrigues, will never answer your good intention. I wish to see an exemplary widow drop from your pen; a very wicked widow has appeared in print lately."

On this head he answers her very well.

"I much admire what you say upon mingling love-subjects in my writings; but am afraid instruction without entertainment (were I capable of giving the best) would have but few readers. Instruction, madam, is the pill; amusement is the gilding. Writings that do not touch the passions of the right and airy, will hardly ever reach the

heart. Perhaps I have in mine been too copious on that subject; but it is a subject in which, at one time or other of their lives, all men and all women are interested, and more liable than in any other to make mistakes, not seldom fatal ones. Your ladyship wishes a widow might drop from my pen; but were not this widow to have been a lover too, she would lose more than half her merit."

There is surely too much of the flatterer in Richardson's replies to the disqualifying speeches of this lady; indeed it appears as if, during their whole intercourse, her superior quality, and the honour she conferred upon him, were very distinctly present to the mind of our author.

We have not thought it necessary to enumerate all those of whose epistolary intercourse with our great novelist these volumes preserve some memorial, nor to give utterance to every remark that suggested itself. Enough has, we trust, been said to give a distinct idea of the work before us. That the letters of the worthy Richardson and his friends contain many excellent and pious reflexions, pleasing moral sentiments, and agreeable traits of character, will readily gain belief; should they be found somewhat deficient in variety, richness, and poignancy of flavour. Genuine familiar letters, written even by sensible and cultivated persons, can scarcely, from the careless ease with which they are composed, and the trivial occurrences on which they are formed, afford more than a dilute and meagre entertainment, to which friendship alone can give a zest.

ART. XIII. *Life of Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. &c. with critical Observations on his Works.* By JOHN CORRY. 12mo. pp. 112.

DR. PRIESTLEY was born in March 1733 at Field-head in Yorkshire, sent to school at Battley near Leeds, fitted for the priesthood at Daventry, and elected, in 1755, copastor to Mr. John Meadows of Needham in Suffolk, under whose regard he passed three years studiously. A tree is said to be yet standing whereon he then had carved the name of Hartley; for in his walks, no less than in his closet, he was busied in imbibing the then recent doctrine of that great metaphysical philosopher. His popularity as a preacher was long resisted by an impediment in his speech, which he afterwards in some degree corrected. At Nantwyche in

Cheshire he officiated next, and on the small salary of 30l. but conducted with approbation an established school. His first publication was an English grammar: he also drew up there a Treatise on Perspective, and imagined the Charts of Biography and History. There too in 1762 he married Miss Wilkinson of Bristol, with whom he visited Glasgow, where a doctor's degree was presented to him: this was the more acceptable, as he had already been invited to Warrington by the committee intrusted with the management of the academy, and had determined to undertake a tutorship.

At Warrington Dr. Priestley staid

nine years. A syllabus of his Lectures on the Theory and History of Language is much valued by those who have preserved it: the Lectures on Oratory and Criticism, a continuation of the same course, were published at large: they are excellent, and by applying the Hartleyan theory to objects of taste, they chalked out for Alison the path which he has acquired a reputation by pursuing. The Lectures on History and general Policy were worthy in their time to be an elementary book with the philosophic politician; but were published too late for their greatest possible repute. The Lectures on the British Constitution, which were very panegyrical, perished in the Birmingham riots: an outline of them accompanies the Tract on Education. Dr. Priestley's stay at Warrington was sweetened by all that private attachment can offer of delightful to those who blend the social with the intellectual talents: the names of Aikin and Enfield are prominent among his acquaintance; of Vaughan and Beaufoy among his pupils. The Mouse's Petition was found in his study; the nap he took over a chess-board still lives in song.

After the dissolution of the Warrington academy in 1768, Dr. Priestley removed to Leeds, having accepted there, as he expresses it, the pastoral office. It was there that he first became a Socinian. His *View of the Principles and Conduct of the Protestant Dissenters*, his *Harmony of the Evangelists*, his *Duration of Christ's Ministry*, his *Institutes of natural and revealed Religion*, and many similar publications, were now the natural result of this zeal for duty, and for the interests of his sect. He neglected not however to cultivate a more expansive sort of patriotism, and published his truly constitutional *Essay on the first Principles of Government*, as well as the anonymous pamphlet on the *State of Liberty in this Country*, which procured him the attentions of sir George Saville. In 1774 he printed an *Examination of Reid, Beattie, and Oswald*: it was Hercules wrestling with Geryon: the affected neglect of the Scotch professors will not obliterate this victorious work, to which the German philosopher Kant attributes the first hint of his own system. Soon after appeared the abridgement of Hartley, accompanied with illustrations, and the *Disquisitions on Matter and Spirit*.

Dr. Priestley conducted too about this

time, against Dr. Price, a controversy concerning Materialism and Necessity, remarkable for its urbanity. Through the intervention of this friend, or in consequence of his obtaining the gold medal of the Royal Society in 1772, he acquired the patronage of the marquis of Lansdown, whose hospitalities he accepted in 1773. He took a warm but not a literary interest in the liberty and independence of North America, which was afterwards to afford him a congenial asylum. At Shelburne-house he mixed with Dr. Franklin, Mr. Burke, and others of that cast. He gave some assistance in the education of the earl of Wycombe. He enjoyed the use of a splendid library; and of a laboratory which had been fitted up for him in the family-mansion. The first of his volumes on air was dedicated to his noble patron, who settled, after a stay of seven years, an annuity of 150*l.* on Dr. Priestley. His discoveries concerning aeriform fluids attracted at this time toward him the admiration of the philosophers of Europe. Especially remarkable are, first, the first discovery of dephlogisticated and nitrous airs; second, the exhibition of the volatile alkali and many of the acids in the form of air; third, the application of the nitrous test to ascertain the purity of respirable air; fourth, the restoration of vitiated air by vegetation; fifth, the influence of light in evolving pure air; sixth, the use of respiration by the blood parting with phlogiston and absorbing dephlogisticated air. The experiments which led to these inferences have been condensed into three octavo volumes, printed for Johnson. Academies in every corner of Europe read, admired and showered on Priestley their honours: even the editor of Newton, as if jealous of a rival to his hero, pays an unwilling tribute of applause to the *luck* of the father of the gaseous philosophy.

In 1780 Dr. Priestley removed to Birmingham, and again devoted himself with zeal to the duties of a christian instructor. He audited catechumens, published forms of prayer, sermons, and various tracts, retranslated from the Hebrew the book of Proverbs, and composed his formidable work entitled a *History of the Corruptions of Christianity*. Dr. Priestley's object was no doubt to retain the substance without the superstitions of religion; and to inculcate the temper without the licence of philosophy. The effect of his book was considerable. The

established pulpits trembled to the eloquence of alarmed dignitaries: dissident congregations of arians, of calvinists even, apostatized to socinianism. Many of the cautious friends of civil liberty, who were little attached to any specific tenets, willingly assisted to patronize the unitarian sect, which they might well consider as a safer counterpoise to the progressive incroachment of a high-church party, than the growth of popular infidelity. A general spirit of enquiry into the number and nature of the laws concerning religion was excited. A determination ensued to apply to the legislature for a repeal of the Corporation and Test Acts. Dr. Priestley preached and published in behalf of unqualified toleration. His subsequent literary exertions (bating a sermon on the slave-trade) have chiefly tended to diffuse the notions started in the Corruptions of Christianity, a work which from its extensive influence forms an epocha in religious controversy. Of these writings one of the more remarkable is a History of Early Opinions, which, if not admired as a monument of erudition, contains a sketch of that ingenious theory of ecclesiastical history, which is further evolved in his General History of the Christian Church. The Defences of Unitarianism for the years 1788, 1789, 1790, and the Familiar Letters to the Inhabitants of Birmingham, had a popular circulation, and produced a popular antipathy.

A party of gentlemen having dined together on the 14th July 1791, the anniversary of the destruction of the Bastile, and the more eminent friends of Dr. Priestley (he was *not* present) having promoted the meeting; that moment of inflammation was chosen to arouse the populace against him. Like Faustus Socinus, he was obliged to fly from his home, alone and by night, and to leave his books, his laboratory, and his manuscripts, to be destroyed by a swinish multitude. A spark from his electric machine furnished the means of kindling the fuel on which his papers were thrown. The houses of many friends of liberty, and two christian temples of the One God, were also given to plunder and conflagration.

Dr. Priestley henceforward led but an unsettled life. The great men of the land took no pains to shew by an ostentatious hospitality how much they disapproved the conduct of his persecutors. He was indeed invited to Hackney as successor to Dr. Price, and taught at the then new college there. He addressed letters to Mr. Burke in defence of the French extinction of religious establishments. But as he continued to experience the frowns of power and the gnat-stings of contagious intolerance, he determined in 1794 to embark for North America. Dr. Priestley derived great consolation in his adversity from the friendship of Mr. Lindsey, whose mild virtues he had learned to know and love during a former residence in London. This is the christian friend to whom he pours on his departure a farewell sigh of lingering regret.

His reception in North America was natural and proper; the friends of liberty came to congratulate his arrival: the constituted authorities invoked on some public occasions his ability as a preacher, without betraying any symptoms of prejudice for or against his doctrinal suppositions: the presidents of congress, who were alternately of opposite parties, both noticed the philosopher with reverential welcome: the university of Philadelphia offered him but in vain the chair of chemical professor: the people facilitated his comfortable settlement among other emigrants of his connexion. Northumberland on the Susquehannah was the place of his final abode: it is there that in 1796 he lost his wife: it is there that in 1802 he dates the dedication of his Church History to Jefferson: it is there that he died on the 6th February 1804, and was buried, after the American manner, in a grove near his residence. The wise and good will venerate the spot which affords him a last shelter. Science shall discriminate his mould; religion be a pilgrim at his tomb; and liberty enroll his name among her steadiest supporters.

The congregation at Birmingham have erected a marble cenotaph to his memory, inscribed with the following words:

This Tablet
is consecrated to the Memory
of the reverend Joseph Priestley, LL. D.
by his affectionate Congregation :
in Testimony
of their Gratitude for his faithful Attention to their spiritual Improvement ;
and for his peculiar Diligence in training up their Youth
to rational Piety and genuine Virtue :
of their Respect for his great and various Talents,
which were uniformly directed to the noblest Purposes :
and of their Veneration for the pure benevolent and holy Principles,
which through the trying Vicissitudes of Life
and in the awful Hour of Death
animated him with the Hope of a blessed Immortality.
His Discoveries in natural Philosophy
have conferred just and lasting Celebrity on his Name
among the ablest Improvers of Science.
His Firmness as an Advocate of Liberty,
and his Sincerity as an Expounder of the Scriptures
endeared him to many of his enlightened and unprejudiced Contemporaries .
His Example as a Christian
will be instructive to the Wise and interesting to the Good
of every Country and in every Age.
He was born near Leeds in Yorkshire 24 March 1733 ;
was chosen a Minister of this Chapel, 31 Dec. 1780 ;
continued in that Office ten Years and six Months ;
embarked for America, 7 April, 1794 ;
and died at Northumberland-town in Pennsylvania, 6 February, 1804.

Such are the principal occurrences of a life here detailed with greater extent, and provided with much private and personal anecdote. It well deserves to be recorded. The utility of Dr. Priestley to his contemporaries in diffusing knowledge and promoting enquiry cannot but be widely felt and highly valued; but works of information, such as his lectures and histories of science, will always require, by their very nature, to be written anew for each generation, in order to incorporate the progressive accretions of knowledge. His enduring and perpetual reputation must chiefly be hinged on his metaphysical disquisitions, and on his chemical experiments. As a reasoner, he is plain, clear, direct, and acute; he has contributed much to popularize and to illustrate the Hartleyan theory of mind: some of his writings on this topic were unfortunately burned at Birmingham. He founded, and almost completed the gaseous philosophy; and alone added more facts to science than any subsequent school of chemists. As a theologian his name may justly be cherished by the unitarians for the attention he drew to their tenets, and for the persevering industry he devoted to the evulgaration of their doctrine. To the learned public it was

ANN. REV. VOL. III.

not his habit to appeal: in his manner of discussing scriptural questions, there was perhaps some want of pious reverence, which however favourable to the dismissal of superstition, tends also to enfeeble religious impressions: this must deter many fellow-labourers from the indiscriminate citation and commendation of his writings, and consequently infringe on their lasting popularity. But these writings form a storehouse of arguments which may be selected with severer criticism, and corroborated with deeper learning. He was rather the thunderbolt of socinianism, than a star in the galaxy of its watchers.

“ His sons to whose illumin'd minds he
gave
To view the rays that shine beyond the
grave,
His pastoral sons, bedew his corse with
tears;
While high triumphant thro' the heavenly
spheres
With songs of joy the smiling angels wing
His raptur'd spirit to the eternal king.
O you, the followers of the holy seer,
Foredoom'd the shrines of heaven's own
lore to rear,
You sent by heaven his labours to renew,
Like him, your model, simplest truth pursue.

L1

Vain is the impious toil with borrow'd
grace

To deck one feature of her angel face ;

Behind the veil's broad glare she glides
away,

And leaves a rotten form of lifeless painted
clay." Mickle's *Lusiad*, Book x.

Mr. Corry seems to have placed his idea of perfect conduct in the practice of virtue, and the pursuing of truth : we do not entirely agree with him (page 72) in ascribing this last quality so eminently to his hero. He who does not detect, *with equal pleasure*, an additional argument bearing *either way* on the question he is investigating, cannot be said to pursue truth. He is only pursuing the defence of preconceived opinion, if he catches with more eagerness at the new authority, or sophism operating in his own direction. Surely no reader of Priestley will contend that he does not preferably select the arguments of the one side or party ; and assign, with honest prejudice, a something more than due validity to their grounds and reasons. This is no reproach ; the office of a controversial theologian is far better performed by zeal than by equity ; pleading ought to be conducted by rival advocates, and not by the judge ; the pursuit of truth is necessarily confined to the sceptical school ; but the dogmatist is fitter far to overawe hesitation and inspire confidence ; now merit consists not so much in the choice of the part as in performing well the part allotted, or assumed. On the contrary we hold the following panegyrical paragraph to be strictly just :

" Joseph Priestley was, perhaps, the best representative of the old English character, that has appeared in the present age of insincere and foppish refinement ; and he may be compared with Daniel De Foe, and Andrew Marvel, who so nobly stemmed the torrent of corruption in worse times. Let those persons then, who yet may be inclined to condemn this philosopher, first candidly peruse

his works, and do not let them, as is almost always the case, disapprove of his sentiments without examination.

" A few narrow-minded individuals may endeavour to decry their once persecuted countryman, but surely the majority of unbiassed Britons are too magnanimous to remember only the errors of a man like themselves. They cannot forget his eminent services. His venerable remains, it is true, are interred in another country far distant from his native land :

" By strangers honour'd and by strangers
mourn'd."

" But ' though dead, he yet speaketh,' in his excellent moral and philosophical works, which remain an honourable memorial of his genius and his virtue.

" The man resolv'd and steady to his trust,
Inflexible to ill, and obstinately just,
May the rude rabble's insolence despise,
Their senseless clamours and tumultuous
cries.

The tyrant's fierceness he beguiles,
And the stern brow, and the harsh voice
defies,
And with superior greatness smiles.

Not the rough whirlwind that deforms
Adria's black gulph, and vexes it with
storms,

Nor the red arm of angry Jove.
That flings the thunder from the sky,
And gives it rage to roar and strength to
fly,

The stubborn virtue of his soul can
move !

Should the whole frame of nature round him
break,

In ruin and confusion hurl'd,
He unconcern'd would hear the mighty crack,
And stand secure amidst a falling world."

We still wish that some much more extensive life of Priestley might be undertaken, incorporating an analysis of his perishable works, and introducing a new and shortened edition of his permanent ones. Where so much has been written, and sometimes hastily, *Oeuvres Choisies*, or Select Works, would outlast an entire edition.

ART. XIV. *Letters written by the late Earl of Chatham to his Nephew Thomas Pitt, Esq. (afterwards Lord Camelford) then at Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 104.*

THE public character of lord Chatham is one of the most splendid of those, by which the pages of British history are adorned. The esteem and confidence of the people he possessed in almost an unbounded degree. The integrity of his public conduct seems liable to no impeachment. The stations of eminence to which he was raised, he neither purchased

nor retained by any servile or degrading compliances. Though the instrument of the sovereign power, the privileges of the people, and the principles of the free constitution of England were always sacred in his eyes. As an orator he revived in the British senate the best periods of Rome and Athens, when a resistless eloquence wielded at will the

fiere democracy." As a statesman he seems equally to have excelled in those enlarged views which give birth to great designs, and in that patient attention to detail which is necessary to carry them into effect. What he planned with skill, he executed with vigour and decision; every thing yielded to the predominance of his genius, and inferior agents became but instruments in his hands, the most efficacious to complete his purposes. Under his administration all seemed to move as under the direction of one master-mind. We shall not attempt to deduct from this brilliant character, by enquiring whether ambition, the common infirmity of noble spirit, the love of undivided power, and the desire of appearing as the arbiter of Europe, may not have possessed too great a preponderance in his breast.

It is a gratification of no common nature to be admitted to the privacies of men who have attained such eminence in celebrity as deservedly fell to the share of lord Chatham, to be the witnesses of their conduct in the relations of domestic life and social intercourse, to follow them even into their retirements and hours of relaxations, and to observe all the peculiarities of habit by which they may have been distinguished.

These letters however are not calculated to afford us much minute information respecting the private or public life of lord Chatham. They are addressed to a single person, a youth, a beloved nephew, then residing at Cambridge for the purpose of his education. They however communicate very pleasing ideas of the amiable qualities, both of the writer and the person to whom they were addressed. In the letters of lord Chatham we find nothing of that vehemence which formed his characteristic in public; all is mild and gentle, his counsels are not the dictates or solemn admonitions of a superior, but the kind insinuating advice of a friend and equal, who profits by age and experience to direct and smoothen the path, in which he has already trodden, and which those, in whose welfare he is interested, are beginning to pursue. We are happy to add also, on the authority of the editor, that the pupil of lord Chatham continued to his latest hour, such as the solicitude of such a man may induce us to infer that he was in the period of youth. "The same suavity of manners and steadiness of principle, the same correctness of judgment and integrity of heart distinguished him through life, and the same affectionate attachment from

those who knew him best, has followed him beyond the grave."

The letters which form this volume were addressed, principally in 1754 and the two succeeding years, to Thomas Pitt, afterwards lord Camelford, and nephew of the great earl of Chatham. The editor is lord Grenville, who has prefixed a dedication to Mr. Pitt, and an elegant and sensible preface. The observations relative to lord Clarendon, and his connection with the events of the memorable period in which he lived, from which England may date the establishment of her liberties, are very just and candid.

The subjects of advice included in these letters are chiefly three—the obligations of religion and morality, the observances of polite intercourse in the world, and the choice and regulation of studies for the improvement of the mind.

It must give the reader pleasure to observe, that amidst the splendour of a court, the contests of rivalry, and the almost incessant engagements of a political life, lord Chatham appears to have lost no portion of his reverence for the christian religion. He omits no opportunity which occurs of inculcating religious sentiments, as the best tests of virtuous principles, and surest spring of virtuous conduct.

It may be easily concluded that a man who had lived so much in the world as lord Chatham, was fully sensible of the importance of those *petites morales*, those minute observances of respect and decorum, which serve to smoothen the movements of the great machinery of social intercourse. In the politeness which he recommends there is however nothing false and dissembling; it is only that useful and ornamental polish and brightness, of which, if placed under proper influences, the best and most generous natures, like the noblest metals, will be most susceptible.

The course of study which lord Chatham marks out in these letters, as the editor justly observes, is not to be considered as complete. "Many points in which they will be found deficient, were undoubtedly supplied by frequent opportunities of personal intercourse, and much was left to the general rules of study established at an English university." The dissuasion of his nephew from the cultivation of Greek literature, arose not from any general opinion established by him on that subject, but from some previous neglect of his friend's education, which rendered it unadvisable for him to

engage at once in studies too various and complicated. The fundamental principle, on which lord Chatham raises the superstructure of education is this, that learning is "the weapon and instrument only of manly, honourable, and virtuous action, upon the stage of the world; both in private and public life, as a gentleman and as a member of the commonwealth, who is to answer for all he does to the laws of his country, to his own breast and conscience, and at the tribunal of honour and good fame." The works recommended by the great statesman to the study of his friend and pupil chiefly fall under the following classes—Latin authors, of whom the best and purest only are mentioned; works of English taste and poetry, among which we do not however find the great name of Milton; a few French authors; historical and political writings, chiefly relating to English affairs; a few works of science, such as Euclid, the writings of Locke, &c.; and in oratory, the works of Tully and Demosthenes. The use of the latter name, may perhaps be considered only as a figure of speech, since, without derogating from his merit, it does not appear, that the youth, whose studies are here the subject of direction, was qualified for perusing him in his original language. The excellencies of Demosthenes are however of that nature which a good translation is most capable of conveying; strength of sentiment, and unrivalled force of awful representation, and piercing expostulation.

We cannot avoid observing, that it is to the praise of literature that such a man as lord Chatham appears to have formed his mind upon Greek and Roman models.

The style of his letters is often eloquent, always animated, and evidently unartificial. We doubt not that they were written with the same rapidity with which his parliamentary speeches were delivered.

The eye is offended by one typographical defect, in the manner of printing the poetical quotations in continued lines, undistinguished from the tenor of the prose.

We shall discharge our duty to our readers by inserting the following excellent letter entire.

"*Bath, Jun. 14, 1754.*

"My dear nephew,

"You will hardly have read over one very

"The Rev. John Wheeler, prebendary of Westminster. The friendship formed between this gentleman and lord Camelford at so early a period of their lives, was founded in mutual esteem, and continued uninterrupted till lord Camelford's death."

long letter from me before you are troubled with a second. I intended to have writ soon, but I do it the sooner on account of your letter to your aunt, which she transmitted to me here. If any thing, my dear boy, could have happened to raise you higher in my esteem, and to endear you more to me, it is the amiable abhorrence you feel for the scene of vice and folly, (and of real misery and perdition, under the false notion of pleasure and spirit), which has opened to you at your college, and at the same time, the manly, brave, generous, and wise resolution and true spirit, with which you resisted and repulsed the first attempts upon a mind and heart, I thank God, infinitely too firm and noble as well as too elegant and enlightened, to be in any danger of yielding to such contemptible and wretched corruptions. You charm me with the description of Mr. Wheeler,* and while you say you could adore him, I could adore you for the natural, genuine love of virtue, which speaks in all you feel, say, or do. As to your companions let this be your rule—Cultivate the acquaintance with Mr. Wheeler which you have so fortunately begun: and in general, be sure to associate with men much older than yourself: scholars whenever you can: but always with men of decent and honourable lives. As their age and learning, superior both to your own, must necessarily in good sense, and in the view of acquiring knowledge from them, entitle them to all deference, and submission of your own lights to theirs, you will particularly practice that first and greatest rule for pleasing in conversation, as well as for drawing instruction and improvement from the company of one's superiors in age and knowledge, namely, to be a patient, attentive, and well-bred hearer, and to answer with modesty: to deliver your own opinions sparingly and with proper diffidence; and if you are forced to desire farther information or explanation upon a point, to do it with proper apologies for the trouble you give: or if obliged to differ, to do it with all possible candour, and an unprejudiced desire to find and ascertain truth, with an entire indifference to the side on which that truth is to be found. There is likewise a particular attention required to contradict with good manners: such as, begging pardon, begging leave to doubt, and such like phrases. Pythagoras enjoined his scholars an absolute silence for a long novitiate. I am far from approving such a taciturnity: but I highly recommend the end and intent of Pythagoras's injunction: which is to dedicate the first parts of life more to hear and learn, in order to collect materials, out of which to form opinions founded on proper lights, and well-examined sound principles, than to be presuming, prompt, and flippant, in hazarding one's own slight crude notions of things; and thereby exposing the nakedness and emptiness of the mind, like a house opened to company be-

fore it is fitted either with necessities, or any ornaments for their reception and entertainment. And not only will this disgrace follow from such temerity and presumption, but a more serious danger is sure to ensue, that is, the embracing errors for truths, prejudices for principles; and when that is once done, (no matter how vainly and weakly), the adhering perhaps to false and dangerous notions, only because one has declared for them, and submitting, for life, the understanding and conscience to a yoke of base and servile prejudices, vainly taken up and obstinately retained. This will never be your danger; but I thought it not amiss to offer these reflections to your thoughts. As to your manner of behaving towards these unhappy young gentlemen you describe, let it be manly and easy; decline their parties with civility; retort their raillery with raillery, always tempered with good breeding: if they banter your regularity, order, decency, and love of study, banter in return their neglect of them; and venture to own frankly, that you came to Cambridge to learn what you can, not to follow what they are pleased to call pleasure. In short, let your external behaviour to them be as full of politeness and ease as your inward estimation of them is full of pity, mixed with contempt. I come now to the part of the advice I have to offer to you, which most nearly concerns your welfare, and upon which every good and honourable purpose of your life will assuredly turn; I mean the keeping up in your heart the true sentiments of religion. If you are not right toward God, you can never be so towards man: the noblest sentiment of the human breast is here brought to the test. Is gratitude in the number of a man's virtues? if it be, the highest benefactor demands the

warmest returns of gratitude, love, and praise: *Ingratum qui dixerit, omnia dixit*. If a man wants this virtue where there are infinite obligations to excite and quicken it, he will be likely to want all others towards his fellow-creatures, whose utmost gifts are poor compared to those he daily receives at the hands of his never-failing Almighty Friend. Remember thy Creator in the days of thy youth, is big with the deepest wisdom: The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom; and, an upright heart, that is understanding. This is eternally true, whether the wits and rakes of Cambridge allow it or not: nay, I must add of this religious wisdom, Her ways are ways of pleasantness, and all her paths are peace, whatever your young gentlemen of pleasure think of a whore and a bottle, a tainted health and battered constitution. Hold fast therefore by this sheet-anchor of happiness, religion; you will often want it in the times of most danger; the storms and tempests of life. Cherish true religion as precious as you will fly with abhorrence and contempt superstition and enthusiasm. The first is the perfection and glory of the human nature; the two last the depravation and disgrace of it. Remember the essence of religion is, a heart void of offence towards God and man; not subtle speculative opinions, but an active vital principle of faith. The words of a heathen were so fine that I must give them to you: *Compositum jus, fasque animi, sanctosque recessus mentis, et incoctum generoso pectus honesto*.

"Go on, my dear child, in the admirable dispositions you have towards all that is right and good, and make yourself the love and admiration of the world! I have neither paper nor words to tell you how tenderly

"I am yours."

ART. XV. *Memoirs of the Life of Gilbert Wakefield, B. A. formerly of Jesus College, Cambridge.* 2d edition, 2 vols. 8vo.

THE first volume of this work is a republication, with amendments and additions, and an appendix of letters, of the memoirs of himself, published by the late Gilbert Wakefield, in the year 1792. The second volume is original, consisting of a continuation of the memoirs of Mr. W. from 1792 till his death in 1801, (with an appendix of various interesting and instructive articles) compiled by two of his intimate friends, Mr. J. T. Rutt, and Mr. A. Wainwright.

The memoirs of Gilbert Wakefield are doubtless a valuable addition to the biographical writings of our country.—Narrations, like the present, of the lives of eminent persons, recorded by themselves, possess peculiar charms, if executed with that frankness and freedom, without which a writer will scarcely deviate

so far from the beaten track, as to become the historian of his own actions and principles, and with that modest, yet just and manly self-estimate, which are almost inseparable from virtue and talents. In this class of writings we do not hesitate to number the work before us. It is the production of a man of eminent integrity, and great moral and intellectual attainments, neither unconscious of his own deserts, nor forgetful of their proper limits; alive to the applause of good men, and candidly and patiently open to their censure; accustomed to measure his own conduct and that of others, by the strictest standard of rectitude, and harbouring no thought respecting himself or them, which he would fear to avow before the world. The following preliminary observations

of the author, are well worthy of insertion.

"Of all those biographical relations, which have contributed so much to inform and delight mankind, those, if I mistake not, have been received with peculiar eagerness and approbation, where the writer and the subject have been the same. Who has not, for instance, felt himself interested, to a degree of uncommon avidity, in perusing the lives of Lord Horbert, William Lilly, Whiston, Clarendon, and Cibber?"

"Nor is elevated rank, superior genius, or a dignified station, necessary to this exquisite gratification of the reader. The essential requisites of such a work are, events not wholly unimportant, nor unconnected with the political or literary transactions of the times, related in a style perspicuous, nor yet void of ornament, with the confidence of integrity, and the simplicity of truth.

"For my own part, I can sincerely affirm, that no motives of vanity, engendered by an overweening persuasion of great accomplishments or distinguished virtues, have impelled me to present my *own memoirs* to the public, unconnected with a *sense of duty*.

"Nor let the reader startle at the apparent singularity of this declaration. I am firmly persuaded, that a life like mine, of which so large a portion has been employed in a vigorous pursuit of *religious truth*, and an undaunted profession of her dictates, in opposition to the sensibilities of domestic influence, the restraints of friendship, and the solicitations of worldly interest, in conjunction with such application to useful literature, as precarious health, embarrassed circumstances, perpetual change of residence, and numerous avocations, would allow: I am, I say, firmly persuaded, that such a life, faithfully delineated, can hardly fail of a beneficial influence on the manners of the rising generation.

"Grateful as I am to the GRACIOUS BENEVOLENCE, without whom I and my faculties are nothing—"who worketh in me both to will, and to do of his good pleasure," I feel no disposition to affront his bounty by assuming the language of *hypocritical* humility. Venerating TRUTH above all earthly things, I can think and speak of myself, as well as of other men, without malice and without extenuation. I will never incur a *real* imputation of dissimulation and ingratitude, by adopting a silly affectation to avoid the mere appearance of conceit.

"Oft times nothing profits more Than self-esteem, grounded on just and right, Well managed."

"In such a narrative, the ingenuous youth may find some encouragement to perseverance in that honourable path, to which Conscience shall direct his steps, amidst the seductions of example, and the general licentiousness of the age: and may learn, from one specimen at least, the infinite satisfaction of unpensioned philosophy, in competition

with preferments, when the conditions of acceptance are inconsistent with freedom of enquiry, a love of truth, and the injunctions of Christianity."

Gilbert Wakefield was born in Nottingham, February 22, 1756. His father was rector of the church of St. Nicholas in that town, and appears to have been a man of a highly respectable character. His maternal family had for many generations been settled in Nottingham.

As is perhaps usually the case with those who acquire a high degree of intellectual attainment, the indications of superior talents were early discoverable in Gilbert Wakefield. "I was inspired," says he, "from the first, with a most ardent desire of knowledge, such, I believe, as hath never been surpassed in any breast, nor for a moment impaired in mine."

About the age of seven, he was initiated in the Latin language in the free-school of Nottingham, under the rev. Samuel Berdmore, at that time usher of the school, and afterwards master of the charter-house school in London. Any obligations to the instructions of that gentleman, whose abilities he describes as above mediocrity, he does not however acknowledge. Some interesting anecdotes of Johnson, the celebrated school-master of Nottingham, and antagonist of Bentley, are here related. At the age of nine our author was removed to the care of the rev. Isaac Pickthall, at Wilford, on whose strict, but conscientious discipline, he severely animadverted.

In 1766, his father was promoted to the vicarage of Kingston, with the chapelry of Richmond, to the latter of which places he removed. The son was here placed under the tuition of his father's curate, whose incompetency as a preceptor is described as surpassing that of all his predecessors, so that the acquisitions of the pupil, as he informs us, in all these years, from his numerous preceptors, were literally nothing, though in the mean time his own application was unremitted.

At this last school he continued till September 1769, and here gained his first acquaintance with the Greek language. He was removed at the age of thirteen years, to "a more genial climate, being transferred to the tuition of the rev. Richard Wooddeson" of Kingston. Under this gentleman, who was distinguished by skill and industry in the exercise

of his profession, several literary characters received their education, particularly Mr. Lovibond, the poet, Mr. Steevens, the editor of Shakspeare, Keate, author of the *Sketches of Nature*, Gibbon the historian, Mr. Hayley, and baron Maseres.

After having presided with reputation over the school at Kingston nearly forty years, Mr. Wooddeson, oppressed with age and infirmities, relinquished his station, about 1772, and in the month of April in that year, our author, being then sixteen years of age, was transferred to the university of Cambridge. He was sent to Jesus college (where his father had received his education) at that time under the mastership of Dr. Lynford Caryl. The college tutors were Messrs. Milner and Darby, both respectable for their abilities, but, in the opinion of their pupil, deficient in the activity and zeal which are absolutely requisite for that momentous office.

Mr. Wakefield here resumed with ardour his classical studies, and was with difficulty induced to quit these flowery paths of literature, for the purpose of entering on the abstruser departments of academical education. At last, says he, emulation effected what reason and inclination were unable to accomplish, and upon hearing that several of his contemporaries had already made a considerable proficiency in geometry, he resolutely sat down to encounter this formidable adversary with all the assiduity that he could bear, and all the faculties that he could summon.

During the two first years of his residence at college, he continued to apply himself to the mathematical and philosophical studies of the place, with a stated intermixture of classical reading, not however abandoning the pleasures of social intercourse, for which he always retained his relish, nor neglecting the practice of regular exercise, which he regarded with almost a religious observance.

In the third year of his residence, he first offered himself as a candidate for academical honours. Three annual medals, each of the value of five guineas, were left by Dr. Browne, for the best Greek ode in imitation of Sappho, the best Latin ode in imitation of Horace, and the best pair of epigrams, one on the model of the Greek *Anthologia*, and the other on that of Martial. The candidates for these prizes must be undergraduates. Mr. Wakefield became a com-

petitor for each of these honours, but unsuccessfully.

During the long vacation of 1775, spending a few weeks at his father's house in Richmond, he was induced, by meeting with Lyons's Hebrew Grammar, to apply himself to the acquisition of that language. It is a proof of the activity of his mental powers, that, in the course of ten days, he had read, by the help only of Buxtorf's Lexicon, nine or ten of the first chapters in Genesis, "without much difficulty, and with infinite delight."

"From that hour I kept up a constant cultivation of the Hebrew; without some knowledge of which tongue, no man, I venture to affirm, can have an adequate perception of the phraseology of the New Testament.

"In a little work called *Directions for the Student in Theology*," I have sufficiently disclosed the facility of that method which I pursued; and shall, therefore, say no more in this place. Notwithstanding its undeniable superiority, many still prefer their old *Mumpsimus* to our new *Sumpsimus*. The chief motive for the recommendation of *points*, in those who understand them, is, I fear, too often, pride.

— "Nec quæ
Imberbes didicere, senes perdenda, fateri."

"Nor own that it were best, provoking truth!

In age to unlearn, the learning of their youth."

"They are not fond, in the first place, of acknowledging themselves mistaken; and in the next, they cannot prevail upon themselves to reject as useless, what has cost them so much pains in the acquisition.

"Jamque dies, ni fallor, adest, quem, semper acerbum,
Semper honoratum, sic Di voluistis! habebo."

"Or in plain English prose, it was January 16, 1776,—"the great, the important day," in which the fruit of all my application was to be fame or disappointment. Seventy-five of us took our degrees that year; very few compared to former times; for Eachard observed, more than a century ago, that "two hundred, for the most part, yearly commence." The best of these seventy-five were but moderate proficient; and those of us in the highest posts of honour, greatly inferior to our immediate predecessors, and to those who succeeded us.

"For my own part, though I set inestimable value on the general conceptions, which I had then acquired, I felt within me no proper relish for these sublimities of knowledge, nor one spark of real inventive

genius. But happy that man who lays the foundation of his future studies deep in the recesses of Geometry! "that purifier of the soul," as Plato called it; and in the principles of mathematical philosophy; compared with those noble theories, I make no scruple to declare it, our classical lucubrations are as the glimmering of a taper to the meridian splendours of an æquatorial sun.

"What subject of human contemplation shall compare in grandeur with that which demonstrates the trajectories, the periods, the distances, the dimensions, the velocities, and gravitation of the planetary system; states the tides; adjusts the nutation of the earth, and contemplates the invisible comet, wandering in his parabolic orb for successive centuries, in but a corner of boundless space? which considers that the diameter of the earth's orbit, of one hundred and ninety millions of miles in length, is but an evanescent point at the nearest fixed star to our system; that the first beam of the sun's light, whose rapidity is inconceivable, may be still traversing the bosom of boundless space? Language sinks beneath contemplations so exalted, and so well calculated to inspire the most awful sentiments of the GREAT ARTIFICER; of that wisdom which could contrive this stupendous fabric; that PROVIDENCE which can support it; and that POWER whose hand could launch into their orbits, bodies of a magnitude so prodigious!

— "But I lose
Myself in HIM, in LIGHT INEFFABLE:
Come then, expressive Silence, muse his
praise!"

"Moderate, however, as my attainments were, I had the honour of nomination to the second post: though the Emanuel men, who, that year, furnished the Vice-chancellor and the Proctor, to make the distance more conspicuous, by an unhandsome artifice, interposed the four gratuitous Honorati between their hero and myself; contrary to the practice of some preceding years, and, I believe, to the practice ever since.

"Whoever might suggest this expedient, I mean not the least reflexion on the Vice-chancellor, Dr. Farmer, who was forward, on various occasions, to praise and to befriend me: and the Proctor was Dr. Bennet, the present bishop of Clove, who has testified his regard for me with uniform benevolence."

Two medals are annually offered by the chancellor of the university to the two best proficient in the ancient languages; no bachelor of arts is however qualified to become a candidate, who has not attained a certain eminence in the honours allotted to mathematical proficiency. The candidates of that year were only two, Mr. Forster, afterwards master of the free-school at Norwich,

and Mr. Wakefield. The second prize was allotted to the latter.

On the 17th of April, 1776, he was elected fellow of Jesus college, on the nomination of the master and fellows, by the late Dr. Edmund Keene, bishop of Ely.

In the same year he first appeared as an author, publishing at the university press, a small collection of Latin poems, partly original, and partly translated, with an appendix, containing some notes and criticisms on Horace.

"The members in parliament for the university, after the example of the chancellor, give yearly four prizes, of fifteen pounds value each, to the best exercises in Latin prose, on a subject proposed by the vice-chancellor." In 1777, Mr. W. became a competitor for this honour, and obtained the second prize. The next year he gained the same success. "Thus was my ambition," says he, "regularly mortified by an inferior allotment on every occasion!—Second wrangler, second medallist, and both years second in the bachelor's prize."

On the 22d of March, 1778, he was ordained a deacon, by Dr. Hinchcliffe, bishop of Peterborough. Even then he was so little satisfied, both with the requisition of subscription and with its subjects, that he represented this transaction as the most disingenuous of his whole life. This circumstance gives occasion to some strong remarks on the subject of subscription.

A society at this time subsisted at Cambridge, called the Hyson Club, consisting of several respectable members of the university. In this number was Mr. Wakefield. His associates were, Dr. Beadon, the present bishop of Bath and Wells, Dr. Waring, the late professor of mathematics, Dr. Pearce, now dean of Ely, Dr. Pretymann, bishop of Lincoln, Dr. Milner, now master of Queen's college, and dean of Carlisle, Mr. Mounsey, and Mr. Vince, an eminent mathematician. Most of these names have since become well known to the world.

In 1778, feeling himself inclined to quit the boundaries of a college life, Mr. Wakefield advertised for a curacy. To this application he received an answer, dictated in the spirit of theological traffic, in recompence for the laborious duties of a curate, offering the salary of fifty pounds per annum. To this proposal it needs scarcely to be added, that an abrupt refusal was returned. In April, however, of the same year, he quitted

the university, for the curacy of Stockport, in Cheshire. On this occasion he indulges those sentiments of respect and affection for the venerable seat of his education, which he never ceased to cherish, and the passage which contains them we insert with pleasure.

"In the mean time, as Dr. Jortin has observed, with all the pathos of a pensive spirit, in words unspeakably soothing to the mind ; "An agreeable remembrance of former days presents itself:"

— "Nec me meminisse pigebit
Alumnæ,
Dum memor ipse mei, dum spiritus hos regit
artus."

"Five years and a half, with little interruption, did I pass in this blissful seat, in the enjoyments of friendship, and the pursuits of learning. The occasional undulations which the force of ambition, or the gusts of passion, might raise upon the surface of my breast, were soon calmed by the infusions of time and the sunshine of religion.

"When I traced those hallowed paths which the most illustrious of my species had trodden before me; when I rambled on those banks, ranged those fields, or sauntered in those groves, where Bacon reasoned, Newton meditated, and Milton sang; an awful complacency breathed over my spirits: the images of these unrivalled heroes at once inspired my emulation, and annihilated every sentiment of self-sufficiency. I felt the full impression of those enraptured effusions of the poet:—

"I seem through consecrated walks to rove,
And hear soft music die along the grove.
Led by the sound, I roam from shade to shade,
By god-like poets venerable made."

At Stockport, Mr. Wakefield became the curate of the rev. John Watson, a man of great liberality and learning, and particularly distinguished by his antiquarian knowledge. Among the intimacies which his situation in this part of the kingdom led him to form, may be mentioned, that with Mr. Owen, of Warrington, the elegant translator of Juvenal.

In August of the same year, Mr. Wakefield quitted Stockport, and became a candidate for the mastership of Brewood school, in Staffordshire, having received information that subscription to the articles was not a necessary requisite for that appointment. The progress of his suit was favourable to his wishes, and the testimonials which he obtained highly creditable to his talents, attainments, and character; the prospect however

proved delusive, as he found that he had been misinformed on the subject of subscription, and he was compelled to abandon his expectations, thinking it inconsistent with ingenuousness and duty to repeat a profession, which had now become wholly discordant with his principles and sentiments.

He soon afterwards accepted the curacy of St. Peter's, in Liverpool, principally with a view of establishing a day-school in that town, if a suitable opportunity should present itself. In this situation he continued to pursue, with earnestness, his theological studies. His objections to the creed contained in the articles of the church of England daily multiplied, and, as he was incapable of compromise, on subjects which he deemed of the highest importance, his resolution of quitting that church was gradually confirmed and matured.

On the 23d of March, 1779, he married the niece of his rector, Mr. Watson, and consequently vacated his fellowship at Cambridge.

About this time he received an invitation from the trustees of the dissenting academy at Warrington, who were inclined to make choice of a clergyman of the established church, to undertake the tutorship of the classical department in that institution. This offer he accepted. His colleagues in the theological and philosophical departments, were the late Dr. Aikin, a gentleman of distinguished endowments, both as a man and a scholar, and Dr. Enfield. His residence in this connection seems to have been one of the happiest periods of his life. During his continuance at Warrington, besides some smaller theological works, he published his translation of the gospel of St. Matthew, accompanied with a learned critical and philological commentary.

In 1783, the academy at Warrington was dissolved, and Mr. Wakefield, with his family, removed to Bramcote, a village in the neighbourhood of Nottingham. His attempts to procure pupils in this situation proved ineffectual. In May 1784, he therefore removed to Richmond, but not meeting here with better success, before the expiration of the same year, returned to Nottingham. In the employment of tuition, for which, according to the expression of one of his correspondents, he was exquisitely fitted, he now received, in a greater degree, the encouragement which he deserved, and for some years had several pu-

pils, on liberal terms, committed to his charge.

In this residence he remained six years.

The chief of his publications, during this period, were the following:—an enquiry into the opinions of the christian writers of the three first centuries, concerning the person of Jesus Christ; the poems of Mr. Gray, with notes, 1786; an edition of the *Georgics* of Virgil, 1788; remarks on the internal evidence of the christian religion, 1789; and the first part of the *Silva Critica*, published also in the same year. His honourable and laborious occupations of study and tuition were, in the spring of 1786, severely interrupted by a malady, the chief symptom of which appears to have been a violent pain in the left shoulder, of which no account could be given, and which for two years continued, with little abatement, to harass and annoy him.

In July 1790, he removed to Hackney, having been invited to undertake the classical tutorship in an academical institution, recently established at that place. His connection with that seminary, with the plan of which he appears to have been greatly dissatisfied, continued only one year. In the years 1790 and 1791, he published, with some other tracts, the second part of the *Silva Critica*—an enquiry into the expediency and propriety of public or social worship, a pamphlet which gave rise to much controversy; and in the beginning of 1792, which conducts us to the end of the present volume, appeared the first edition of the "*Memoirs of Gilbert Wakefield*, written by himself." The following impressive passage closes this work.

"Whether this history will be carried on to a future period depends on the FATHER OF MY SPIRIT, in whose hands are the issues of life and death.

"Should he prolong my stay in this existence, I will endeavour to employ such talents as he has committed to my trust, in the service of true religion and useful learning, to his glory and the improvement of my species. Should he call me hence, I will obey the "warning voice" with unreluctant cheerfulness; conscious with the great apostle of what I have entrusted to his charge, and of his willingness and fidelity to keep my deposit against that day.

"I will persevere in the duties of my appointed station "without impatience, but pressing forwards, declining no labour, but desirous of rest. Am I encompassed with

trouble? Mine eye shall be fixed on immortality. I will suffer in hope, and rejoice with trembling."

"With little else to engage my thoughts but the prosecution of my studies and the education of my children, may I wear out the remnant of my days, sheltered from the caprice of man and the vicissitudes of fortune, beneath the calm contemplations of a private life, amidst the approbation and attachment of every friend to truth and liberty."

The preceding narration is a scanty abstract of the contents of this entertaining volume. The events indeed present nothing very striking, or greatly differing from the usual tenor of a scholar's life. They are however rendered highly interesting by the lively manner in which they are narrated, and by the frequent intermixture of well-told anecdotes, and spirited reflections. The whole tends to impress the highest ideas of the genuine goodness of the author's heart, of his integrity, his talents, and his unwearied diligence in the cultivation of useful knowledge.

After the cessation of his connection with the college at Hackney, Mr. Wakefield continued for several years to reside in that village, occupied principally in the pursuit of his studies, the education of his family, and the execution of his numerous and laborious publications. His history for several subsequent years presents materials for little more than a chronological account of his works, the chief of which are the following. In 1792, appeared the third part of the *Silva Critica*, and a translation of the New Testament, with notes critical and explanatory. In this work great attention was given to the investigation of the genuine text, by the consultation of the readings of ancient manuscripts, and by the comparison of the early oriental versions. In the translation a strict and almost scrupulous regard is paid to the idioms of the original, to the students of which it will therefore afford a most valuable assistance. The "evidences of christianity" were published in 1793, the fourth part of the *Silva Critica* in the same year; the reply to Paine's *Age of Reason*, an edition of Horace, a selection of the Greek tragedies, with notes, and the first volume of the works of Pope, with remarks and illustrations, in 1794. The following year produced, with other works, the fifth and last part of the *Silva Critica*, and the edition of Bion and Moschus. In 1796 were pub-

ished, an edition of Virgil, observations on Pope, and a new edition with additional notes, of that poet's translation of Homer. In 1796 and 1797, with some other minor publications, appeared his great and splendid work, the edition of Lucretius, in 3 vols. 4to. illustrated with an elegant and very learned commentary.

The three former volumes of the *Silva Critica* were printed at the university press of Cambridge, with a liberality which is acknowledged in terms of gratitude and respect in the first volume of these memoirs. When the fourth part was completed, Mr. Wakefield experienced a sudden and unexpected change in the disposition of the directors of that press, in consequence of which he was excluded from any further participation of its advantages. The expense of committing the two latter volumes to the press was generously sustained by an individual of the university, Mr. Tyrwhit of Jesus College.

Early in 1798 appeared from the pen of Mr. Wakefield, a work rendered memorable by the afflictive consequences of which it was productive to himself and his family; his well-known reply to some parts of the bishop of Landaff's address to the people of Great Britain. This pamphlet was the work of a few hours, composed without any premeditated intention, and suggested by the casual perusal of the work to which it relates. The first of those prosecutions pursuant on it, which were instituted by the ministry of the day, fell on Mr. Cuthell, the publisher. The trial, in consequence of various delays, did not take place till the month of February, in the ensuing year. He was convicted; as had previously been the case of Mr. Johnson, another respectable bookseller, who had accidentally and unsuspectingly sold a copy of the pamphlet. Mr. Wakefield's trial immediately succeeded that of Mr. Cuthell. His vindication was conducted by himself, in a written address, of great spirit and eloquence, constructed perhaps with little regard to the common rules of prudence, but highly honourable to his own character and feelings. A verdict of guilty was pronounced. Mr. Wakefield was on two subsequent occasions summoned before the court, on the former of which he delivered an address to the judges, marked by all the same characteristics which distinguished his preceding speech; and on the latter receiv-

ed the sentence of imprisonment for two years, in the county gaol of Dorchester.

The ample narrative which succeeds, of his situation and employments during the tedious term of his confinement, which is intermixed with many of his own letters, will be read with great interest. It shews him meeting his sufferings with uninterrupted fortitude, forming and pursuing, with a noble ardour, plans of improvement to himself, and utility to the public, and entering, with solicitude and active benevolence, into the concerns of those unhappy persons among whom his lot was now thrown. A more striking picture of a good man has been seldom exhibited.

Without entering into the political merits of the question, which it would ill become us on this occasion to investigate; we may be permitted, for the sake of our country, to regret the severities exercised against a man, whose talents and virtues have deservedly gained the applause of the good and learned of all countries and parties. It will be read with sorrow and surprise, that the sufferings of his imprisonment were aggravated by unnecessary, and we believe, unusual restrictions, and that he appears on some occasions, to have experienced a treatment wholly destitute of the liberality due to his character and merits.

On the 29th of May, 1801, he was liberated from imprisonment. Shortly afterwards he returned to London, where he delivered the first course of an intended series of lectures on the Latin poets. He was for some time engaged in the regulation of his domestic arrangements, preparatory to the execution of some extensive plans of literary labour which he had projected. But, alas, the conclusion of his life and labours was unobservedly approaching. The seeds of disease had perhaps been sown; unusual exertion and fatigue quickened them into alarming maturity. The symptoms of a dangerous fever became apparent, its progress was gradually more and more threatening, and a fatal termination ensued. He died on the 9th of September 1801, aged 46.

The fifteenth chapter of the present volume, furnishes an interesting article, consisting of miscellaneous observations on the character of Mr. Wakefield, from which we make the following extract.

"As a promoter of the interests of learning, his unwearied assiduity is sufficiently

evinced by the number and nature of the works which he published. These, it should be remembered, were written, 'not in the soft obscurities of retirement, or under the shelter of academic bowers, but' at intervals snatched from his daily avocations, and amidst a variety of embarrassments, sufficient to have chilled the zeal of a less ardent votary of knowledge.

"This eagerness, in literary pursuits, proceeded not simply from a desire, however laudable, of gratifying curiosity. He was actuated by higher motives. A sense of duty arising from a firm conviction that the welfare of society is most effectually advanced by the dissemination of useful knowledge, especially such as tends to familiarize the study of the scriptures—the ultimate object of all his researches—these impelled him to devote his days and nights to the improvement of his mental faculties, and the free communication of what he esteemed important truth, uninfluenced by considerations of personal interest.

"It was his early and continued persuasion, 'that an intimate connexion subsists between letters and morality, between sensibility and taste, between an improved mind and a virtuous heart.' Under such impressions, persevering as he was by nature, it is not surprising that he should make large sacrifices on the altar of interest and ambition, or that he was enabled to the latest period of his life to bear up against that misrepresentation and obloquy which too generally assailed his writings.

"That he sometimes gave an advantage to those who examined his publications with no friendly eye, cannot be denied. On too many occasions, chiefly when writing on controversial subjects, of politics, or theology, he indulged himself in harshness of language and severity of censure. Nor are his works on classical criticism free from this imputation, though the charge has probably been magnified beyond what the occasion will justify.

"In accounting for this undoubted blemish in his writings, it is but just to remark, what all who knew him will attest, that he never appeared to be actuated in the smallest degree by envy of the superior fortune or exalted reputation of his opponents. His failings upon this point can be satisfactorily traced to very different causes.

"He possessed a large share of constitutional warmth and earnestness, which too easily betray an author, especially when replying to an opponent, into an unceremonious style of composition. This disposition he frankly avows; and apologises for 'that decision and boldness' which appeared, especially in his theological performances, from the first, by assigning a cause to which few will refuse the claim of integrity.

"The extraordinary haste with which he completed what he once resolved to undertake, will account for errors, and even per-

sonalities, which a writer of different habits would have easily avoided. These, in many instances, he might have corrected had not his want of patronage, and the unpopularity of his sentiments, denied him, in most cases, the advantage of publishing new editions of his works. It should be remembered also, that few persons write upon topics of controversy unless strongly interested in the discussion, the feelings, not unnaturally, vent themselves in a correspondent energy and intemperance of language.

"After all that can be alledged against his writings upon this point, what he says of himself will still be easily credited by those who knew the *man* as well as the *author*. He remarks, 'my predilection, as my friends well know, is not for censure, but for commendation:' and it was a most unwelcome task to him to exercise the former character.

"Nor should it be forgotten that to the same constitutional warmth and irritability, which occasionally blemished his publications, he was indebted for some of his most valuable qualities. These excited that ardour of affection and sympathy which so endeared him in private life, and caused his society to be courted, independently of his literary attainments. To these also he owed that resolution in the pursuit of useful knowledge, which led him to sacrifice his worldly interest and personal comfort to the convictions of duty, that intrepidity in the profession of doctrines which appeared to him to bear the seal of truth, however cautiously concealed by the timid, or stigmatised by the selfish and illiberal. To the same temper may be ascribed that glow of eloquence and vivacity of illustration, which illuminate every subject on which he has written."

As a specimen of his letters, many of which occur in the present work, we insert the following, addressed, during his imprisonment, to his eldest daughter on the occasion of his mother's death.

"Dorchester Gaol, Feb. 15, 1800.

MY DEAR CHILD,

"Your grandmother, after lying for some time past in such an uncomfortable and painful condition, as to make her release much desired by herself, and a real satisfaction to all who were interested in her happiness, was rescued, after a painful and convulsive trial through the whole day, from all the apprehensions and agonies of mortality, at about twenty minutes after ten o'clock, on Thursday night last.

"My dear child! these events are no proper subjects of grief with respect to the person whom the hand of death has snatched from our sight, and our society; but dictate many an important lesson to the surviving relatives and friends.

"Death in itself is no evil, under the christian dispensation, nor is it ever spoken

of as an evil in those records which we consider as the directory of our sentiments in this respect: but the reflection of that awful crisis which awaits us all, and will transfer us to the innumerable multitudes of former generations, should convince us of the utmost insignificance of all earthly objects, but those which have a tendency to administer consolation, and inspire hopes at that momentous period.

"The purification of our own hearts, the restraint of every irregular, unfriendly and unedifying passion, with an unceasing cultivation of every benevolent affection, and every gentle and kind propensity; in short, the extinction, as much as possible, of all unfruitful *selfishness*, for the promotion of the general happiness, and especially the happiness of those with whom our daily intercourse is conversant; these are the proper suggestions to a rational mind from such privations of all that we loved and valued; that the tears, which sympathy and affection and sensibility will delight to shed, may not fall unavailing and unfruitful to the ground.

"I hope my dear children will live to see me leave the world with that complacency, with which one who has acted no disgraceful part upon the stage, and who leaves those, in whom he prides himself as his own, may be expected to leave it, with a hope full of immortality.

"Adieu, my dear girl! and accept every blissful wish for time and eternity for yourself, and both the good families at Eton and Gateacre, from

Your most affectionate father,
GILBERT WAKEFIELD."

The second volume is closed by an appendix consisting of the following articles: 1st, an essay on the origin of alphabetical characters, originally read before the literary and philosophical society of Manchester, and published in their memoirs. It now appears with some additions and amendments. 2, letters to Mr. Wakefield, from professors Heyne and Jacobs. These letters afford an honourable testimony, from men themselves honourably distinguished, to the talents and erudition of our countryman. Those of professor Jacobs appear to be in his own English, and add another specimen to many which before existed, of the difficulty of acquiring in composition the niceties of a foreign language. 3, an extract from the appendix to Mr. Wakefield's printed but unpublished defence, consisting principally of letters from some great men, in reply to his application for their appearance to bear testimony on his trial to the integrity of his character—some honourable to their authors, and others displaying the melan-

choly picture of merit neglected, by those who had formerly professed sentiments of high regard for it, and friendship forgotten, when its exercise was peculiarly needed. 4th, an address to the judges in the court of king's bench, which we have already had occasion to mention. 5th, an imitation of the first satire of Juvenal. 6th, some remarks on the literary character of Mr. Wakefield, in a letter from the Rev. Dr. Parr, of which the following is the conclusion.

"In thus endeavouring to account for the imperfections of Mr. Wakefield's writings, I would not be understood to depreciate their *real, great, and solid* merit. Many who, like myself, discern those imperfections, are far below Mr. Wakefield, not only in industry, but in acuteness; not only in extent, but, perhaps, in accuracy of knowledge; not only in the contributions which they have made, or endeavoured to make, to our general stock of knowledge, but in their capacity to make them so largely or so successfully.

"While, therefore, we state what Mr. Wakefield has *not* done, let us bear in mind what he *actually* did; and when we enumerate the causes, which might have enabled him to *do better*, let us remember the *obstacles* with which he had to contend, when he *did so well*.

"He had fewer incentives than other men to exertion, from secular emoluments. He had fewer opportunities for improvement than others, from access to public libraries, from the advantages of public education, and above all, from the company of persons accurately and profoundly learned. But his diligent researches, his extensive and various knowledge, his zeal for the diffusion of learning, and his solicitude for the discovery of truth, will always be remembered with respect by unprejudiced judges, who consider the numerous difficulties with which he had to struggle, and the virtuous motives by which he was actuated.

"For my part, I shall ever think of him as one of the best scholars produced by my own country in my own age; and as one of the best men who, in *any* country, or in *any* age, have examined the evidences of christianity seriously, believed them sincerely, defended them earnestly, and endeavoured to practise the duties which it inculcates, steadfastly and faithfully."

7th, Remarks relative to the character of Mr. Wakefield, by a clergyman of the church of England: 8th, epitaph on Mr. Wakefield, in Richmond church: and 9th, a complete and chronological catalogue of his works.

We conclude with expressing our obligations to the editors for their republication.

cation of the original work as amended by the author, and for the interesting continuation of it with which they have presented us. We cannot but think that this publication will be productive of many important effects. It will read lessons of candour to political and religious zealots; it will place, we will not say in a favourable, but a just point of view (for justice is all that needs to be claimed for the memory of Mr. Wakefield) it will place, we say, in a just point of view, the character of a man, who has laboured under calumny, or, we will

hope, and indeed believe, under misconception, rather than intentional misrepresentation of his character; it will afford rules to direct, and motives to quicken, the exertions of the student who treads in the same honourable track; and may animate the faith and confirm the practice of the christian, by the example of a life regulated in its minutest circumstances, by the precepts of religion, and habitually deriving its hopes, its consolations, and its motives, from the prospects of immortality.

ART. XVI. *The Confessions of J. Lackington, late Bookseller at the Temple of the Muses, in a Series of Letters to a Friend; to which are added two Letters on the bad Consequences of having Daughters educated at Boarding Schools.*

THIS well-known bookseller published some time ago memoirs of the first forty-five years of his own life. He became a methodist when a journeyman shoemaker at Taunton, and one anecdote which he relates of himself will sufficiently exemplify the strength of his zeal. His mistress one day, to prevent him from going to meeting, locked him in, "on which, he says, I opened the bible for direction what to do, (ignorant methodists often practise the same presumptuous method), and the first words I read were these, 'He has given his Angels charge concerning thee, lest at any time thou shouldest dash thy foot against a stone.' This was enough for me; so without a moment's hesitation, I ran up two pair of stairs to my room, and out of the window I leaped, to the great terror of my poor mistress. I got up immediately, and ran about two or three hundred yards, towards the meeting-house; but alas! I could run no farther: my feet and ancles were most intolerably bruised, so that I was obliged to be carried back and put to bed, and it was more than a month before I recovered the use of my limbs. I was ignorant enough to think (I mention it with horror and remorse!) that the Lord had

not used me very well, and resolved not to put so much trust in him for the future."

Wesley had once said in Lackington's hearing, that he could never keep a bookseller six months in his flock, and pointed out the danger of reading controversies and reasoning in matters of religion.—His assertion was verified in this instance. Lackington was taught to think a little upon the subject, by John Bunce—but he did not rest contented with a Unitarian creed, like John Bunce and the several eminent ladies with whom Mr. Amory had the happiness of becoming acquainted, by so many extraordinary accidents. He began metaphysics, and being a vain man and a foolish man, soon ceased to have any religion whatever. He is now once more a methodist, and has published these confessions that the world may know it; chusing this very appropriate motto.

The soul's dark cottage, battered and decayed,
Lets in new light thro' chinks which time
has made.

Whereby the reader may understand that the new light usually enters through a crack in the head.

ART. XVII. *The Life of C. G. Lamoignon Malesherbes, formerly first President of the Court of Aids, &c. Translated from the French, by EDWARD MAUGIN. 12mo. pp. 250.*

THIS little volume was written before the Correspondence of Louis XVI. was published. We hope the author may enlarge it, and preserve for posterity every fragment of the writings, and every anecdote of the life of this excellent man. The deplorable crimes which disgraced the progress of the French revolution, and the despicable termination of that

tremendous drama, induce us too frequently to regard the whole nation with one mingled feeling of contempt and abhorrence, forgetful that the good and the wise are necessarily the minority every where, and that if we fairly estimate the proportion between the good and the wicked, the wise and the foolish, which has in all ages been found to exist, there

is more reason to be surprised at the virtue which the revolution called forth, than at the vices which it fostered. Nor will we believe the catastrophe is yet completed—there must yet be a second part to the tragedy.

France never produced a better man than Malesherbes. To follow the events of his life through this volume, would be to transcribe a mere arrangement of dates; in fact, a history of his various attempts to remedy the evils of the old French government, would form an introduction to the history of the revolution, and the present biographer seems only to have aimed at a sketch for some necrology or biographical dictionary; we must be content to extract a few detached anecdotes.

“He often mentioned that he was born on the day *Cartouche* (a famous robber and murderer) was put to death, and entertained himself by recalling that strange coincidence; but in his early years he had been deeply affected by a circumstance which made a most lively impression on his young heart; he had seen in the country, at a friend's house, the father of *Cartouche*, who, under a borrowed name, acted as a servant. MALESHERBES used to describe, with all his eloquence, the miserable parent overwhelmed with shame and sorrow, and preserving for several years silence the most profound, and not interrupted even when alone, except by religious hymns and heavy sighs. Malesherbes, then ignorant of the cause of his affliction, in vain employed every method suggested to him by his address, his vivacity, and the spirit of inquiry which belongs to youth, to effect the discovery; they who were entrusted with the unfortunate man's secret remaining faithful to their words: at last he perceived the anxiety of Malesherbes, to whom he had never spoken, and drawing near him, said, “I am the father of *Cartouche*.” And, covering his eyes with his hands, retired—the tears streaming down his face.”

When Malesherbes was president of the Court of Aids, a man named Varenne published a libel against them, in defence of the system of rapacity practised by the government, which that body was endeavouring to oppose. The work was suspected to have the countenance of government. The parliament condemned it to be burnt at the foot of the gallows by the common executioner, and cited the author; he answered by a mandate from the king, commanding him to remain at Versailles on urgent affairs near the royal person, and not to absent himself on any pretext whatever. Upon this the Court of Aids acted in

the manner prescribed in cases of sickness or legal confinement, they dispatched a commissary to Versailles to the hotel where Varenne lodged; he kept himself out of the way. They then resolved to convict him of contumacy; witnesses were suborned in his favour, and he was complimented with the ribbon of the order of St. Michael. The court persisted, and overcame all the difficulties which obstructed the course of justice; but when they were on the point of convicting him, the king granted letters of indemnity. Varenne, in consequence, presented himself before the court, on his knees and bareheaded, to hear the letters read, and Malesherbes addressed him in these words from the bench—“The king grants you letters of pardon; the court confirms them. Begone: your punishment is remitted, but your guilt remains.”

Malesherbes was at one time superintendant of the press: he exerted a righteous severity against those authors who attempt to poison the public morals; and, with equal wisdom, he sheltered from proscription the *Encyclopædia* and the works of Rousseau. “M. de Malesherbes,” says Voltaire, “has rendered infinite service to human genius, in giving greater liberty to the press than it ever had before; we are already more than half Englishmen.”

When the Court of Aids was dissolved by the wicked minister of Louis XV. he retired to his estate.

“His mansion was furnished in the most unostentatious style; for he found more pleasure in giving bread to an hundred poor persons, than in squandering immense sums on costly decorations. His place was laid out upon the principles of the old gothic manner; accordingly, people of *taste* advised him to throw all down, and rebuild upon a modern plan—but he had inherited the edifice; all his ancestors had lived in it, and he preserved it as a family piece: a sacred monument of his attachment and respect to his forefathers.

“His table was economically supplied, and his domestics few, although his annual expense was considerable; but his wealth was employed for the gratification and advantage of his dependants: canals carefully formed, meadows reclaimed, marshes drained, the roads in his neighbourhood skilfully made, dykes opposed to the violence of the torrent, umbrageous walks, and picturesque plantations, were the objects on which Malesherbes expended his income.

“To facilitate the communication with different parts of the country, he constructed several bridges of solid masonry: the traveller

too, shared his benevolence; a shady walk near the high road protected him from the fervor of the sun; and for the repose of the humble foot-passenger, commodious benches were at hand, while a fountain of pure water flowed to appease his thirst. He also contrived means to lighten the fatigues of the weaker and more amiable sex; and built convenient sheds on the borders of the river, where the cares of domestic industry obliged the women of the village to remain exposed during the most rigorous seasons.

"Owing to this the inhabitants loved him as a parent; and under his influence every one enjoyed a degree of respectable ease: the children received instruction, the aged were held in honour; and the peasant who had cultivated his fields with most care, and managed his flocks or herds to the greatest advantage, obtained a premium, which gave birth to a virtuous emulation, and tended highly to the improvement of agriculture."

The following anecdote is related of him after his dismissal from the ministry.

"On his way to Switzerland, he stopped in a little town of Alsace, and sat down at a *table d'hôte* with a friar of the order of St. Francis, a village justice, and a knight of St. Lewis. The justice who was a prodigious reader of newspapers, talked politics unmercifully. The affair of the parliaments, and the dismissal of M. Turgot, were, at first, the subjects of conversation: at last, the military man, heated with the wine he had swallowed, opened loudly against the government; criticised with virulence all their operations, and accused the new ministers of imbecility, ignorance, and even of corruption.

"Malesherbes, who till then had allowed them to vapour without molestation, now took part in the debate: he explained, with great gentleness, to the *chevalier* in what points his complaints were exaggerated; laid before him the difficulties and vexations experienced by persons bearing the burden of administration; and hinted to him, that before he condemned their conduct, it would be right to put himself for one moment in their place, and see if it were possible for them to act better than they did.

"The knight, unmoved by these sagacious observations, reprobated violently the dismissing of the late ministers—particularly M. De Malesherbes, the most virtuous—the wisest man in France.

"Malesherbes, embarrassed, did not immediately know how to reply: "Sir," said he, "are you acquainted with him?" "No.—But, in what I say, I am only the echo of the whole nation—and I maintain it—that great minister has been dismissed, only because he saw too clearly."—"Undeceive yourself, my dear Sir; if he withdrew, it was from a sense of his own insufficiency."—"Good heavens! and are you an enemy of that

admirable man?"—"No, indeed, I am not the enemy of Malesherbes; but I cannot endure to hear him praised above his merits."

"The reverend cordelier, who had been for half an hour fast asleep, was roused by the din of argument: "Are you not speaking," cried he, "of Malesherbes, that heretic, that profane one, who desired to overturn our holy religion, and substitute that of the Protestants?" he is sent adrift—and so much the better!" The military gentleman, who had hitherto refrained with difficulty, here apostrophized the holy man in very energetic terms: the justice in vain endeavoured to restore peace; already was a bottle levelled at the friar's rosy face, when Malesherbes, willing to terminate the dispute, interposed: "Stop, gentlemen, there is one sure method of bringing you to an agreement; you are both equally mistaken: I am Malesherbes."—"At this name tranquillity was re-established; and they all respectfully stood uncovered before him. He addressed them: "You, *chevalier*, are in some degree wrong to pronounce so heedlessly on subjects of moment; and to praise a man at the expence of those who are entitled to your esteem and veneration: I thank you, however, for the good opinion you have expressed of me: but reflect, that it is prudent to wait, before you applaud a man in public station, until time shall have allowed you to form a judgment of his conduct. As for you, reverend father, you have been misinformed: fanaticism, that poison of the mind, has perverted my intentions; and I consider it a duty to vindicate myself to you. When I proposed restoring to the Protestants their civil rights, I fulfilled a sacred obligation, and but anticipated a measure, which sooner or later must be adopted.

"Yet, far from designing the smallest injury to our holy religion, I have, on the contrary, done homage to its purity, by cherishing two of its chiefest precepts—toleration, and the love of our neighbour.—Gentlemen, I wish you a pleasant journey."—With these words, Malesherbes retired, and left his auditory confounded at what had passed."

Malesherbes rejoiced in the commencement of the revolution, though too old to bear a part. It is well known how nobly he came forward to defend the king.

"Obliged to go four times every day to the prison of the Temple, his extreme age did not allow him to walk, and he was compelled to take a carriage.

"One day, particularly, when the weather was very severe, he perceived, on coming out of the vehicle, that the driver was benumbed with cold. "My friend," said Malesherbes to him, in his naturally tender manner—"you must be penetrated by the cold, and I am really sorry to take you abroad in this bitter season."—"That's nothing, M. De Malesherbes; in such a case as this, I'd

travel to the world's end, without complaining."—"Yes—but your poor horses could not." "Sir," replied the honest coachman, "*my horses think as I do.*"

The sequel of his history is too dreadful to be particularised—he and his children were cut off by the revolutionary tribunal. Bitterly as we detest the military usurper who has reaped the profit of all these crimes, we must confess that the Parisians have shewn themselves

worthy of his yoke. They suffered a handful of ruffians to perpetrate the massacres of September; they suffered the best and wisest of the nation to be dragged to execution; and with the same infatuation and cowardice, they have suffered the only man who could be found to turn the cannon upon the citizens when they rose against the tyranny of the directory,—they have suffered that man to make himself their emperor!

ART. XVIII. *The Correspondence of the late John Wilkes with his Friends, printed from the original Manuscripts; in which are introduced Memoirs of his Life.* By JOHN ALMON. 12mo. 5 vols.

ART. XIX. *Letters, from the Year 1774 to the Year 1796, of John Wilkes, Esq. addressed to his Daughter, the late Miss Wilkes, with a Collection of his miscellaneous Poems; to which is prefixed a Memoir of the Life of Mr. Wilkes.* 12mo. 4 vols.

TO compare minutely and scrupulously the respective merits of these publications would occupy an extent of time and space which most readers will agree with us in thinking may be more agreeably and more profitably employed. We shall simply state in few words, that Mr. Almon's is much the fullest and most interesting biography, and that the correspondence in his edition (as, indeed, the title announces), comprehends letters to and from Mr. Wilkes and his numerous friends, literary and political; whilst in the latter the correspondence is exclusively between his daughter and himself. On the other hand, it is to be observed that the correspondence in Mr. Almon's edition reaches no farther than to the year 1780, whilst in the other it is carried down to 1796. In both editions some chat-trifling letters are inserted which might as well have come from Mrs. Tabitha Bramble as Mr. John Wilkes. In justice to Mr. Almon, however, we must observe that he has much less to answer for on this head than his rival editor: he has inserted few letters which do not in some degree throw light on the character which he delineates. The two last volumes, indeed, drag somewhat heavily.

A libertine in private life can never have the credit of acting upon principle in public matters: a man of honour could not endure this suspicion, but men of honour are not libertines—the punishment therefore falls lightly. Mr. Wilkes was a libertine, gross and abandoned; Mr. Almon says that Potter poisoned his morals, lord Sandwich, lord Le Despenser, and many others equally infamous; but, that Mr. Wilkes "was not

a bad man early or naturally." Doubtless his depravity was not complete at first; *nemo repens fuit turpissimus*; but he was base in very early life; at two-and-twenty he married a lady, without any affection for her, as he acknowledges, who was half as old again as himself, but who had a large fortune; he introduced to her society his dissolute associates, whose licentious conversation was an outrage on decency and common decorum, and thus drove his unhappy wife from her own table! She was anxious to obtain a separation, but only succeeded by giving up to him some of her property: in his Aylesbury election (1757) he incumbered himself with debt, and, in order to lighten his incumbrances, had the unparalleled meanness and cruelty to make every possible attempt to rob his wife of the annuity of 200*l.* which was secured to her by the articles of separation! Wilkes at this time was only thirty years old.

Notwithstanding this moral depravity in private life, no charge of inconsistency was ever substantiated against his public conduct: for this we are probably indebted to his early disappointment in some applications for places. Had he obtained the office of ambassador at Constantinople, or governor of Canada, or even had lord Bute smiled on him, when, in vain, he attempted to procure an audience, general warrants perhaps might have yet been in fashion, and the printers of parliamentary debates have yet been in danger of imprisonment. Is this a harsh and unfair insinuation?—Statesmen assimilate themselves with aameleon sagacity to the colour of the ground on which they stand. To use

the words of a florid writer, (Mr. Hall), "their course commences in the character of friends to the people, whose grievances they display in all the colours of variegated declamation; but the moment they step over the threshold of St. James's, they behold every thing in a new light; the taxes seem lessened, the people rise from their depression, the nation flourishes in peace and plenty; and every attempt at improvement is like heightening the beauties of Paradise or mending the air of Elysium."

Mr. Wilkes, however, never did step over the threshold of St. James's; he had not the opportunity of doing so at the outset of his career, and he wisely determined never to be bribed to do so afterwards. He had no moral character to support and none to lose; but as soon as he had formed for himself a political one, his determination was taken, and inviolably adhered to—no bribe could seduce him, no danger intimidate, no threat deter him. Mr. Wilkes's political consequence was in a great measure artificial; he had abilities, but they were not of the first rank: he was more turbulent than strong. Junius estimated his character justly in his letter to the king:—"Pardon this man the remainder of his punishment; and if resentment still prevails, make it what it should have been long since, an act not of mercy but of contempt. He will soon fall back into his natural station—a silent senator, and hardly supporting the weekly eloquence of a newspaper. The gentle breath of peace would leave him on the surface. It is only the tempest that lifts him from his place."

We must be indulged in the transcription of another passage from the same celebrated letter; the reflections are as wise as the language which conveys them is eloquent:—"There is hardly a period at which the most irregular character may not be redeemed. The mistakes of one sex find a retreat in patriotism; those of the other in devotion. Mr. Wilkes brought with him into politics the same liberal sentiments by which his private conduct had been directed; and seemed to think, that as there are few excesses in which an English gentleman may not be permitted to indulge; the same latitude was allowed him in the choice of his political principles, and in the spirit of maintaining them.—I mean to state, not entirely to defend his conduct. In the earnestness of his zeal he suffered some unwarrantable insinuations to escape

him. He said more than moderate men would justify; but not enough to entitle him to the honour of your majesty's personal resentment. The rays of royal indignation collected upon him, served only to illuminate, and could not consume. Animated by the favour of the people on one side, and heated by prosecution on the other, his views and sentiments changed with his situation.—Hardly serious at first, he is now an enthusiast. The coldest bodies warm with opposition, the hardest sparkle in collision. There is a holy mistaken zeal in politics as well as religion. By persuading others we convince ourselves. The passions are engaged, and create a maternal affection in the mind which forces us to love the cause for which we suffer!"

Mr. Wilkes's first political essay was in 1762, when he published a pamphlet, assisted by lord Temple, entitled "Observations on the papers relative to the rupture with Spain:" in this he vindicated with ability and success the conduct of Mr. Pitt and lord Temple, and exposed the folly, cowardice, and imbecility of the ministry in losing the best opportunity that had ever occurred of crippling the Spaniard. His second political essay was a Dedication to the Earl of Bute of Ben Jonson's Historical Play "The Fall of Mortimer"—a specimen of severe and bitter irony.

The history of the North Briton is well known: it was written in opposition to The Briton, a scurrilous paper by Smollet, who was a mercenary of lord Bute's. The history of the forty-fifth number, however, is not very generally known. Mr. Almon has let us into the secret. The North Briton commenced with lord Bute's administration, and when that nobleman resigned, (April 8, 1763), as he had avowedly been the principal object of attack, it was accordingly discontinued.

"No. 44 was published on the 2nd of April, 1763; and the celebrated number "45" was not published till the 23d of that month. During this interval Mr. Wilkes carried his daughter to Paris, to finish her education; and upon this occasion it is not improbable that the publication of the North Briton would have been still further suspended, had not a singular accident (which is but little known) caused its early revival.

"On lord Bute's resignation, which took place on the 8th of April, 1763, Mr. Grenville was appointed his successor; and lord Sandwich took the vacancy thus occasioned at the admiralty. Other alterations were made,

and the necessary parliamentary writs were issued for new elections. The writ, however, for supplying Mr. Grenville's seat, was not moved for till the 19th, the day on which the parliament was prorogued, although he had been appointed immediately on lord Bute's resigning. This delay arose from his being obliged to apply to his brother, earl Temple, for permission to be re-elected for the town of Buckingham; a request which was peculiarly distressing to himself, because at this time there subsisted the most bitter animosity between the brothers. This application was made on the 18th; and Mr. Charles Lloyd, Mr. Grenville's private secretary, carried the letter, in which was enclosed a copy of the king's speech (perhaps as a compliment) to be delivered from the throne the next day. Mr. Pitt, afterwards earl of Chatham, was at his lordship's house in Pall Mall when this message arrived; and he added his personal entreaty that lord Temple would consent to his brother's re-election, with which his lordship complied. But it does not seem probable that his consent would have been given without Mr. Pitt's intercession; for in the "Remarks on the Letters which passed between Mr. Allen, of Bath, and Mr. Pitt," which lord Temple himself dictated, there is a very strong insinuation to that effect.

"Lord Temple and Mr. Pitt were much displeased on reading the king's speech, which they had thus received. Mr. Pitt spoke with warmth and indignation on the passage respecting the king of Prussia; and lord Temple adopted his sentiments. At this instant, Mr. Wilkes happened to call upon his lordship; having just returned from Paris. Mr. Wilkes agreed in sentiment concerning the speech; and when he returned home he wrote a sketch of the conversation which passed on the subject while he was present. From this sketch, and some additions of his own, he wrote this celebrated paper, the forty-fifth number, which was published on Saturday the 23d of April, 1769."

Immediately on the publication of this obnoxious number, lord Halifax, who was secretary of state for the home department, issued a GENERAL WARRANT, without any information upon oath, in which only the publisher was mentioned by name, to seize the authors, printers, and publishers, with their papers, and bring them before his lordship. The consequences of this exertion of "vigour beyond the law," *to use a familiar phrase*, are known to every body. The stand which Mr. Wilkes, supported by his high-spirited and firm friend lord Temple, made against this impudent violation of the liberties of the subject, was a noble one, and entitles them both to the gratitude of every Briton. Mr. Wilkes was treated with great cruelty on this occasion, but

the insulted laws of his country wreaked for him an ample vengeance on the heads of his oppressors.

Instantly on the seizure of Mr. Wilkes, lord Temple desired his solicitor, Mr. Arthur Beadmore, to apply to the court of common pleas for a writ of habeas corpus, to bring Mr. Wilkes before the court. The writ was granted, and it shews the audacity of ministers at that time, and their rooted determination to sacrifice the victim they had selected, that the secretaries of state, when informed of the issuing of the writ, treated the information with contempt. After some consultation, however, they thought proper, in order to *evade* it, to *shift* the custody of their captive from the messengers who had taken him into the hands of other messengers, and in this manner was the custody of Mr. Wilkes changed no less than four times in half a day! When the writ of habeas corpus therefore was shewn to the two messengers, Blackmore and Watson, their answer was, "that they had not him in their custody." Mr. Wilkes was accordingly kept a close prisoner in the tower. No human being was admitted to him, *and a list was kept of those persons who made application to see him.*

The court of common pleas would not suffer the return which was made to their writ to be filed; they directed another to the "constable, and so forth, of the tower of London." Mr. Wilkes was accordingly brought up, his commitment pronounced invalid, and he was discharged amidst the acclamations of a prodigious multitude of people.

Mr. Wilkes brought actions against the messengers, and against the secretaries of state, and obtained damages in every action. The determination of ministers to make the purse of the public support them in their own wilful infraction of the laws of the realm, and in their own invasion of the liberty of the subject, is proved by the following extract from the treasury minute-book.

"Whitehall Treasury Chamber.

"Present—Mr. Grenville, first commissioner, and chancellor of the exchequer;

Lord North;

Mr. Hunter,

Mr. Harris.

"Mr. Chancellor of the Exchequer signifies to my lords his majesty's pleasure, that all expences incurred, or to be incurred, in consequence of actions brought against the earl of Halifax, one of his majesty's principal

pal secretaries of state, the under-secretary and messengers, and the solicitor of this office, for proceedings had by them in executing the business of their respective offices against the publishers of several scandalous and seditious libels, should be defrayed by the crown; and that a sufficient sum of money should be, from time to time, issued to the solicitor of the treasury for that purpose.

"Another circumstance not unworthy of notice is, that lord North confessed in one of the debates on the arrears of the civil list some time afterwards, that these law proceedings cost government upwards of one hundred thousand pounds."

"Actions were also brought against lord Halifax, secretary of state; * Mr. Wood, the under-secretary of state; and Mr. Webb, solicitor of the treasury. Lord Halifax evaded the action by casting essoigns, pleading privilege, and at length standing out in contempt of the court, till Mr. Wilkes was outlawed.

"But when the outlawry was reversed, the action was revived; and it was tried in the court of common-pleas, before lord-chief-justice Wilmot, on the 10th of November, 1763, when the jury gave Mr. Wilkes 4000*l.* damages.—A singular circumstance appeared upon the trial. Lord Halifax did not rely entirely upon the document entered in the treasury minute-book, for his exoneration from the expences of this action; but had also procured a privy-seal for that purpose, † —that is, a warrant signed by the lord-privy-seal, by way of indemnification for whatever damages Mr. Wilkes should recover.

"The action against Mr. Wood was tried in the court of common-pleas on the 6th of December, 1763, before lord chief justice Pratt; when the jury gave Mr. Wilkes 1000*l.* damages." §

Mr. Wilkes erected a printing press in his own house: he reprinted the North Briton, for which republication he was tried and convicted. The law proceedings against him on this occasion were supported by the evidence and treachery

of the people whom he employed, and who were the only witnesses produced against him. He also printed a few copies of a third volume of the North Briton for particular friends; but this was never published. He at the same time printed, under the strictest privacy and caution, twelve copies of part of an infamous poem, called an "Essay on Woman," for which he was also prosecuted and convicted upon the same evidence. *One of the journeymen was bribed by the solicitor of the treasury to steal a copy of it.* The copy thus obtained was laid before the cabinet council, who resolved to prosecute Mr. Wilkes for printing it on the single evidence of this treacherous rascal. Mr. Almon has given a full account of the affair, which, in all its parts, shows that Mr. Wilkes was an object of personal resentment to the ministry, who stooped to every meanness for the accomplishment of their inglorious and unsuccessful projects.

Alexander Dunn, a Scotsman, was taken in an attempt to assassinate Mr. Wilkes: complaint was made in the house of commons against this outrage. The house ordered Dunn to appear at the bar; but when he was there, without examination, the house were of opinion that he was insane, and therefore—discharged him! ¶

On the 15th of Nov. 1763, the session of parliament opened: as soon as the speaker had taken his chair, Mr. Wilkes rose and informed the house that he had a complaint to make of a breach of privilege. Notwithstanding the usage of parliament, that complaints of this nature are heard before any other business, the chancellor of the exchequer (Mr. George Grenville) rose and delivered a message from his majesty, stating that Mr. Wilkes had been discharged out of custody by the court of common pleas,

* Lord Egremont, the other secretary of state, died.

† This warrant was signed by the duke of Marlborough, who then held that office.

§ Mr. Wilkes, in his letter to the duke of Grafton, alluding to the conduct of lord Halifax, says, that, "for nearly two years he availed himself of every advantage which privilege and the chicane of law could furnish. He never entered any appearance to a court of justice; and the common pleas had, as far as they could, punished such an open contempt, such a daring proof that administration would not submit to the law of the land, and had endeavoured to compel his lordship to appear. Towards the end of 1764, I was outlawed: the proceedings continued against his lordship till that hour. *He then appeared, and his only plea was, that as an outlaw I could not hold any action.* No other defence was made against the heinous charge of having, in any person, violated the rights of the people."

¶ For this anecdote, which requires ample authentication to give it credit, Mr. Almon refers to the commons' journals, vol. xxix. page 702.

upon account of his privilege as a member of parliament, and that when called upon by the legal process of the court of king's bench, he had "stood out and declined to appear and answer to an information, which had since been exhibited against him by his majesty's attorney general for the same offence:" the message concluded with referring the libel and contumacy of Mr. Wilkes to the consideration of the house. Mr. Wilkes immediately rose, and stated the breach of privilege which the house had suffered in his person, on having been detained a prisoner in the tower; that on being served with a subpoena from the court of king's bench, he had consulted the best books and the greatest living authorities, and was thence led to conclude that the act of serving him with a subpoena, after he had been discharged by a solemn and unanimous decision of the court of common pleas, was another violation of the privilege of parliament. He had therefore declined to enter an appearance; but if the house, in its wisdom, should decide that he was entitled to privilege, he (Mr. Wilkes) should not only be ready, but eagerly desirous, to waive that privilege, and to put himself upon a jury of his countrymen.

The future hearing of this complaint was put off from time to time, till Mr. Wilkes went to Paris, where his daughter resided for her education.

The debate in the house on this day (Nov. 15) produced a challenge from Mr. Martin to Mr. Wilkes: the latter was dangerously wounded. Apprehensive that the wound was mortal, Mr. Wilkes on the spot, insisted that Mr. Martin should make an immediate escape, adding that no person should know from him how the affair happened. On the following day, imagining himself in imminent danger, Mr. Wilkes returned to Mr. Martin the letter of challenge, in order that no evidence might appear against him, and he peremptorily enjoined his relations, that in case of his death no trouble should be given to Mr. Martin, for he had behaved as a man of honour.*

As soon as he was sufficiently recovered, Mr. Wilkes went to see his daughter at Paris: here his wound broke out

afresh, and it was impossible for him to return (as he had fully intended) to his duty in parliament on the 19th of the following January, to which day it had been adjourned.

Certificates of his inability were transmitted to the speaker of the house of commons, by one of the French king's surgeons, and by a surgeon of the French army. The speaker, however, sir John Cust, remarked upon it that it was not authenticated before a public notary; and it was entered upon the journals as an unauthenticated certificate.

When parliament assembled, notwithstanding the unavoidable absence of the accused member, he was expelled the house, on the motion of lord North, as the author of No. 45 of the North Briton. Mr. Wilkes, when he heard of his expulsion, sent a second certificate to the speaker, attested by two notaries, and by the English ambassador at Paris—but *neither the second letter, the certificate, nor the attestation, were entered on the journals!*

Mr. Wilkes now perceiving himself to be an object of pointed and implacable persecution, considered himself as an exile, having determined not to return to England. The reasons for this determination are stated in one of his letters to Mr. Cotes, (see Almon's edition, vol. ii. p. 48 et seq.), to which we must refer those who are desirous to learn them—they are forcible ones.

On the 21st of February, 1764, Mr. Wilkes's trials came on at the court of king's bench, for the republication of the North Briton, and the publication of the Essay on Woman: lord Mansfield's conduct on this occasion will not be forgotten. On the evening preceding the trials, the judge, who in a criminal proceeding ought to know nothing of the record before the trial comes on, actually sent to Mr. Wilkes's solicitor, and desired his consent to alterations in the records in both the causes! His lordship had, no doubt, studied the records, and from the circumstance of these alterations being deemed necessary, we may conclude with Mr. Wilkes, that the original records were too loose and vague to have convicted him, and that the information would perhaps have been quashed. Mr. Wilkes's solicitor refused

* Mr. Almon, however, mentions some very suspicious circumstances relative to the conduct of Mr. Martin (vol. ii. pp. 16 and 99), which, for the honour of human nature, as well as for that of the individual, we regret to see so strongly supported.

his consent; and against his consent the records were altered at his lordship's own house, under his lordship's immediate inspection, and by his lordship's express orders. On the following morning lord Mansfield sat as judge before these very causes, where the defendant, it is obvious, was tried on two new charges, different from those to which he had answered. Mr. Wilkes, in his letter to the electors of Aylesbury, asserts also that "several of the jury were by counter-notices, signed by the summoning officer, prevented from attending on the day appointed for the trial; while others had not only private notice given them of the real day, but likewise instructions for their behaviour."

Mr. Wilkes was found guilty, and not making his appearance when afterwards summoned to receive judgment, being then at Paris, he was outlawed for contumacy, in November 1764.

In July 1766, the marquis of Rockingham's party was removed, and a new administration was formed according to an arrangement made under the auspices of the earl of Chatham, with the duke of Grafton at the head of the treasury. As the duke had supported Mr. Wilkes in all his late proceedings, this seemed a favourable opportunity to risk a return to England. Mr. Wilkes was further encouraged to make the experiment by the following circumstance: * "Lord Southampton (then colonel Fitzroy) was at that time at Paris, and Mr. Wilkes had several interviews with him. Lord Southampton assured Mr. Wilkes that he had it in charge from his brother, the duke of Grafton, to inform Mr. W. that he would find in him a real and sincere friend, extremely desirous to concur in doing him justice, but that many of the particulars could not be communicated by the post." Mr. Wilkes, as every man of common sense would have done, construed this into a fair invitation to return to England. He quitted Paris therefore, and reached London on the first of November 1766. Immediately on his arrival he saw Mr. Cotes, Mr. Fitzherbert, and other friends, by whom he was advised to address a letter to the duke; Mr. Fitzherbert undertaking to deliver it. The letter was perfectly respectful and decorous, but the only answer was a verbal one, "that Mr. Wilkes must apply to lord Chatham; that the

duke of Grafton did nothing without the concurrence of lord Chatham."

In utter astonishment and disgust Mr. Wilkes instantly, and without hesitation, returned to his exile; his behaviour on this occasion did honour to him; lord Temple and lord Chatham differed so violently upon the nomination for places in this new ministry, that a dissolution of all their former friendships succeeded. Mr. Wilkes adhered firmly to his friend lord Temple, and refused to apply to lord Chatham. It must be recollected that by this honourable conduct he voluntarily returned to an exile which had long been excessively odious to him. The anguish he felt in the disappointment of his hopes is not to be described; he often said it was the bitterest he ever suffered. At his return to Paris he gave vent to his feelings in a letter of indignant eloquence to the duke of Grafton. In this celebrated letter he recapitulated the political acts of his life, and related the conversation which passed at his examination before lord Halifax. The public, on whom it made a deep impression, now saw very clearly that Mr. Wilkes was an object of ministerial persecution, and that it was determined to crush him at all events. The nation, however, had generosity enough to espouse the cause of him who had suffered so much in the cause of the nation.

Towards the end of the year 1767, Mr. Wilkes resolved to venture once more to England, and stand the consequences, whatever they might be. The general election was fixed to take place in the spring, and his principal motive for returning was to obtain a seat in parliament. Mr. Wilkes was not deficient in personal intrepidity and assurance.

On the 6th or 7th of February, 1768, he reached London, and addressed a supplication to his majesty, imploring his mercy. No notice was taken of this letter, nor indeed could it be expected; for Mr. Wilkes, either from ignorance, which is hardly credible, or from an intentional disrespect to his majesty, which to have shown on that occasion would have been a perfect paradox in conduct, sent his letter to the queen's palace, by his own footman!

Parliament was dissolved on the 12th of March, and Mr. Wilkes, with an outlawry on his head, offered himself a

* We quote Mr. Almon,

candidate for the city of London. The duke of Grafton, notwithstanding the severity of Mr. Wilkes's letter, issued no *capias* against him. Mr. Wilkes polled 1247 livery-men, but lost his election: he immediately offered himself as a candidate for the county of Middlesex, and carried his election on the 28th of March by an immense majority.

A week before this, namely on the 22d of March, Mr. Wilkes had sent

"A written notice to the solicitor of the treasury, that he would present himself before the court of king's bench on the first day of the ensuing term, which was the 20th of April. Accordingly he appeared before the court on that day, and declared himself ready to submit to the laws of his country. But lord Mansfield suggested, that as he was not before the court by any legal process, the court could not take any cognizance of this gratis appearance; and he was permitted to depart at perfect liberty.

"On the 27th Mr. Wilkes, having been served by a *capias ultelatum*, was brought into court in custody. Serjeant Glynn, who was Mr. Wilkes's counsel, pointed out several errors in the outlawry, and offered bail to any amount. Mr. Tharlow replied to the serjeant on the outlawry. The bail was refused, and Mr. Wilkes was committed to the king's bench prison.

"He was put into a hackney coach, attended by the marshal. When they came to Westminster bridge, the populace took the horses from the carriage, and drew it through the city to a public house in Spital-fields. The marshal was forced out of the coach at Temple-bar. When the tumult subsided, he escaped through the back door of the public house, in disguise, and went immediately to the king's bench prison; where the marshal was highly rejoiced to see him. He several times desired the people to disperse; but they refused.

"Next day he was visited by an incredible number of friends; and the prison was surrounded by a numerous concourse of people.

"On the 7th of May, the outlawry was argued again; but judgment was postponed until next term.

"Mr. Wilkes gave full credit to some information he had received, that lord Mansfield had made up his mind, to establish the outlawry. What happened between the 7th of May and the 8th of June, when the outlawry was reversed, to alter lord Mansfield's opinion, cannot now be explained. The outlawry was reversed by the unanimous judgment of the court; and, on the 18th of June, Mr. Wilkes was again brought before the court to receive sentence. After the usual exordium, the senior judge pronounced the sentence as follows:

"For the re-publication of the North Briton, No. 45, he should pay a fine of 500l. and be imprisoned ten calendar months. And for publishing the Essay on Woman he should pay a fine of 500l. and be imprisoned twelve calendar months; to be computed from the expiration of the term of the former imprisonment. And that he afterwards should find security for good behaviour for seven years; himself in the sum of 1000l. and two sureties in 500l. each."—He had already been imprisoned two months; so that the whole imprisonment made exactly two years. The severity of the sentence was universally condemned. Upon a candid review and consideration of the several circumstances of the case, all impartial people thought it cruel, malignant, and indefensible."

Mr. Wilkes, although a prisoner in the court of king's bench, was a member of parliament: as in the preceding short session his case had been passed over, he resolved to force himself into notice, and therefore drew up a petition, stating the principal points of his case which he conceived to be illegal, and praying redress. In the interval he had published some very severe and biting remarks on a letter addressed by lord Weymouth (secretary of state) to the magistrates at Lambeth, on the riotous disposition of the populace, and the *strong preventive* measures which it would be necessary for them to take. This irritated the ministry very much; and when Mr. Wilkes was called to the bar of the house in order to make his defence, he gloried in acknowledging himself to have been the author of those remarks, and to have brought to light that "bloody scroll" which occasioned them. The next day (Feb. 3, 1769), on the motion of lord Barrington, he was expelled the house, by a majority of 83 votes.

The popularity of Mr. Wilkes increased with his persecution: he was unanimously elected an alderman of London, on Jan. 27, 1769; and when a new writ was issued for the election of a member for the county of Middlesex, "in the room of Mr. Wilkes, expelled," he was unanimously re-chosen. The house of commons declared the election void, and that "Mr. Wilkes was, and is, incapable of being elected into the present parliament." Another writ, therefore, was issued; but the freeholders of Middlesex, persevering in their constitutional judgment, that expulsion did not of itself create incapacity

city, and that the house of commons could not constitutionally deprive them of their elective franchise, unanimously returned him a second time. A third writ was now issued, and Mr. Dingley, a protégé of the duke of Grafton, stepped forward, but had not one single vote—no individual was found even to nominate him! Colonel Luttrell, however, was more successful: he polled 296 votes against 1143 in favour of Mr. Wilkes. The sheriffs, Townsend and Sawbridge, returned Mr. Wilkes, as having the majority; yet the house, “to the eternal disgrace, equally of itself and of the nation,” says Mr. Almon,

“—and in defiance of every principle of honour and justice, declared, that colonel Luttrell ought to have been returned: and when petitions from Middlesex, London, Westminster, and Southwark, were presented against colonel Luttrell, the house resolved, on the 8th of May, ‘that Henry Lawes Luttrell, esq. is duly elected a knight of the shire to serve in this present parliament for the county of Middlesex.’

“Thus ended, to use the words of Mr. Burke, ‘the fifth act of this tragi-comedy:—a tragi-comedy acted by his majesty’s servants, at the desire of several persons of quality, for the benefit of Mr. Wilkes, and at the expence of the constitution’.”

If the sheriffs had made an improper return they merited censure; but it is worth remembering, that sir Fletcher Norton, when it was proposed to punish the sheriffs, declared, in the house of commons, that in returning Mr. Wilkes they had done no more than their duty.

In consequence of these violent measures on the part of government, a number of gentlemen formed themselves into a society with the professed view of supporting Mr. Wilkes, and called themselves the society of “supporters of the

bill of rights.” They extricated Mr. Wilkes, whose private fortune had been greatly injured by his repeated persecutions, from incumbrances to the amount of about 20,000*l*.

On the 17th of April, 1773, the term of Mr. Wilkes’s imprisonment expired, and he was accordingly released. In the year 1771 he was elected one of the sheriffs of London, and lord mayor in 1774: both which offices he served with high honour to himself, and advantage to the public.

At the close of the year 1774, on the dissolution of parliament, he again offered himself as candidate for Middlesex, and was unanimously re-chosen: he took his seat a few weeks afterwards.

By a singular oversight, Mr. Almon has neglected to state that in the year 1782, after repeated and ineffectual attempts, the unconstitutional and obnoxious decision concerning the Middlesex election was rescinded from the journals of the house of commons, on the motion of Mr. Wilkes himself.† On the 3d of May it was resolved, “that all the declarations, orders, and resolutions of that house respecting the election of John Wilkes, esq. be expunged from the journals of the house, as *subversive of the rights of the whole body of electors in the kingdom*.” This was indeed a triumph, and proves to a demonstration, either that the Grafton administration was resolved to indulge their mean personal malice, even at the expence of the integrity of the constitution; or, that under the mask of honour, and affecting to shrink from the contamination of such an odious member as Mr. Wilkes, they aimed a deliberate and flagitious blow at the elective franchises of the British people. Lord Chatham, in the preamble to a bill

“* Several very able and learned tracts were written on this subject; the principal of which were—

“Mr. Grenville’s Speech on the 3d of February, 1769.

“Mr. Wilkes’s answer, entitled ‘A Letter to Mr. Grenville’

“A fair Trial of the Important Question;” very generally, but very unjustly, imputed to lord Camden. It was written by Mr. Mackintosh, a barrister, and particular friend of lord Temple.

“The Question Stated,’ by sir William Meredith.

“The Answer, by judge Blackstone.

“The Case of the Middlesex Election,’ by J. Dyson, M. P.

“Serious Considerations on a late Important Decision,’ by Edward Weston, Esq.

“The Gazette.

“The Alarm,’ by Dr. Johnson.

“The Answer, by Mr. Rosenhagen.

“The Letters.”

† Not noticed in the other publication,

which he brought into the house of lords on this occasion, did not hesitate to state that "forasmuch as all the resolutions aforesaid, cutting off the subject from his indubitable birth-right, by a vote of one house of parliament exercising discretionary power and legislative authority, under colour of a jurisdiction in elections, are most arbitrary, illegal, and dangerous." In the speech too by which he supported the bill, we find the following strong passage: "It is said, my lords, that the spirit of discontent has gone abroad—I should be surprised if it had not; for how can it be otherwise, when, to use a familiar expression, colonel Luttrell sits in the lap of Mr. Wilkes; when a corrupt house of commons invert all law and order, and deny the just privilege the electors claim by the constitution of these kingdoms? Though I will not aid the voice of faction, I will aid the just complaints of the people; and while I have strength to crawl I will exert the whole of my poor abilities in their honest efforts; and I here pledge myself to their cause, as I am convinced it is the cause of truth and justice." In another debate on the same subject (we have been induced to refer to them) he stated "that the people neither had, nor could have, any confidence in a house of commons which had committed so flagrant a violation of their dearest rights. The present house of commons, says he, were become odious in the eye of the present age, and their memory would be detested by posterity. Their having substituted colonel Luttrell for Mr. Wilkes demanded the severest punishment—required a dissolution."

In the year 1779, Mr. Wilkes was elected chamberlain of the city of London, on the decease of alderman Hopkins, and filled that office till he died (December 26, 1797). He met death with exemplary fortitude and calmness, at his house in Grosvenor square, after a short illness.

In appreciating the character of Mr. Wilkes, we must contemplate him in a public and in a private capacity.

In his public character, also, he must be considered politically and magisterially.

The political abilities of Mr. Wilkes do not appear to have been of the highest order: he had not that powerful and comprehensive mind which is essential to the statesman. Neither his speeches

nor his writings evince that extent of information, that solidity of judgment, that acuteness of discrimination, that acquaintance with the nature of the human mind, which could give him any title to this character. Mr. Wilkes was ambitious to be distinguished; and whilst his sagacity pointed out the way, his intrepidity prompted him to pursue it. The bearings and relationships of states and empires were beyond his intellectual reach; but the internal politics of his own country were within his grasp. The questions, however, which he brought before the public were not the petty debating-club topics of the day; they were those grand constitutional questions, on the decision of which our dignity as a nation, and our liberties as a people, depend. The firm and glorious stand, says his biographer, Mr. Almon, which he made against the inroads of tyranny and arbitrary power, "has placed his name on a level with those of Hampden and of Sydney. And though he wanted the purse of the former to carry him to the end in his bold career, his zeal and courage were in no respect inferior. That pecuniary want he supplied by ardour and perseverance, by consistency and resolution in pursuit of the measures which he undertook for the punishment of ministers, and for the recovery of the people's indefeasible rights."

In the letters written by Mr. Wilkes, during his exile in France and Italy, to his friend Mr. Cotes, which, as they are private and confidential, cannot labour under the suspicion of conveying sentiments which his heart disavowed, he says, "I am too proud to ask pardon, or even to receive any favour from the great (however great), whom I hate and despise." After speaking of the deranged state of his affairs, and the economical arrangement he meant to adopt for the liquidation of his debts, and in order to enable him to provide for the education of a daughter, in whom his fondest affections were concentrated through life, he says, "I tell you, my dear Cotes, my most distant views and projects as far as they can be formed; always submitting them to what I have most at heart, the service of the cause of liberty and your friends. For that, I shall be content to pass my whole time in a dirty sea port on the coast, if I can then do any real good . . .!" &c. Such passages as these, and there are many of them, bear stronger testimony

to the honesty of Mr. Wilkes, and to his sincerity in the political principles which he avowed, than the whole forty-six numbers of the *North Briton*. At this time, however, he would not have been sorry to have been on better terms with the ruling powers: "If government means peace and friendship with me, and to save their honour (wounded to the quick by Webb's affair*), I then breathe no longer hostility, and between ourselves, if they would send me to Constantinople, it is all I would wish."

That Mr. Wilkes, however, was not to be bribed from doing what he conceived to be his political duty, we have more than one positive proof. A few weeks after he was elected representative for the county of Middlesex, (March 28, 1768) he was brought up to receive judgment in the court of king's bench, for the republication of No. 45 of the *N. B.* and for his *Essay on Woman*, and was sentenced, as has been already said, to two years' imprisonment, and to pay a fine of 1000*l.* A few days before the meeting of parliament he published an address to the freeholders of Middlesex, in which he pledged himself to lay his whole case before the house, in the form of a petition; declaring, at the same time, to his friends, that he knew the ministry intended to expel him, and that the measure of his expulsion was a bargain between the minister and the court. This, however, was certainly not true; for the duke of Grafton, who was then at the head of administration, sent Mr. Fitzherbert to Mr. Almon, (the editor of the volumes before us) requesting him to inform Mr. Wilkes, that if he would drop his petition, the duke pledged his honour that no attempt should be made against him in parliament (for his remarks on lord Weymouth's letter.) Mr. Wilkes would not even send an answer to his grace, whose anxiety on the occasion was so great, that he sent Mr. Fitzherbert to the king's bench prison to deliver the same message in person, and to enforce it in the strongest terms.

"Mr. Fitzherbert assured Mr. Wilkes, that if he would be quiet he might keep his seat; but that, if he presented his intended petition, he would certainly lose it. He ear-

nestly and ardently entreated Mr. Wilkes to lay aside his design. He declared that he made this assurance by the authority; and in the name, of the duke of Grafton; and that he had his grace's unequivocal promise and engagement, upon his honour, that if the petition was not presented, no attempt should be made in parliament against Mr. Wilkes. And he added, in confidence, he said, that some small submission to the king was all that would be expected, to accomplish, in a very short time, the remission of his fines, and his entire emancipation.

"Mr. Wilkes replied, that he was always ready to make any submission to the king, because he never intended to offend him; but as to the petition, he thought it his duty to present it, and he would not alter his resolution."

Mr. Wilkes indeed could not have much confidence in the word and honour of the duke of Grafton, after he had suffered his brother colonel Fitzroy (as we have already stated) unconsciously to betray him into a return from his exile by hopes of pardon, which he left to be realized by lord Chatham! Another instance, however, is to be mentioned, on the authority of Mr. Almon, of Mr. Wilkes's incorruptibility.

"Though (says he) Mr. Wilkes had not a purse to contend with the treasury, yet he had the courage to risk his all, together with his name: from the primary proceedings in the courts of law against the king's messengers, Mr. Wood, and others; by which the general warrant, and the arbitrary and violent conduct of ministers, received the first condemnation.

"There was a merit in this firmness, which the people at that time were not acquainted with. Mr. Wilkes might, even then, have secretly made his peace with ministers; and, instead of punishment, might have profited by connivance: for there was a strong reluctance to relinquish this power of issuing general warrants. But his spirit was superior to this compromise; and his exile was the consequence. There is no revenge so acrimonious as that which is provoked by disappointment. Certain offers were made through a channel which we are too near the time to reveal; and the rejection of which inspired the most malignant indignation and resentment. Though this circumstance was not known to the nation in general, yet every one saw that a peculiar animosity pervaded the whole conduct of the court of St. James's, which could only be ascribed to

* Mr. Webb, solicitor of the treasury; he was indicted for perjury in his evidence on the trial of Mr. Wood, the under-secretary of state. He was acquitted, and died before Mr. Wilkes's action against him could be tried.—*REV.*

some prejudices wrought by ministers either *official* or *efficient*.*

It is very well known, that during the exile of Mr. Wilkes it was in agitation to grant him an annuity on the Irish establishment of 1000*l*. Several letters allude to this in the correspondence between Mr. Wilkes and Mr. Cotes, (see p. 211, to the end of vol. ii. of Mr. Almon's edition): we regret that Mr. Almon has not cleared up this affair, because malignity is not always scrupulously correct in drawing inferences. At this time Mr. Wilkes was banished to a foreign country, without a guinea in his pocket. If he had not "been proof against the extremity of distress," it would still have been hard to "reproach him with failings too naturally connected with despair;" but we collect from these letters to Mr. Cotes, that although Mr. Wilkes was ready to make his peace with ministers upon honourable terms, he would not make his peace with them on any other. That it was in contemplation to settle upon him a thousand a year is unquestionable. But, says Mr. Wilkes to his friend Cotes, "the idea of an annual sum of one thousand pounds being paid to me, does not captivate my imagination."—"You avoid, my dear friend, the word *pension*, with great care: yet, I believe, the world would rather consider such a grant in that light, though I should myself look upon it as paying very poorly all the costs of suit *due to me*."—Again, in the same letter, "I desire, however, you would let it be understood by the present ministry, that if we are not good friends on *public grounds*, I am their determined implacable enemy, ready to give the stab where it will wound the most," &c.—In another letter to Mr. Cotes, (dated Paris, Jan. 1, 1766,) he says, "I have no answer from George Onslow." Mr. Fitzherbert shewed my refusal to Mr. Foley, and of consequence would not pay him the draft I had given Foley on the supposition of the grant of 1000*l*. *being in an honourable way, according to the former declarations, and the letter to Heaton*. I am in great distress, and Foley is much out of humour," &c.

We repeat our regret that Mr. Almon has not given us complete information on the subject of this pension: we certainly infer from the passages just quoted, that there were some stipulations as to the future political conduct of Mr. Wilkes, subsequently attached to the proposed grant, which he could not conscientiously and consistently accede to, and which, though "*in great distress*," he would not accede to, at the expence of his public and political character.

As a magistrate, Mr. Wilkes's conduct was not only at all times irreproachable, but entitled to the highest positive praise. He made himself master of every question which came before him, and was indefatigable in the various duties of his office, when sheriff, lord mayor, and chamberlain: city honours had no lethargic influence upon him. If the people of this country are indebted to Mr. Wilkes for the total extinction of general warrants, and for the recovery of their violated franchise in cases of election, they are also indebted to him, and to his editor, Mr. Almon, for their defence of freedom in the case of the printers in the year 1772. For his conduct as a magistrate in this important case, the city of London presented Mr. Wilkes with a silver cup, value 100*l*.; and in the year 1780, he received the thanks of his majesty's privy council for his active services during the riots!!

In the year 1771, Thompson and Wheble, on a formal complaint made by colonel George Onslow, were ordered to attend the house of commons for having misrepresented their debates and proceedings. They refused to obey the summons, and a proclamation, "illegal, and ridiculous," was issued for their apprehension, offering a reward of fifty pounds. Wheble delivered himself into the hands of one of his own servants, Edward Twine Carpenter: he was carried to Guildhall before Mr. Wilkes, who discharged him because he had been apprehended merely in consequence of his majesty's proclamation, without having been charged with felony or breaking the peace. Wheble, upon his discharge, accused Carpenter

* This was a distinction made by lord Mansfield, in the house of lords, in vindication of what Mr. Burke called "a double cabinet."

† On the subject of Mr. Wilkes's negotiation it may be right, perhaps, to refer our readers to one of Mr. Algernon Tooke's letters to Junius, and to the reply of the latter.

of false imprisonment, and made him find sureties to answer for his offence, himself entering into recognizance to prosecute him at the next session in London.

When colonel Onslow declared that he intended to bring before the house every printer who had printed any of the debates or proceedings of parliament, Mr. Wilkes and his friend Mr. Almon (who was at that time the printer of the London Evening Post) determined, in case that paper should be complained of, to make a bold and strong resistance. The plan and the result of it are very well known; it was determined that if the printer should be served with an order to attend the house of commons, he was to pay no regard to it: that if the house sent a messenger to apprehend him, he was to have a constable in readiness to take the messenger into custody, and that then they were to proceed to the mansion-house, where Mr. Wilkes and the lord mayor (Crosby) and alderman Oliver would attend for the purpose. Circumstances happened exactly as had been foreseen. Crosby and Oliver were sent to the tower, as having been guilty of a breach of privilege; but to use his own phrase, the house "had enough" of Mr. Wilkes, and though they ordered him to attend on a particular day, it was contrived by an adjournment that the house should not sit on that day. Though the last this was not the least triumph of Mr. Wilkes and his colleagues: from this time the debates in both houses have constantly, and with impunity, been published in every newspaper throughout the kingdom. Mr. Wilkes deserved the city cup for his exertions, and the lord mayor and Mr. Oliver had every respect and honour paid to them during their imprisonment, and every mark of rejoicing on their enlargement: they were attended to the mansion-house by a splendid procession, and the city of London was brilliantly illuminated at night.

On the private character of Mr. Wilkes we are not desirous to enlarge. His conduct to Mrs. Wilkes was detestable in the extreme; and if, as Mr. Almon seems to suspect, there was any foundation for Mr. Bernard's suspicion of his wife's too great intimacy with him, we hold his private character in still greater abhorrence. We must not confine our observation, however, to the dark side only: as a father Mr. Wilkes was a mo-

del which the most virtuous may admire, and the most indulgent imitate. The parental tenderness and solicitude which all his letters to Miss Wilkes breathe are scarcely to be paralleled: his most indulgent disposition anticipated every wish—to whatever inconveniences he submitted himself, his beloved daughter must submit to none. No expence was spared in her education, and every accomplishment which art and science could bestow, was anxiously tendered to the idol of his affections. It is universally acknowledged that they were not bestowed in vain.

Mr. Wilkes was a man of great personal courage: he was cool, intrepid, and persevering. His behaviour in various duels, and his conduct at his examination before lords Halifax and Egremont prove his coolness and intrepidity, and the uniform tenor of his political life bears undisputed testimony to his perseverance.

He was warm in his friendships, but not so steady as might have been expected from his character: he even quarrelled with lord Temple (see Almon, vol. 3, p. 300), and the total annihilation of a friendship which had subsisted twenty years, resulted from the obstinacy of Mr. Wilkes. Churchill was a congenial spirit, and his death was ever regretted.

Mr. Wilkes was a man of great conversational talents, of ready wit and general information. His manners were highly polished, and in every respect those of the accomplished gentleman. Mr. Wilkes was an elegant scholar, and his editions of Catullus and Theophrastus are much valued for their singular correctness; his acquaintance with French literature was extensive and critical.

Mr. Wilkes was long engaged in writing an History of England: he received from Mr. Almon a considerable sum of money in advance for the copyright; but the public has never been favoured with more than the introduction to it. Mr. Almon passes over this non-completion of Mr. Wilkes's engagement in silence: his forbearance entitles him to much praise as a man, though not as a biographer. As the work is occasionally mentioned to have been in great forwardness, we should have been glad to have heard the fate of the manuscript.

The world, it must be acknowledged,

has less concern with the private than the public conduct of a political character. For the immoralities of his domestic life, Mr. Wilkes is responsible to a higher tribunal than any which can take cognizance of them here: he had also his virtues, and before that tribunal they will not plead in vain.

His public conduct is to be judged of by those whom it immediately affects: he was a "friend to liberty," and man-

fully resisted the march of arbitrary power. He was persecuted for this resistance by a corrupt administration, which he vanquished and disgraced: and he is entitled to the gratitude of every Englishman who values the liberty of the press, the freedom of election, and the security which he derives from the invalidity—the total abolition of general warrants.

CHAPTER IX.

NOVELS AND ROMANCES.

OF the numerous publications which belong to the class of novels and romances we profess not to give a complete account. They are for the most part no objects of literary criticism; nor is the time of any of our associates of so little value as to be occupied in the perusal of the loads of trash which the depraved and undistinguishing appetites of school-girls and ladies'-maids would reject with loathing, if they were required to bestow a single thought on the worthlessness of what they so eagerly devour. If, in our enquiries, we meet with a novel which either attracts attention for its merits, or which, though unnoticed, deserves a place in English literature, or acquires an infamous popularity from its licentiousness, we esteem it our duty not to pass over such a work in silence; but to bestow upon it, according to its merits, our praise or reprobation.

We are happy to observe, that no novel of a dangerous tendency has acquired sufficient celebrity, during the last year, to attract our notice. Miss Edgeworth has displayed her accustomed ingenuity and powers of composition in the *Modern Griselda*; Miss Hamilton has published the *Life of the younger Agrippina*, which, although in some measure founded on history, ranks properly among works of the imagination; Mr. Dallas has produced a pleasing and moral romance, entitled *Aubrey*. *La Duchesse de la Valliere* of Madame Genlis has appeared in an English dress, and, if we are not mistaken, will surprize and disappoint those who are familiar with the former publications of this celebrated lady. Goethe's *Heliodora*, and Lantier's *Travellers in Switzerland*, are added to our list, not so much on account of their intrinsic merit, as because they have acquired a certain degree of popularity beyond the bounds that are usually assigned to books of this description.

ART. I. *Memoirs of the Life of Agrippina, the Wife of Germanicus.* By ELIZABETH HAMILTON. 8vo. 3 vols.

TO the philosophic moralist, who has composed these volumes, her country is accustomed to attend with gratitude and with advantage. Nor will this new production detract from a celebrity so industriously and meritoriously earned. Yet we doubt the expediency of composing historic novels; of employing names familiar and important in real annals, as agents in imaginary or fabulous adventures. An inconvenient confusion of fact and fiction becomes graven in the memory; and one is at a loss to separate what the poet from what the historian taught. There are, indeed, many good

books of this kind, the *Belisarius* of Mar-montel, the *Aristippus* of Wieland, and others of domestic growth: but the chance is, that neither ethic probability, nor antique costume, nor consonance with testimony, will be regarded; and that the young reader will be misinformed about the characters, manners, and adventures of all the heroes of the piece.

The villa of Germanicus is thus described:—

“ In the house of Germanicus, riot and confusion were unknown. The number of domestic slaves rendered it necessary to institute a rigid discipline; but as obedience to

rules is always less grievous than subjection to caprice, it may be inferred, that those who lived under the roof of Germanicus and Agrippina, had no reason to complain of any peculiar hardship.

"That contempt for indolence which the ancient Romans had been at so much pains to cherish as a republican virtue, continued still in some degree to operate, and to diffuse a spirit of activity through every part of the domestic economy. The times indeed were now approaching, when idleness, under the auspices of folly and vanity, was to be brought into fashion, and considered as one of the distinguished privileges of the great; but as we are informed that Augustus never wore a robe which was not fabricated by the hands of his wife, his daughter, or grand-daughter, we may infer that the Roman ladies of his time were in general strangers to idleness and ennui. And if

'To guide the spindle, and direct the loom,'

were still considered as part of the essential duties of a virtuous matron; we have every reason to conclude, that in the apartment appropriated to the various branches of domestic manufacture Agrippina was no stranger.

"Every thing was made at home. And though luxury had ere now introduced the fashions and the silks of Persia, pride or shame, or economy, prevented the Romans from wearing the productions of a foreign loom in the state in which they had been imported. The webs of silk were unravelled, and wrought up anew with an equal mixture of linen or woollen yarn: an opportunity was thus given for the display of taste in the invention of new patterns. Agrippina, while she arranged the glossy threads, could not but admire their inimitable beauty; but had no conception of the manner of their formation. Believing silk to be a vegetable production of some unknown region, she might amuse her fancy by forming conjectures concerning the appearance of the parent plant; but natural history was a science in which so little progress had then been made, that no object belonging to that important branch of human knowledge excited much curiosity.

"While presiding over the labours of her attendant nymphs, Agrippina often listened to some favourite author, whose works were read to her by a young female slave instructed for the purpose. Nor did this retard the progress of her embroiderers, or give any interruption to the busy shuttle; it being one of the inestimable advantages of industry, that it gives a stimulus to the power of attention, and increased its capacity in such a degree, that what was at first difficult soon appears to be mechanical. The robes that were manufactured by Agrippina's damsels, however they might be ornamented by embroidery, which was now much in fashion,

were of a close and solid fabric. It was not till the succeeding age that they were worn of so thin a texture, as to attract the notice of the satirist, and to give just offence to delicacy. Taste had not as yet been thus far corrupted by licentiousness, and consequently modesty was not in the days of Agrippina openly violated in the dress of those who had any wish to be considered as virtuous.

"A predilection for the principles that had guided the conduct of the venerable matrons of former times, had been early implanted by Antonia in the mind of her daughter-in-law. Hence, doubtless, arose that loftiness of spirit, which disdained to seek for glory in those puerile objects to which so many of her sex directed their ambition. The praise of excelling in beauty, wit, elegance, or learning, was to her not sufficiently gratifying, unless sentiments of respect and esteem were mingled with those of admiration.

"As the sphere of her duties enlarged, her anxiety to fulfil them increased in an equal proportion: and as of all the duties to which she was now called, the care and instruction of her children appeared the most important, it may be believed that she applied with assiduity to the delightful task. In an affair of such moment, Agrippina was too wise to be guided by the caprice of fashion. Considering that plan of education which had produced the greatest and the wisest men as most worthy to be adopted, she endeavoured to follow the method that had been pursued in former times. In those times, the first words lisped by the infant tongue had been to the Roman ladies a signal for commencing the labour of instruction. Sensible of the advantages of a distinct articulation, they wisely endeavoured, while the organs of speech were flexible, to form them to the pronunciation of every difficult sound. By this attention alone it is that children can acquire such a command of those organs, as is not only essential to eloquence, but highly useful in bestowing a facility in the acquirement of every foreign language. From the time that a child could speak, no inaccuracy of expression was permitted to pass unnoticed; and that they might be enabled thus to lay a foundation for that pre-eminence in the art of oratory, which was a primary object of ambition, ladies of rank assiduously cultivated the study of their native language. They learned to speak with peculiar purity and elegance, and valued themselves upon this accomplishment, as one that could be rendered useful to their offspring.

"No sooner did it become fashionable to consign the tender period of infancy to the care of slaves and mercenaries, than oratory declined: nor was it oratory alone that suffered by this pernicious change, since to the same cause may fairly be attributed the decline of taste.

"To render the mind susceptible of the emotions of sublimity or beauty is not a task

to be performed by the vulgar. To persons of this description the rules of criticism may indeed be known, and by pedants they may be applied with great sagacity; but to feel, to admire, and to enjoy excellence of every kind and species, is a privilege that not 'all the learning of the schools' can bestow on a coarse or vulgar mind.

"In fixing the associations by which this sensibility may in some respects be said to be created, the virtuous and well-educated mother possessed so many advantages over the servile or mercenary preceptor, that we cannot be surprised at her superior success. To the instructions of Cornelia, historians have attributed the eloquence of the Gracchi; and it was from Atia that Augustus acknowledged having derived those mental accomplishments which endeared him to the Roman people. Nor did the first and greatest characters of the Roman world scruple to confess similar obligations to the virtuous matrons from whom they derived their birth.

"Women so capable of instructing their sons must have made no small progress in taste, knowledge, and literature. They were in fact highly accomplished; and as all their accomplishments tended to some useful purpose, they were unaccompanied by vanity.

"Greek, the only language besides their own which the Romans thought worthy of their attention, was assiduously cultivated by every person of liberal education. Agrippina both wrote and conversed in the Greek tongue with facility and elegance; and it is probable, that it was from her that her children received their first instructions in this as in other branches of knowledge. What taste she had in music cannot now be ascertained; but the notions of propriety that were still prevalent, left the ambition of excelling as

musical performers to their Greek slaves. Ladies, however fond of music, were content to listen; nor did it occur to them, that any glory was to be acquired by rivalling in their art those public performers who were often the most depraved and worthless of the human race."

The celebrated lady here represented as such a model of perfection and delicacy, and here stated to have been contracted to her husband from her infancy, was, if we recollect, divorced by Tiberius, and passed out of his arms into those of the good-natured Germanicus. Tacitus describes her as the reverse of domestic, disgustingly courageous, proud, captious, and accustomed to govern her husband even in military matters. This supposedly exemplary mother too was the educatress of Caligula. She cannot have been such a woman as is here characterized; but must rather have resembled that other Agrippina of Racine:

"Moi, fille, femme, sœur, et mère de vos maîtres."

Of the style of narration, of the interspersed sentiments of morality, of the amusiveness (if the term be grave enough) of these volumes, we are disposed to think favourably, and to speak with the merited warmth of encomium. Heroic delineations, like the star which over-arched the manger at Bethlehem, attract the steps of the wise toward the throne of perfection.

ART. II. *The unexpected Legacy; a Novel.* By Mrs. HUNTER, of Norwich. 2 vols. 12mo. pp. 606.

MRS. Hunter is the author of several novels, "Letitia," "the History of the Grubthorpe Family," &c.; all which are respectable as compositions, and lay claim to great merit for the moral and religious principles which they inculcate. "The unexpected Legacy" is entitled to the same commendation; we could ne-

vertheless wish that Mrs. Hunter had simplified her story; it is too crowded with characters, who fancy their baby adventures sufficiently interesting to authorise an account of their birth, parentage, and education. These are knots in the thread of the tale, which give a harshness to its surface.

ART. III. *Travellers in Switzerland.* By E. F. LANTIER. Translated from the French, by FREDERIC SCHOBEL. In 6 vols. 8vo.

MISLED by the ambiguous title, we had placed these volumes on the shelf appropriated to voyages and travels; and when their supposed turn came to undergo a closer inspection, we were equally surprised and disappointed to find, that, instead of a real journey through a country which has always ex-

cited in us a lively interest, we had before us a series of imaginary adventures, drawn out to a tedious length by the complimentary forms and other usual expletive matter of an epistolary novel. This ungratified expectation may, perhaps, have been unfortunate for the author, and have caused us to read his

work with less inclination to be pleased than we should otherwise have experienced. In all cases where an opinion is to be delivered, and a judgment passed, not a little depends on the previous disposition of the mind. When we take up a play of Shakespeare, or a volume of Fielding, we know that we are about to enter into the regions of fancy, and willingly resign ourselves to a pleasing delusion. But if we meet with fiction, when we have expanded our understanding for the reception of truth, we feel much like the man who was treated with moonshine on the outside of the house, when his appetite was keen, and he had been induced to hope for a solid supper within. A supper, indeed, is not the worse for a little garnish, though it serves merely to please the eye; and will generally be thought improved by the addition of some stimulating sauces to its substantial dishes. Nor ought valuable information of any kind to be rejected, because it is not presented to us in its simple purity, but appears in a dress which may attract the notice, and fix the attention of a desultory reader. If we compare the title-page with the work, it seems candid to conclude that Mr. Lantier wished to unite entertainment with instruction; and that he claims a right to adopt the boast of the Roman fabulist, *duplex libelli dos est*. A large proportion of his pages is certainly devoted to geographical descriptions, delineations of actual customs and manners, and biographical anecdotes of well-known literary characters. The love scenes may, therefore, be chiefly intended to allure those who read solely for amusement, and to give a zest to the more useful part of the work: but they are so barren of incident, so often interrupted and so sparingly introduced, that we apprehend the eager miss in her teens will soon throw away the book; and we should not wonder if the most staid maiden and the soberest matron should sometimes exercise the invaluable privilege of skipping. The fable indeed is constructed strictly by rule; for after the example of the greater number of epic poems, it rushes at once *in medias res*, and at the first outset awakens our curiosity by an elopement.

Adolphe Delmont, a younger brother, of good family and competent fortune, and Blanche Bertant, daughter of a wealthy merchant at Lyons, are the hero and heroine of the piece. We first

meet with them on the road from Lyons to Geneva, escaped from the tyranny of Blanche's father, who, after having once consented to their union, has now endeavoured to force her into a marriage with a man of obscure and dubious character, the brother of an equally mysterious Madame Philippine Vansieden, whom, as soon appears, he himself wishes to marry. Wearied by continual persecution, and strict confinement, Blanche, by the assistance of a faithful domestic, finds means to join her lover, flies with him into Switzerland, unaccompanied by any female friend or attendant, and resides with him in the same house unmarried, waiting for the change which time and affectionate entreaty may finally produce in a parent's heart. Such a step would be thought in England a flagrant breach of decorum, and would leave an indelible stain on a lady's character. But they manage things differently in France. It has the full approbation of Madame de St. Omer, Blanche's aunt, a woman of a cultivated understanding, and well acquainted with the world. Adolphe is a man of honour: Blanche has a mind of unspotted purity; and, though the delicacy of her moral feelings is deeply wounded by the idea of having disobeyed her father, she relies implicitly on a solemn promise given by her lover, and continues to domesticate with him, without apprehending censure from others, or danger to herself. Having nothing else to do, they ramble through different parts of Switzerland; and the result of their observations is communicated in letters, sometimes from Adolphe to his brother at Lyons, and sometimes from Blanche to her aunt, who relate in return the behaviour of Bertant on the discovery of his daughter's flight, and, in particular, his speedy marriage with Philippina.

But the reader is hitherto left ignorant of the events which preceded the elopement, and rendered it necessary. In a similar case, Homer produced an Alcinous, and Virgil a Dido, who were unacquainted with the previous adventures of their respective heroes, and to whom these adventures might, therefore, be pertinently related. And whom does the genius of Mr. Lantier provide for that purpose? Why truly the brother of Adolphe, who had resided at Lyons during the whole time of the courtship; had been an eye-witness of many of the transactions, and who could (not be a

stranger to any part of a business so interesting to a member of his own family, whom he had an opportunity of seeing every day.

But notwithstanding all this, and though the elder Delmont in every preceding letter had mentioned the father of Blanche as a man of whose character and concerns he had an intimate knowledge, Adolphe very gravely tells him, in the beginning of his narrative, *that Blanche is the only daughter of Bertant, a merchant of Lyons, who was honoured with the rank of sheriff.* To this same brother he also communicates, evidently for the first time, and details at full length, the history of Madame Vansieden and her brother Bonnard, who had been the cause of all his troubles. This, we now find, he had learnt, *before he left Lyons*, from an actor then in that city, who had known Philippina an actress at Dresden, and was well acquainted with her real character. But though, in consequence of this information, he had sufficient evidence, that the one was an abandoned strumpet, and the other a needy desperate gamester, he keeps it a profound secret from his own brother, from Madame de St. Omer, from Blanche, and from Bertant himself, who was a doating dupe to the hypocritical artifices of the sister, whom he evidently designed to marry, and to oblige whom he had promised his daughter to the brother. A man of common sense would have instantly divulged the whole, brought the actor into court as a witness, and removed at once every obstacle to the completion of his happiness. The sense of Adolphe was not of the common kind; he quietly left things to take their own course, or, according to his own system, as they had been predetermined from all eternity. "Such," says he, "is the concatenation of human events, or what is called predestination, that it was necessary this precious pair should be expelled from Paris, and take refuge at Lyons, to bring misfortune on the amiable Blanche, on me, and a whole family."

So much for Mr. Lantier's skill in the construction of a fable. The sentiments he attributes to his lovers are generally in the strain of high romance, and far removed from the experience of actual life. Adolphe talks of "that secret repugnance which proceeds from instinct, and is nothing more than a dissimilarity of minds, or rather that antipathy which

must subsist between a mean and an elevated soul, between virtue and vice:" and asserts, that "if mankind would listen to those silent aversions denominated prepossession, they would form fewer unhappy connections." One beautiful, and, as far as we know, original stroke of nature, we have observed, and transcribe with pleasure—

"I make the coffee or chocolate," writes Blanche to her aunt, "which is a very agreeable employment; for the intercourse over the breakfast-table is to me highly gratifying. I am caterer at least one portion of the day, so that no domestic is required in this capacity; and Adolphe is pleased with my execution of this part of family duty. At nine o'clock he joins me at breakfast; it is the interval of confidence, of friendship, and when the little projects of the day are frequently adjusted. But this interchange of thought and affection would never cease, if I did not interrupt it.

"We have chattered enough; let us read *Metastasio or Tasso.*"

"I begin to understand those authors, *grazie all maestro, all suo zelo, alla sua pazienza.* The lesson continues for an hour; after which I take leave of my master, who kisses my hand, and sometimes, when the weather is serene, I let him salute my cheek. Why when the weather is serene? Because in fine weather I am more alert, and more disposed to give him indulgence."

The descriptions of the romantic scenes in Switzerland, &c. are in general authentic and entertaining, but they are copied almost literally from the accounts of Saussure, Bourrit, and other travellers, and are sometimes not very happily introduced. The following is a sufficient instance:—

"Vevay belongs to the Pays de Vaud. The ancient Roman, spoken in the time of Charlemagne, prevails at this day in the jargon of the country, which has yet preserved the name of the Pays Roman. Some vestiges of this language may be traced among the people who inhabit all the vallies of the Alps and the Pyrenees. The adjacent inhabitants of Turin, who dwell in the caverns of the Pays de Vaud, not only preserve the language, but almost all the customs of the age of Charlemagne. These provincials being unpractised in the worship of images, were disgraced to the rank of heretics. In the year 1487, pope Innocent VIII. sent to Piedmont his nuncio, to excite the people to a crusade against them. By a bull he recommended to the inquisitors, ecclesiastics, and monks to combine against them, and to hunt them down as the wild beasts. The same bull granted to every crusader the right

of seizing on the estates and chattels of these heretics without any form of law, and declares, that all magistrates who should not assist in the enterprise, should be deprived of their dignity."

We know not from whom this passage is borrowed, but Mr. Lantier evidently fancied that there is some connection between the Piedmontese vallies of the Vandois or Valdenses, more frequently written Waldenses, on the confines of Dauphiné, and the Pays de Vaud in the canton of Berne; or he would not have annexed the history of the persecutions suffered by the inhabitants of the former, to his description of Vevay, which is far removed from the scene of those atrocious cruelties. We have no idea that any remains of the Romansh language are now preserved among the peasantry of the Swiss Pays de Vaud. The nonsense in the sentence concerning the inhabitants of Turin is, we doubt not, to be imputed to the translator, who by no means stands at the head of his profession. We ourselves have had no opportunity of consulting the original. Mr. Lantier seems to consider the vale of Chamouni as part of Switzerland, and attributes to its inhabitants the independent spirit, the ardent love of liberty, and enthusiastic veneration for the memory of William Tell, which belong to the once free citizens of Uri, Schwitz, and Unterwald; we say *once*, for alas! Troja, Troja, fuit. When he speaks of two kinds of chamois, one of which is handsomer and stronger, and resides on the loftiest of the Alps, he probably refers to the ibex, which is entirely distinct from the chamois. It is, we apprehend, the translator, and not the author, who has made the marmot and the racoon the same animal.

The anecdotes of literary characters are, in our estimation, the best written part of the work; but unfortunately they want the grand essential requisite, *credibility*. Conversations said to have passed between the ideal characters of a novel, and Diderot, Rousseau, Voltaire, &c. cannot be received as authentic facts: and we are at a loss to discover on what principle such liberties, taken with names so eminent, can be justified. It is to confound all our ideas of historical truth. We believe, however, that the general cast of their sentiments and manners is tolerably well preserved. The portrait of the abbé Raynal is certainly taken from the life. It produced

in our minds a lively recollection of two or three days which we ourselves spent in company with him when he was in England, near thirty years ago.

As a favourable specimen of Mr. Lantier's talents for this kind of composition, we have selected the following relation of a supposed conversation between Madame de St. Omer and the celebrated Thomas, author of the Eulogies, an Essay on Women, &c.

"After dinner, the company walked out into the beautiful alleys in the park. Thomas and I contrived to be left in the rear by ourselves. He spoke concerning his health, impaired by study. I asked him, how many hours in the day he worked. 'All day, when I am so fortunate as not to be disturbed: in the morning I read, or think, in bed, till seven or eight o'clock: I rise and walk about, continuing my employment, till nine. After a very frugal breakfast, I sit down, cross-legged, upon my bed, where, with the windows shut and curtains drawn, I compose till the hour of dinner, a disturbance which I frequently curse: I think nothing so vexatious: always dining! always going to bed! We pass half our lives in the continual repetition of the same thing.' I see, sir, that you live and breathe only to study and write; that is, to obtain glory; every hour of your life must lead you to immortality.

"Yes, I devote my existence to philosophy and the muses."

"This eagerness of knowledge is a passion with you."

"Doubtless: we never accomplish any thing without a violent appetite, as some philosophers term it, or rather without enthusiasm."

"Yet, I conceive the first precept of philosophy teaches us to govern, to moderate our passions."

"At these words, Thomas looked steadfastly at me, seeking an answer, for which he was at a loss. To relieve him from his embarrassment, I said—"I will take you to see an inmate of the house, a modern Socrates; who, I think, possesses more just ideas than the greatest part of the philosophers of Paris." "Is he a very intelligent man?" "What he knows, he knows thoroughly: that is more than can be said of many of the wits of the age."

"I should be happy to form an acquaintance with him: where is he?" "We shall probably find him in the garden."

"While we were looking for him, we observed Nicholas, the head gardener, seated on the green turf, with a bottle of wine beside him. We accosted him.

"What are you doing there?" said I.

"I am resting myself, madam, and taking a glass. To your health."

"I am much obliged to you."

"That enlivens me. Upon my word the principal good is health: it surpasses every thing. The next is labour, and then pleasure."

"Are you never sick?"

"No! God be thanked: I drink no more wine than is sufficient; and do no more work than I can get through without difficulty. And why should I hurry myself to do more? I have enough to live satisfied up."

"But you ought to endeavour to distinguish yourself, to establish your fame as the ablest gardener."

"Pooh! I am not such a fool as to kill myself for reputation: that would be silly enough. No madam, if I had tormented myself all my life, and had died twenty years sooner, people would have said of me, 'It is a pity; he was a good gardener;' but even then there would have been some of a contrary opinion, for men can never agree. When I give a melon to the governor, one says, 'It is a good one;' another, 'it is not bad;' and a third, 'it is too ripe: it would have been better yesterday.' Then go and plague yourself, to please every body."

"Do you know, Mr. Nicholas, that you are a philosopher?"

"How so, madam? I can scarcely read. But to be a philosopher, a person should know how much the moon weighs, how many fathoms it is from hence to the sun, how the earth was made, and what has been done in it these ten thousand years: he must have as many books as there are caterpillars in my garden. For my part, I give myself no trouble about all that: it is enough for me to learn who first planted cabbages and turnips: I wish to know my own business, and that is all I pride myself upon. I wish to be an honest man, to support myself, to do my work, to enjoy myself, to have my health,

and I laugh at all the rest. That is my philosophy: if it be not the right, I cannot help it; but I will have no other. To your health, madam; to yours, sir," said he, drinking off another glass of wine, and we took leave of him.

"Thomas had listened with pleasure to this man: he confessed that he had both sense and judgment. 'But,' added he, 'let us go to the philosopher you were speaking of.' 'What!' said I, 'did not you find it out! You have just left him.' 'How! is it Nicholas, the gardener?' 'The same. I chat almost every day with him, and he astonishes me by the justness of his reasoning, and his understanding. He has shewn you the inanity of glory. The history of his melon, which is found fault with, be it ever so good, is the same as that of the works of authors, which have cost so much trouble, anxiety, and watching."

Upon the whole, Mr. Lantier, though possessed of some genius, and of considerable learning, which, on all occasions, he is fond of displaying, has not made a judicious use of either in the present publication. He has been more solicitous to give a large than a good supper. His garnish is inelegant and unnatural; his sauces are generally rather mawkish than poignant; his solid articles are either *barbed* meats, which have already been served up in a better form at other tables, or *made* dishes, which no sound taste will ever prefer to the genuine flavour of unsophisticated beef or mutton, chicken or pheasant, or any other kind of food, prepared by a skilful cook, with a just reverence for the sacred rights of truth and nature.

ART. IV. *Heliodora; or, the Grecian Minstrel*. Translated from the German of Baron GÖTTE. 12mo. 3 vols. pp. abt. 600.

A NOVEL, by the author of the Sorrows of Werter, cannot fail to excite the public curiosity of Europe: but *Heliodora*, which from any other hand would have been admired, will hardly appear worthy of the pathetic powers and the classical taste occasionally displayed by GÖTTE.

The scene of event lies in the Neapolitan territory. Many descriptions of the region are executed with a vividness and a fidelity only possible to an attentive traveller. The persons and incidents are not always worthy of the scene-painter. All the heroines are beautiful and susceptible; all the heroes brave and amorous. There is as little variety in the occurrences. Discoveries, as they

are technically called, form the perpetual resource to elevate and surprize: every new character is found to be brother, sister, father, mother, nephew, or aunt to some of the previous personages. The reader is constantly exclaiming with Hamlet,

"O my prophetic soul! my uncle."

The story is as marvellous as the castle of Udolfo, but is less terrific: it has many analogous features, but there is not business and bustle enough to cover the improbability.

One of the earlier incidents is well adapted to awaken expectation.

"*Heliodora* felt much interested, but fearful of being discovered, she slipped through

a door, and came into an illuminated walk, which conducted her to the hall where the company had assembled. The servants were astonished at the beautiful form and foreign habit of the maiden, and suffered her to enter. The banquet was nearly over, and music had begun to invite the sprightly dance. Heliodora drew near, and respectfully bowed to the company. The loud conversation became hushed, and every eye was directed towards her: like a celestial apparition, she stood in the spacious hall, whilst the surrounding splendour formed a blaze of glory that seemed to give her a magical illusion. With peculiar grace she placed the lute upon her arm, and sung a lively air, suitable to the occasion. Applauses were showered upon the lovely minstrel. In a manner the most unreserved she answered the questions relative to her native land; and told her misfortunes in such artless language, that all who heard, shared her sorrow. The old prince viewed her with attention: her fate appeared to him a mystery that did not coincide with the simple tale she had uttered; for we are naturally apt to suppose something extraordinary, when we see exalted manners combined with an inferior situation; but especially so, when we find them, as was here the case, united in a stranger.

"After a short pause, she played a softly-breathing symphony, and began to sing some beautiful stanzas, which she had learned in her infancy—they were taught her by her mother—she stopped to wipe a tear from her lovely eye, and, recovering herself, sweetly finished the whole with the most sympathetic effect.

"The reflections, which were awakened in her mind as she was playing, made the song wholly her own, and, such were the power of truth, and the native melody of her tones, that she melted her hearers into enthusiastic raptures. Not a breath interrupted her, and when she finished, every bosom felt relieved. The old prince, as he listened, became particularly interested in her feelings, for the strain appeared familiar to him. As soon as Heliodora had concluded, he earnestly looked at her, and enquired, 'if she herself had composed the music or the words of the air?' 'Both are my mother's,' replied she; 'if you please, I will also sing it in Italian, the language in which she wrote it.' 'Is she then of Italy, and where is she now?'

demanded the prince. 'Of Sicily,' answered the minstrel; 'but now she is yonder, casting her eyes to heaven;—the gushing tear once more flowed. Heliodora began the song in the Italian language, but, as she was concluding the second line, a hollow voice in the castle interrupted her. The prince affrighted, turned pale, and tottered on his chair. 'O heaven!' cried he, springing up, 'hold, hold!' At that moment a young lady burst into the hall, exclaiming, 'Lights, lights! banditti! robbers!' Two shots were fired under the windows—every one fled in confusion, and the hall became dark.

"Heliodora immediately sprang over the corridor, and was soon in the garden. Dreading to fall into the hands of the robbers, she secreted herself amongst some bushes, where she lay a short time listening, till she imagined the danger past. The noise in the mansion soon seemed to have subsided. Her dear father now burst upon her mind, and she was eager to know the state of his health, for she had left him in a hopeless and pitying condition: with that intention, she struck into a path that apparently conducted to a back door, but had scarcely proceeded a few steps, when she heard a whispering; again she hid herself, and all again was silent. Her fears being somewhat removed, she was advancing on her way towards the cottage of Lorenzo, when two men, muffled up in dark coloured mantles, rushed upon her, and, seizing her beyond all possibility of escape, 'are you come,' cried one of them, grasping her hand, and hurrying her along. 'Let's away, let's away!' Heliodora swooned with the suddenness of the alarm, and in that state they conveyed her to a carriage, which was posted near the shore: one of them forced her into it, shut the door, and it rolled away with the rapidity of lightning."

The first volume, as is usual in novels, interests more than the second; the second than the third. The author gradually grows tired, and dismisses at length his readers with their own consent. His work has been rendered into English with an entire knowledge of the original language, and with a degree of elegance, which, from the foregoing specimen, may sufficiently be appreciated.

ART. V. *The Duchess of La Valliere. An historical Romance. By Madame De GENLIS.* 2 vols. 12mo.

HISTORICAL romance is a species of composition which has risen to much greater favour and importance among our Gallic neighbours than among ourselves; a circumstance which might perhaps be traced to that superior regard for veracity which affords a point of

comparison so favourable to our national character. We love to keep truth and falsehood as distinct as possible; hence the line of separation between our plain narratives of fact and sentimental works of fiction is broad and conspicuous; whereas between the romantic histories

and historical romances of the French, the boundary is narrow, and almost indistinguishable. Far be from us any attempt to weaken the salutary disgust with which these ambiguous productions naturally inspire an ingenious mind!

We shall however remark, that there is a considerable difference between that kind of fiction which perverts and falsifies history, and that which, preserving the grand outline of facts inviolate, contents itself with adding those smaller touches and more delicate shades, which, though they had really existed in nature, would have sunk undistinguished in the broad colouring of the historical canvass. Yet it is so difficult to keep these minuter parts in due subordination to the great and important whole, that even this species of embellishment is liable to many and weighty objections; and if the historian has a good right to complain of the bolder fabulist, the biographer may with equal justice arraign the more timid one.

Madame Genlis asserts, that "*history is very faithfully followed*," in the work before us, for, says she, "though we have added much, we have omitted nothing." This may very probably be true; but nothing is here said of circumstances glossed over, and characters misrepresented. That of Lewis, indeed, we find from the preface, that she would have painted in colours equally flattering, had she called her book a history instead of a romance, for it belongs exclusively neither to professed fictions, nor to any one French writer, to extol the paternal benignity of a bloody persecutor—the piety of a priest-led bigot—the decorous manners of an open adulterer—the sensibility of the most selfish, and simplicity and magnanimity of the most arrogant and vain-glorious of mortals. With regard to La Valliere, the gentle and reluctant slave of an illicit passion; the victim of keen remorse and unavailing grief—and finally the votary of superstitious austerities and fanciful devotion, her character needed few fictitious embellishments to become the heroine of a French woman and a catholic. Little more was necessary than to give a touching picture of the piety and innocence from which she was seduced, and to make her retreat from the court, "after a lapse of four years, during which she only experienced disgust, humiliation, and misfortune," "a sacrifice, and not an exile." The sentiments impressed

on her young mind are represented to have been those of blind loyalty, filial reverence, and submission worthy of a Chinese; enthusiastic faith in the religion of her country, and boundless respect for its ministers.

"She had, for her mother, that sentiment inspired by nature, and perfected by religion, which can be compared to no other; that profound veneration and blind confidence, which resembles religious faith. Mademoiselle de la Valliere did not require to examine her mother's opinions, in order to adopt them, but she endeavoured to comprehend them, that she might fix them the more strongly in her mind."

"Mademoiselle de la Valliere was educated with equal simplicity and care. She was taught only to think justly, and to form her conduct according to the principles she had imbibed; the holy scriptures unceasingly meditated; some books of devotion, the History of France, several odes of Malherbe, and the tragedies of the great Corneille, completed her instruction. She read few works, but those which engaged her attention she always re-perused. Her books did not contradict each other; they presented an uniform system of morality, and their salutary maxims were unalterably engraven in her memory and her heart."

It was unfortunate that notwithstanding "the wisdom of her education," in M. Genlis's opinion, doubtless, the best possible, the first step of this interesting young lady should be a false step. But the pious and infallible mother was now dead, and with her, it should seem, died the conscience of her daughter.

The internal struggles of La Valliere, during the period of her connection with the king—her tenderness—her remorse—her humility, and secret acts of beneficence, are described with that touching eloquence of sentiment which distinguishes the works of this accomplished writer; and the intrigues of a court are portrayed with that lively accuracy, which personal knowledge alone can give. At length a rival appears on the scene, and the intriguing and ambitious Montespan too soon obtains in the heart of Lewis a decisive victory over the tender and artless La Valliere. She flies to the cloister; the ever-open asylum of disappointed love and sullied fame; but the mandate of the baughty despot quickly recalls her to a court round which her heart still lingered. The aid of fiction and sentiment are invoked to conceal the meanness, and palliate the weakness of their ill-advised return. The friendship of the king is supposed to have con-

seled her in some degree for the irretrievable loss of his love; but, after a time, disappointment, as usual, opens the door to devotion; that passion to which the leavings of every other are considered as a worthy offering. The accomplishment of a dream, which borders on the miraculous, raises her enthusiasm to the highest pitch; the probationary months prescribed by Bossuet pass away in a rapid succession of keen-contenting emotion; religion gains a final victory over the remains of guilty passion, heightened, says the fiction of our author, by the renewed tenderness of Lewis, who offers to sacrifice Montespan; and at the age of eight and twenty, the beautiful duchess de la Valliere finally buries herself in the convent of the Carmelites. All the pomp of religion gives solemnity to this closing scene, and the perfect tranquillity and happiness of the duchess, when penitence has restored her soul to its pristine purity, is described in the same forcible and affecting manner as her former agitated and wretched state, while conscience vainly warred with love. It must be confessed that, on a certain system, it is impossible to write the memoirs of a frail lady in a manner more edifying. A person of a different habit of thinking, however, might perhaps say, that a system of education, which, by teaching one fallible being to rely entirely on the guidance of another, which

“Enfeebles all internal strength of thought,”

and renders a person unequal to the task

ART. VI. *Aubrey: a Novel.* By R. C. DALLAS, Esq. 12mo. 4 vols.

AS a vehicle of moral precepts, we cannot speak too highly of this work, and yet the instruction to be derived from them is eminently weakened by the conduct of the principal character. Aubrey

of self-government, is one merely adapted to the direction of infancy; and that a form of religion, whose chief use is to fill the void left by the disappointment of criminal passions, “by occupying and exalting the imagination, and elevating the soul,” is only useful to our second childhood; while both leave the active, important zenith of our day, unguarded, unsupported, exposed to every evil suggestion from within, and every artful seduction from without; and that a decayed court-veteran amusing her joyless age in innocent retirement, by the perusal of histories and romances, and the duchess de la Valliere soothing to rest her ill-starred passion in the reveries of amorous devotion, or expiating her past irregularities by fasts and sacraments, and Ave Marys, if equally happy, may be equally commendable. But Madame Genlis would shudder with horror at notions approaching what she now contemptuously calls *philosophy*.*

The disgraceful ignorance of the translator of many very common French words and idioms, has not only totally obscured the graces of the original, but rendered several sentences almost unintelligible, and produced some curious blunders. We are told, for instance, that Benserade “corrected the king’s letter,” a billet doux to La Valliere, “or, to speak more correctly, rendered it much worse by the substitution of some *spiritual phrases*, and brilliant sallies, for the language of sentiment.”

* Under what auspices the present work was composed, we are curious to know. London is the date of the French edition; but we have been informed, that its author is now in high favour at the French imperial court: if so, it affords a most melancholy omen of the new state of things, that she who once aimed the whole artillery of her genius against monastic establishments, in the exquisitely pathetic story of Cecile, should now sanction with her applause the sacrifice, not only of the regrets of the guilty and sighs of the penitent, but of the hopes of the young, the future usefulness and enjoyment of the innocent and the blooming, to the gloom and indolence, the petty observances, and miserable fanaticism, of a cloister. That she who in her “*Veillées du Château*” strenuously endeavoured by the communication of useful knowledge and rational ideas to free the young mind from superstitious fears and vulgar errors, should now even dare to commend that ignorance of the laws of nature and common sense to which the women of former times were abandoned, and very clearly insinuate that it is rather a sign of grace to be afraid of apparitions, is most sincerely to be lamented.

to sell all his paintings in order to extricate himself from the difficulties into which his extravagance had plunged him, sets off to take possession of a curacy of a hundred pounds a year *in his own coach and four*, a post-chaise and pair following behind! Just escaped from the fangs of his creditors, he goes on in the same uniform course of extravagance, perpetually plunging his family into fresh difficulties, and at last sinking with them into the lowest abyss of penury. Too much interest is thrown over such a character for the advancement of morality: fine feelings must not be admitted as an excuse for faulty conduct, nor preceptive morality be substituted for practical. In every respect, except a systematic excess of expenditure beyond income, which is extravagance in its strictest sense, Aubrey is a perfect character: but these general perfections are too well calculated to extenuate the individual exception. Some art is employed in parrying off our just censure for his criminal imprudences by exciting commiseration for his misfortunes. We should have said less upon this pervading error of the novel if Mr. Dallas had not rather prided himself on its moral tendency: in his dedication of it to M. Bertrand de Moieville, he says 'I should probably not have thought of presenting a novel to you had not the progress of its subject (the severe trial of principle in adversity) brought to my mind the wonderful resignation and prudence of every class of the emigrants from France. In describing the difficulty of submitting to the reverses of fortune, I recollected their accommodating their desires and wants to their means. Those who had once lived in the highest style of magnificence, having saved some little portion of their property, retrenching every superfluity, &c. &c.' Now it was impossible not to feel the total inapplicability of Aubrey's character to this conduct: to accommodate his means to his desires was the last lesson he learnt, and if he retrenched any superfluity, it was not till after he had exhausted, not only all his money, but all his credit.

As a specimen of the style, however, for no other part of the merit of a novel can be judged of by a specimen, we shall quote the following sentences:

"Dr. Searle had led a life which the world had suffered to pass without reproach, and which he could himself contemplate with satisfaction. His independence, his cha-

rity, the gentleness of his manners, and his neutrality in politics, or rather his sincerity, which exalted him above party, and convinced men of different opinions, that he was solely influenced by truth and general good, had conciliated the good will of all; and the consciousness of having performed his duties to the best of his ability, of having befriended the poor, and of having set an example to the rich, left him at peace with his own mind. The early mastery of his passions, and his temperance in the enjoyment of the good things of this world, had preserved him from bodily sufferings; and his approach to the termination of his life was the gentle progress of unthwarted nature. His faculties were in their wane, his frame was enfeebled, but the grave had no terrors for him, and he was descending to it with ease and cheerfulness. It was not till his voice became inaudible, and his attention wavering, that he entirely resigned his pulpit; and taking the advice of his friends, gave up his remaining years to repose of body and of mind. His understanding, which had been endowed with excellent powers, still possessed a great degree of its elasticity, and his conversation, though unequal, retained a sufficient charm to attract both old and young, so that he continued to have what company he chose, whenever he pleased. At the time he became acquainted with Mr. Cowper by means of his nephew, as we have seen, he was turned of sixty; but the vigour of his constitution was unimpaired, he was active in the exercise of his faculties, his preaching and his practice were consistent, and while these endeared him to the poor, his fortune and his manners ensured him welcome among the rich."

The best part of this novel is the history of Mr. Cowper: the interest of this episode hurries the reader away, and it requires the tearless eye of a stern critic to detect its incongruities and improbabilities. With the old story in our recollection, we shall not pick the chaff from the wheat. The character of Cowper is consistent and well drawn; his love with Fanny Ross, his marriage, and his desertion of her, form altogether a most simple and pathetic tale; there is too much of contrivance, however, in the coincidence of her funeral and his return to a broken-hearted wife; the interest of the story is weakened by this violent interruption of its simplicity.

The character of Sensitive is delineated with spirit; and if we may return from the last to the first pages, we shall say that the narrative of Aubrey's love with Emily, and of the circumstances which more immediately led to his marriage with this estimable and accom-

plished woman, is very interesting; it has all the air of romance, without any gross violation of the probabilities of real life.

We are inclined to believe that Mr. Dallas is not incapable of writing a good novel; but he must lay down the *whole* of his plan before he begins, and not trust to his good genius at the moment,

for the extrication of his hero from difficulties into which he has incautiously led him.

Aubrey will not do him discredit; we have noticed its most prominent faults, and it seems not a little unfair, that, for its excellences, we must refer to the work.

ART. VII. *The Modern Griselda; a Tale.* By Miss EDGORTH, 8vo. pp. 170.

THE *modern Griselda* is the exact opposite of the ancient one. Possessed of youth, beauty, wit, and every fashionable accomplishment, she imagines herself entitled to rule with absolute command a husband who adores her. At first her imperious disposition only manifests itself in a restless and captious fear of not being sufficiently beloved; in a jealousy of every person and thing capable of diverting, for a moment, the attention of her husband, or affording him the slightest pleasure of which she is not the source. By degrees, "this monopolising humour" meeting with no opposition, encreases to absolute tyranny—disputes ensue, and her husband's assertion of his own free agency is resented sometimes by reproaches, sometimes by sullen silence. *Griselda* gradually loses the power she has abused; as a last and only expedient for recovering her past ascendancy, and reducing her ill fated partner to complete submission for the future she proposes a separation, little thinking that the man whom she still "loves better than any thing in the world, except power," can ever bear to live without her. No conciliatory offers, however, ensue on his side, his love was irrecoverably gone, pride and a delusive hope of final victory, preclude all submissions on hers, and at length they part—for ever. Such is the outline of this little tale—to say that it is filled up with sprightliness, with grace, with brilliancy of wit, and richness of simile and allusion, is only to say that it is Miss Edgworth's, and that it is worthy of its author. One thing, however, struck us as unworthy of Miss Edgworth, and very unlike the general strain of her writings. In several passages of the tale before us, her own sex are treated with harshness, and we think with injustice. Mrs. Granby, a most amiable and complying wife, who serves as a foil to Mrs. Bolinbroke, the heroine of the story, incurs her ill will

by gaining the esteem of Mr. Bolinbroke, and the admiration of a company where she had attempted, preposterously enough, to turn her into ridicule: *Griselda* is at length provoked to aim at the unoffending lady a gross and palpable sarcasm. "Emma," continues the narrative, "was at length awakened to the perception of her friend's envy and jealousy; but

"She mild forgave the failing of her sex."

Surely had any *male* writer of this enlightened age brought so foul an accusation as that of a general propensity to envy, against the female sex, all women of generous dispositions and cultivated minds would have felt themselves justly hurt at the charge, as illiberal and unfounded; what then must be their feelings when a *female*, of high literary reputation, and endowed in an eminent degree with the power of portraying character, and revealing the human heart, wantonly and apparently without being aware of its heinousness, alludes to this odious vice as an acknowledged failing of the sex, which has the honour to reckon herself among its numbers! By the quotation from Milton, which appears to be given as the moral of the tale, the ladies, we apprehend, will feel themselves almost as much aggrieved.

"Thus shall it befall
Him who to worth in woman overtrusting
Lets her will rule; restraint she will not
brook.
And left to herself, if evil thence ensue,
She first his *weak indulgence* will accuse."

Surely it is ungraceful in a woman to take arms against the liberties of the sisterhood!

Several apt and original similes embellish this tale, we shall cite two.

"*Griselda* excites envy, and though she may not have more faults than her neigh-

bours, they are more noticed, because they are in the full light of prosperity. Did you ever remark the number of mots that swarm in a single ray of light, coming through a shutter of a darkened room? there are not more mots in that spot than in any other part of the room, but the sun-beams show them more distinctly. The dust that lives in snug obscurity, should consider this, and have mercy upon its fellow dust."

"Who ever has seen a balloon—The reader, however impatient, must listen to this allusion—Whoever has seen a balloon, may have observed, that in its flaccid state it can be folded and unfolded with the greatest ease,

and it is manageable even by a child; but when once filled, the force of multitudes cannot restrain, nor the art of man direct its course. Such is the human mind—so tractable before, so ungovernable after it fills with passion: By slow degrees, unnoticed by our heroine, the balloon had been filling. It was full; but it was yet held down by strong cords: it remained with her to cut or not to cut them."

Miss Edgeworth seems to confess that she has in some degree, imitated "The Art of Tormenting."

CHAPTER X.

P O E T R Y.

THE poetical productions of the last year are neither very numerous, nor, with a few exceptions, very important. Common sense, expressed with propriety in easy verse, from its frequent repetition, has lost the power of pleasing; but the preposterous novelties and barbarisms of language, with the affectation of sentiment and fine feelings, which characterize the works of our modern minor poets, excite a disgust far more intolerable than the honest dullness which they have superseded. In our wearisome progress through the books which are noticed in the present chapter, it was no small relief to meet with Col. Mercer's volume of elegant and interesting poems, and the bright promise of future excellence displayed by Cap. Elton: such works are not only honourable to the authors, and worthy of notice for their intrinsic merit, but reflect credit on the British army itself, and may be of inestimable value in fostering the spirit of literature in a profession which, by situation, is peculiarly qualified to adorn the country which it defends. Mr. Huddesford's Wiccamical Chaplet, and Mr. Spencer's Year of Sorrow are also worthy of commendation: the latter for its pathos; the former for its humour. It is however to Mr. Walter Scott that the poetry of the present year is the most deeply indebted: his edition of *Sir Tristram*, the celebrated production of the bard of Erceildoune, displays a most accurate and intimate acquaintance with the literary antiquities of Britain; and his own "*Lay of the last Minstrel*" has raised him to a permanent rank among the classical poets of his country.

ART. I. *Sir Tristram; a metrical Romance of the thirteenth Century.* By THOMAS OF ERCEILDOUNE, called the Rhymer. Edited from the Auchinleck MS. by WALTER SCOTT. 8vo. pp. 500.

Oh! long shall Scotland sound with Rymour's name,

For in an unknown cave the sear shall bide,
Till through the realm gaunt kings and
chiefs shall ride,

Wading through floods of carnage, bridle-deep;

The cries of terror and the wailing woe,
Shall rouse the prophet from his tranced sleep,
His harp shall ring with woe, and all the
land shall weep. FINLAY'S WALLACE.

IF this hiding-place could be discovered, many are the curious points of history and romance which True Thomas could elucidate. Is he one of the seven men who sleep, and have long slept, in a den under the cliff of Ocean, in the uttermost parts of Germany, where there is snow all the summer time, and in the winter, though men see the light of the sun, yet the sun is not seen? All men may see them there; they are sound in body; their colour is not changed; neither do their garments wax old, and therefore the people have them in great worship and reverence. A covetous wretch once attempted to strip one of them of his cloathing, and his impious

arm was dried up in the attempt. Or is he in the cavern under the roots of the hazel-tree, on Craig y Dinas, where king Arthur and all his knights are lying asleep in a circle; their heads outward; every one in armour, his sword and shield and spear by him, ready to be taken up whenever the Black Eagle and the Golden Eagle shall go to war, and make the earth tremble with their affray; so that the cavern shall be shaken, and the bell ring, and the sleepers be awakened and come forth? Till, however, the prophet of Erceildoune can be found, what he may give an account of himself, we must be contented with such of his works as remain, and such scanty information respecting him as can be gleaned from old authors and contemporary records. He has been peculiarly fortunate, to remain for so many centuries the favourite of his countrymen, and to have his genuine remains elucidated, by an editor so eminently qualified for the task, by his peculiar taste and talents and erudition.

Thomas the Rhymer flourished during the greater part of the thirteenth century: by a deed of gift of his sons, it is certain that he died before 1299. If Henry the minstrel is to be credited, he was living three years before that time; and, as age seems essential to the prophetic character, it may fairly be inferred, that he was born early in the century. Some of his supposed predictions are founded apparently on meteorological observations; and Mr. Scott hints, that he may perhaps have been thought a prophet, because he was weather-wise. He was a man of considerable rank.

Tristram, or according to the Celtic orthography of his name, *Trystan the tumultuous*, is recognized by the Welsh triads. He is one of the three heralds of Britain, superior in the knowledge of the laws of war; one of the three diademed princes of Britain, of the three mighty swineherds, of the three stubborn chiefs whom none could turn from their purpose, and of the three faithful lovers. Mr. Owen has supplied a singular dialogue between Trystan and Gwalzmai, with the golden tongue, the Gavain of romance, when the former had left the court of Arthur in disgust, and all other attempts to make him return had failed. It is certain that the story of Tristram, be it in the main history or romance, is originally British, as almost all the names which occur in it are of genuine British origin. Neither the present romance, nor the old French poems on the same subject, connect him with Arthur: the Welsh poem however must be admitted as valid authority; it resembles, in its manner, the poems of Llywarc Hen, who was contemporary with Arthur himself.

"There occurs here an interesting point of discussion. Thomas of Erceldoune, himself probably of Saxon origin, wrote in the *Englis*, or English language; yet the subject he chose to celebrate was the history of a British chieftain. This, in a general point of view, is not surprising. The invaders have, in every country, adopted, sooner or later, the traditions, sometimes even the genealogies, of the original inhabitants; while they have forgotten, after a few generations, those of the country of their forefathers. One reason seems to be, that tradition depends upon locality. The scene of a celebrated battle, the ruins of an ancient tower, the "historic stone" over the grave of a hero, the hill and the valley inhabited of old by a par-

ticular tribe, remind posterity of events which are sometimes recorded in their very names. Even a race of strangers, when the lapse of years has induced them no longer to account themselves such, welcome any fiction by which they can associate their ancestors with the scenes in which they themselves live, as transplanted trees push forth every fibre that may connect them with the soil to which they are transferred. Thus every tradition failed among the Saxons, which related to their former habitations on the Elbe; the Normans forgot, not merely their ancient dwellings in Scandinavia, but even their Neustrian possessions; and both adopted, with greedy ardour, the fabulous history of Arthur and his chivalry, in preference to the better authenticated and more splendid achievements of Hengist, or of Rolf Gangr, the conqueror of Normandy."

It has been proved by the Abbé de la Rue that the earliest French romances were composed, not for the French, but for the Anglo-Norman monarchs. This accounts for their choice of the heroes of the round table. In process of time, when Normandy was acquired by the kings of France, the minstrel chose the more acceptable subject of Charlemagne and his Paladins. The story of Tristram was popular in France before the date of Thomas of Erceldoune's work. The question, whether he translated his poem from some of those which were current in the romance language, or referred to the original British authorities, from which the story had been versified by the French minstrels, leads to a very curious inquiry, in which new light is thrown upon the history of English literature.

"For ages after the arrival of Hengist and Horsa, the whole western coast of Britain was possessed by the aboriginal inhabitants, engaged in constant war with the Saxons; the slow but still increasing tide of whose victories still pressed onward from the east. The western Britons were, unfortunately for themselves, split into innumerable petty sovereignties; but we can distinguish four grand and general divisions. 1st, The county of Cornwall, and part of Devonshire, retained its independence, in the south-west extremity of the island. 2dly, Modern Wales was often united under one king. 3dly, Lancashire and Cumberland formed the kingdom of the Cumraig Britons, which extended northward to Solway Firth, which is now the borders of Scotland. 4thly, Beyond the Scottish border lay the kingdom of Strathclyd, including, probably, all the western part of Scotland, betwixt the Solway Firth and Firth

of Clyde. With the inhabitants of the Highlands, we have, at present, no concern. This western division of the island being peopled by tribes of a kindred origin and language, it is natural to conceive, even were the fact dubious, that the same traditions and histories were current among their tribes. Accordingly, the modern Welch are as well versed in the poetry of the Cumraig and the Strathelwyd Britons, as in that of their native bards; and it is chiefly from them that we learn the obscure contentions which these north-western Britons maintained against the Saxon invaders. The disputed frontier, instead of extending across the island, as the more modern division of England and Scotland, appears to have run longitudinally, from north to south, in an irregular line, beginning at the mountains of Cumberland, including the high grounds of Liddesdale and Teviotdale, together with Etrick forest and Tweeddale; thus connecting a long tract of mountainous country with the head of Clydesdale, the district which gave name to the petty kingdom.* In this strong and defensible country, the natives were long able to maintain their ground. About 850 the union of Scots and Picts enabled Kenneth and his successors to attack, and, by degrees, totally to subdue the hitherto independent kingdoms of Strathelwyd and Cumbria. But, although they were thus made to constitute an integral part of what has since been called Scotland, it is reasonable to conclude, that their manners and customs continued, for a long time, to announce their British descent. In these districts had flourished some of the most distinguished British bards; and they had witnessed many of the memorable events which decided the fate of the island†. It must be supposed that the favourite traditions of Arthur and his knights retained their ground for a length of time, among a people thus descended. Accordingly, the scene of many of their exploits is laid in this frontier country; Bamborough castle being pointed out as the castle Orgeillous of romance, and Ber-

wick as the Joyeuse Garde, the strong hold of the renowned Sir Lancelot. In the days of Froissart, the mountains of Cumberland were still called Wales; and he mentions Carlisle (so famous in romantic song) as a "city beloved of King Arthur." Even at this day, the Celtic traditions of the Border are not entirely obliterated, and we may, therefore, reasonably conclude, that in the middle of the 13th century they flourished in full vigour.

"If the reader casts his eye upon the map, he will see that Erceeldoune is situated on the borders of the ancient British kingdom of Strathelwyd; and I think we may be authorized to conclude, that in that country, Thomas the Rhymer collected the materials for his impressive tale of *Sir Tristram*. The story, although it had already penetrated into France, must have been preserved in a more pure and authentic state, by a people who, perhaps, had hardly ceased to speak the language of the hero."

Thus far there is only strong presumption; but fortunately there exist two fragments of a French metrical romance upon this subject, which corresponds accurately with the story as related by Thomas, and refers expressly to him as the best authority upon the subject. The proofs are too minute to be entered into by us, but they are conclusive: it follows that the first classical English romance was written in Scotland, and that our language received the first rudiments of improvement in the very corner where it now exists in its most debased state.

Mr. Ellis has shewn that the English language grew up as a kind of lingua franca between the Normans and the Saxons. This dialect had not assumed a shape fit for the purposes of the poet till the reign of Henry III., and even then it is probable that if any English poetry existed, it

* The vestiges of a huge ditch may be traced from the junction of the Gala and the Tweed, and running thence south-westward through the upper part of Roxburghshire, and into Liddesdale. It is called the Cat-Rael or Cat-rail, and has certainly been a landmark betwixt the Gothic invaders, who possessed the lower country, and the indigenous Celts, who were driven to the mountains. Tradition says, that it was dug to divide the Pights and Bretts, i. e. Picts and Britons.

† Of the former was Merdwin Wyllt, or Merlin the Savage, who inhabited the woods of Tweedale, and was buried at Drummelziar (*Tumulus Merlini*), near Peebles; also Anewria, who celebrates the bloody combat betwixt the north western Britons, and the Saxons of Deira. The men of Edinburgh, in particular, were all cut off; and it is more than probable, that the strong fortress of that city first yielded to the Saxons, from whom it was afterwards taken by the Scots and Picts, when united into one people. Lothian seems finally to have submitted to them about 970.

§ See Essay prefixed to *Poems from Maitland*, MS., by Mr. Pinkerton, p. lviii.: *Complaint of Scotland*, Introduction, p. 196. The editor met with a curious instance of what is stated in the text. Being told of a tradition of a hunter who raised a mighty boar, and pursued him, from his lair on the Yarrow, up to St. Mary's Lake, where he was slain, at a place called *Muichra*, he had the curiosity to examine the derivation of that name. It signifies in Gaelic, *the place of the boar*, and seems to attest the truth of the tradition. Indeed, most of the names of places in the south-west of Scotland are of British derivation, and are sometimes found to refer to popular traditions yet current, while the narrators are totally ignorant of the evidence thus offered to the truth of their story.

was only among the peasants and me-nials. But in the lowlands of Scotland its advances were more rapid.

"The Saxon kingdom of Bernicia was not limited by the Tweed, but extended, at least occasionally, as far northward as the Frith of Forth. The fertile plains of Berwickshire, and the Lothians, were inhabited by a race of Anglo-Saxons, whose language resembled that of the Belgic tribes whom they had conquered, and this blended speech continued, as it were, the original materials of the English tongue. Beyond the Friths of Forth and of Tay was the principal seat of the Picts, a Gothic tribe, if we can trust the best authorities, who spoke a dialect of the Teutonic, different from the Anglo-Saxon, and apparently more allied to the Belgic. This people falling under the dominion of the kings of Scots, the united forces of those nations wrenched from the Saxons, first, the province of the Lothians, finally that of Berwickshire, and even part of Northumberland itself. But, as the victors spoke a language similar to that of the vanquished, it is probable that no great alteration took place in that particular, the natives of the south-eastern border continuing to use the Anglo-Saxon, qualified by the Pictish dialect, and to bear the name of Angles. Hence many of our Scottish monarchs' charters are addressed—*Fidelibus suis Scottis et Anglis*, the latter being the inhabitants of Lothian and the Merse. See Macpherson's excellent *Notes on Winton*, vol. ii. p. 474, *Diplomata*, pp. 6, 8, *Independence*, Appendix 2d. The Scots, properly and restrictively, meant the northern Caledonians, who spoke Gaelic; but generally used, as in these charters, that name includes the Picts, with whom they were now united, and all inhabitants of Scotland north of the Friths of Clyde and Forth. In Strathclyde, and in the ancient Reged, the Britons were gradually blended with the Scoto-Angles of Lothian and Berwickshire, and adopted their language. Here, therefore, was a tract of country including all the south of Scotland, into which the French or romance language was never forcibly introduced. The oppression of the Norman monarchs, and the frequency of civil wars, drove, it is true, many of their nobility into exile in Scotland; and, upon other occasions, the auxiliary aid of these warlike strangers was invoked by our Scottish kings, to aid their restoration, or secure their precarious dominions. Twice within three years, namely, in 1094 and 1097, the forces of the Anglo-Normans aided Duncan and Edgar, the sons of Malcolm, to expel from the Scottish throne the usurper Donald Bain. In the war of the standard, most of David's men at arms are expressly stated to have been Normans, and the royal charters,* as well as the

names of our peerage and baronage, attest the Norman descent of many of our principal families. But these foreigners, though they brought with them talents, civil and military, which recommended them to the favour and protection of the Scottish monarchs, though they obtained large possessions and extensive privileges, were neither so numerous nor so powerful as to produce a change in the language of the country, even among persons of their own eminent rank. Accordingly, although French was doubtless understood at the court of Scotland, it seems never to have been spoken by her kings and nobles; the *Ingliš* remaining the ordinary language. But the succeeding influx of Norman barons, although they could not change the language of Scotland, introduced into it a variety of words from the romance, and gave it probably the same tinge of French, which it acquired in England at a later period. Thus the language, now called English, was formed under very different circumstances in England and Scotland; and, in the latter country, the Teutonic, its principal component part, was never banished from court, or confined to the use of the vulgar, as was unquestionably the case in the former."

While, therefore, the kings and nobles of England were amused by tales of chivalry composed in French, those which were chaunted in the court of Scotland must have been written originally in *Ingliš*. Our poets did not begin to translate the romance poems till about 1300; but Thomas of Erceledoune had then already flourished. The romances, entitled *Gawan* and *Golograse* and *Goloran of Galoway*, in all probability are of an earlier date; and Mr. Scott supposes that *Hornechild* is of border origin,—nay that it is the composition of Thomas of Erceledoune himself. We adduced sufficient arguments in our last year's volume, to prove that the romance is of northern growth; but though some Thomas is referred to in the French poem as the author, the style is too different from that of Sir Tristram, to warrant a supposition that it can have been the work of the same author. Nothing can be more rude than the one, or more elaborately artificial than the other.

In confirmation of this statement, which must be considered as a discovery in our literary history, and a very curious one, Mr. Scott produces the evidence given by Robert de Brunne, concerning the poetry of Thomas of Erceledoune and his countryman, or contemporary Kendale: he complains that they

* The famous charter of David I. addressed *Omni-bus fidelibus suis* *fecius regni sui, Francie, et Anglie, et Scottie, et Galicinnibus*, attests the variety of tribes who inhabited his do-

minions.

used such *quainto Inglis*, that those who repeated the story were unable to understand it, or to make it intelligible to their hearers. Above all, that the rhymes which they used were so complicated, that the *dicurs* were puzzled to recollect them; and of Sir Tristram, in particular, he avers, that he never heard a perfect *recital*, because of some one *couple* or stanza a part was always lost.

"Thus the testimony of the ancient historian, who was a contemporary of Thomas of Ercecloune, established at once the high reputation of his work, and the particular circumstances under which it was written. While the English minstrels had hardly ventured on the drudgery of translating the French romances; or, if they did so, were only listened to by the lowest of the people, our northern poets were writing original *gests* "for pride and noblege," in a high style and complicated stanza, which the southern harpers marred in repeating; and which their plebeian audience were unable to comprehend. In one word, the early romances of England were written in French; those of Scotland were written in English.

"If the editor has been successful in his statement, two points have been established; first, that the minstrels of the south of Scotland, living in or near the British tribes of Reged and Strathclywyd, became the natural depositaries of the treasures of Celtic tradition, esteemed so precious in the middle ages; secondly, that, from the peculiar circumstances under which the English language was formed in the Lowlands of Scotland, and north of England, it probably was more early fitted for the use of the poet in that country, than in the more southern parts of the sister kingdom, where it was so long confined to the use of the populace. Whoever shall be tempted to pursue this curious subject, will find that this system, if confirmed upon more minute investigation, may account for many anomalous peculiarities in

the history of English romance and minstrelsy. In particular, it will shew why the Northumbrians cultivated a species of music not known to the rest of England,* and why the harpers and minstrels of the "North Countree" are universally celebrated, by our ancient ballads, as of unrivalled excellence. If English, or a mixture of Saxon, Pictish, and Norman, became early the language of the Scottish court, to which great part of Northumberland was subjected, the minstrels who crowded their camps† must have used it in their songs. Thus, when the language began to gain ground in England, the northern minstrels, by whom it had already been long cultivated, were the best rehearsers of the poems already written, and the *troups* apt and ready composers of new tales and songs. It is probably owing to this circumstance, that almost all the ancient English minstrel ballads‡ bear marks of a northern origin, and are, in general, common to the borders of both kingdoms. By this system we may also account for the superiority of the early Scottish over the early English poets, excepting the unrivalled Chaucer. And, finally, to this we may ascribe the flow of romantic and poetical tradition, which has distinguished the borders of Scotland almost down to the present day."

We have followed the author through the whole of this discussion, because few of our readers will have an opportunity of seeing this very valuable volume, only 150 copies having been printed.

The present edition is published from the Auchinleck MSS. to which we are indebted for the preservation of so many romances. It is related by some one who pretends to tell the tale upon Thomas's authority.

"I was at [Ercecloune],
With Tomas spak Y there;
Ther herd Y rede in rounne,
Who Tristrem get and bare.

* "In borealibus quoque majoris Britanniae partibus, trans Humberum Eboracique strabus, Anglorum populi, qui partes illas inhabitant, simul canendo symphoniacae utuntur harmonia; binis tamen solummodo tonorum differentis, et vocum modulando varietatibus, una inferius, sub murmurante, altera vero superne, demulcente pariter et delectante. Nec arte tantum, sed usu longævo, et quasi in noturam mora diutina jam converso, hæc vel illa sibi gens hanc specialitatem comparavit. Qui adeo apud utramque invaluit, et altas jam radices posuit, ut nihil hic simpliciter, ubi multipliciter, ut apud priores, vel saltem dupliciter, ut apud sequentes, mellite proferri consueverit: pueris etiam, quod magis admirandum, et fere infantibus (eum primum a fletibus in cantum erumpunt) eandem modulationem observantibus." GERALD. CAMDEN. *Cambria Descriptio*, cap. xiii. The author adds, that, because the custom of singing in parts was peculiar to the northern English, he supposes it to be derived from the Danes or Scandinavians. But it is easily accounted for, if the border counties were in fact the cradle of English minstrelsy.

† Vide ALFRED de bello Standardi, ap. x. scrip. pp. 341, 342.

‡ That of John Dory (Ritson's *Ancient Songs*) is perhaps a solitary exception to the general rule. *Martin Swart and his Men*, if it could be recovered, might be another. Most of the ballads of *Robin Hood* are very modern. The more ancient, as the *Lytell Geste*, seem to have been written north of the Humber.

Who was king with crown ;
 And who him fosterd yare ;
 And who was bold baroun,
 As thair elders ware,
 Bi yere :—
 Tomas telles in toon,
 This auentours as thai ware."

There is a blank in the MSS. where the word *Erceldoune* is inserted, occasioned by cutting out the illumination: the rhyme and the context would have justified the insertion, but fortunately the whole line is written at the bottom of the preceding page by way of catch-word;—the word is there spelt *Erthel-doune*. The main difficulty, that the relator appears not to have been Thomas himself, is well removed by Mr. Scott. He concludes that some minstrel had learned from him as nearly as he could the history of sir Tristram; and from his recitation, or perhaps after it had passed through several hands, the compiler of the *Auchinleck MSS.* committed it to writing. The date of the MSS. cannot possibly be earlier than 1330, and does not seem to be much later: about four-score years therefore may have elapsed after the romance was composed, before the present transcript was made, and perhaps about half the time since the minstrel might have learned it. Many corruptions and alterations would unavoidably be introduced in so long an interval; accordingly the language does not differ essentially from *Barbour's*, who wrote a century later than the *Rhymer*; but the peculiarities pointed out by *Robert de Brunne* sufficiently identify it with Thomas's composition—that quaint English which was difficult to compose, and that peculiarity of stanza which no minstrel could recite without omitting some part of it. Old Robert did not complain without reason; no stanza can be more difficult: the 1st, 3d, 5th, and 7th lines rhyme together, the 2nd, 4th, 6th, 8th, and 10th, and lastly the 9th and 11th; so that three rhymes only are admitted in a stanza of eleven lines. If any earlier compositions could be found, equally intricate in their structure, we should be induced to agree to the hypothesis, that the Minstrels were the successors of the Scalds. The style of the poem is more extraordinary than the stanza. "There is an elliptical mode of narration adopted," says the editor, "which rather hints at, than details the story; and which, to make my meaning plain by a modern comparison, is the

Gibbonism of romance. Whoever attempts to make a prose translation of this poem will find that it is possible to paraphrase, but not literally to translate it."

This affectation of brevity renders all description, and all ornament, impossible; and frequently occasions a very unpleasant obscurity. The story is exceedingly beautiful. It begins with the birth of Tristram, or rather with the courtship of his mother, sister of king Mark of Cornwall, by Rouland Rise, lord of Ermonie; the father is treacherously killed in battle by duke Morgan; the mother dies in child-bed, bequeathing the infant to the care of Rohand, a trusty vassal. He educates Tristram, as he is called by inverting the name, as his own son, and makes him expert at minstrelsy, hawking, hunting, and all knightly games. When the youth is fifteen years of age, a ship from Norway arrives, freighted with hawks and treasure, and the captain challenges any person to play at chess for a stake of twenty shillings. Tristram accepts the challenge, and wins six hawks and a hundred pounds; but the Norwegian, to avoid paying what he has lost, treacherously sets sail, and carries Tristram to sea; a storm arrives; the sailors impute it to the judgment of heaven against the crime; they pay the youth his winnings, and set him ashore in an unknown country, which proves to be England. He determines to go to the court; and, on his way, falling in with a party of hunters, is scandalized at the clumsy manner in which they break up their venison, and instructs them scientifically. He is brought before king Mark, who, having heard the fame of this accomplishment, receives him kindly; he exhibits his skill upon the harp, and becomes a favourite. Rohand, meantime, sets out in search of him; traces him to Cornwall, and reveals to king Mark the secret of his birth, who acknowledges him as his nephew. Tristram resolves to revenge his father's death; his uncle knights him, and gives him a thousand men; he kills duke Morgan, and recovers the land of Ermonie, which he bestows as a fief upon Rohand, his fosterer.

On his return to Cornwall he finds the land in tribulation. Ireland had demanded tribute—three hundred pounds of gold, as many of coined silver, and as many of tin, and, every fourth year, three hundred children. The demand

was unjust. Tristram undertakes to defend the freedom of Cornwall; he answers Moraunt, the ambassador, in person, and they decide it by single combat. Tristram is wounded in the thigh, but he cleaves the head of his enemy; his sword breaks, and a piece of the blade remains in the skull. He is appointed heir to his uncle for this victory; but the weapon wherewith he had been wounded was poisoned. The wound becomes daily worse and worse; till at length the stench is so intolerable, that none except his faithful servant, Gouvernail, will come near him. He goes on board ship, with only this follower and his harp, and abandons himself to fortune.

The vessel is driven to Dublin: to the boats that come off he says, that he has been wounded by pirates, and that his name is Tramtris; for the slain Moraunt was brother to the queen of Ireland. The queen, hearing that a wounded man had arrived, and of his skill in minstrelsy, visits him. He astonishes every body by playing so well upon the harp, and by his proficiency at chess and tables; and the queen is so pleased, that she undertakes, and succeeds in his cure. He becomes, meantime, the instructor of the princess Ysonde. Being recovered, he returns to Caerleoun, and his description of Ysonde's beauty induces Mark to wish to obtain her to wife. The envious barons persuade him to send Tristram over to ask her in marriage, hoping that it would prove the means of his destruction. The knight points out the folly of the enterprise; but adds, that he will go. He sails to Dublin; and, without announcing his errand, sends presents to the king, queen, and princess. The messengers return with tidings, that a huge dragon is desolating the country; and that the princess has been offered as a reward to him who should slay the monster. How this dragon ventured to appear, or could exist upon St. Patrick's Island, is not explained. Tristram attacks him, kills him, and cuts out his tongue; he then loses his senses, having been poisoned by the monster's breath. The king's steward comes by, cuts off the dragon's head, claims the victory and princess. Ysonde and her mother not believing that he could have achieved this feat, go to the place of battle, and find Tristram. They restore him to his senses; he asserts his right to the victory; produces the dragon's tongue,

ANN. REV. VOL. III.

and offers to make good his claim upon the person of the steward, who wisely gives up the matter. They conduct him to a bath; Ysonde suspects that he is her former preceptor Tramtris, though he calls himself a merchant. In searching for something to confirm the suspicion, she finds his broken sword; immediately she compares it with the piece which had been taken out of Moraunt's skull, and thereby discovers that this stranger is the Tristram who slew her uncle. She attempts to kill him in the bath; her mother assists her, but the king comes opportunely in to save him: his excuse is admitted, that he had slain his antagonist in fair battle, and his embassy is heard and assented to. He pledges himself that king Mark shall marry Ysonde, and she is given in charge to him to escort her to Cornwall.

The queen gives to Brengwain, her daughter's favourite attendant, a powerful philtre, that Mark and his bride may partake of it on their marriage evening; it would then make them love each other so truly, that no disagreement between them could ever arise. Unwittingly, and unhappily, Tristram and Ysonde taste of the fatal cup upon their voyage, and the criminal intimacy which ensues, must be attributed to them, not as a sin, but as the inevitable effect of this irremediable spell. They arrive safely in Cornwall; the lady is married to the king, and substitutes Brengwain in her place on the wedding night. Fear makes Ysonde guilty; she feels that the dangerous secret has put her in Brengwain's power, and therefore commissions two ruffians to kill her; they spare her; the queen relents; her attendant forgives the intended murder, and they are perfectly reconciled.

Great part of the poem is now filled with the intrigues of Tristram and the queen, which are often detected and exposed by their enemies, the easy and uxorious king fully confiding in them the while, and admitting every excuse. At length, after a new detection, they are banished; they retire to a forest, and then, in a cavern which the giants had made in old times, pass twelve months, with no other company than their two hounds. We quote the description of their life here, and of their discovery by king Mark, as a specimen of the manner of the poem.

" In winter it was hate,
 In somer it was cold ;
 Thai hadden a dern gat,
 That thai po man told ;
 No hadde thai no wines wat,
 No ale that was old,
 No no gode mete thai at,
 Thai hadden al that thai wold.

With wille ;
 For love ich other bihalt,
 Her non might of other fille.

" Tristram on an hille stode,
 Ac he biforn hadde mett,
 He fonde a mele ful gode,
 Al white it was the grete ;
 Ther to Tristrem gode,
 And hende Ysonde the swete,
 That was al her fode,
 And wild flesche thai ate,
 And gras ;
 Swiche joie hadde thai never gete,
 Tvelmoneth thre woukes las.

" Tristrem on a day,
 Tok Hodain wel erly ;
 A best he tok to pray,
 Bi a dern sty ;
 He dight it withouten nay,
 And hom it brought an heighe ;
 Aslepe Ysonde lay ;
 Tristrem hem laid hir bi,
 The quen ;
 His swerd he drough titly,
 And laid it hem bituene.

" An hert Mark at ran,
 Opon that ilke day ;
 His hunters after wan,
 A path tho fouden thai ;
 Tristrem seighen hie than,
 And Ysonde, sothe to say ;
 Seighe thai never swiche man,
 No non so fair a may,
 With sight ;

Betuen hem ther lay,
 A drawn swerd wel bright.

" The hunters wenten right,
 And teld Mark bidene ;
 " The leuedi and the knight,
 Both Mark hath sene ;
 He knew hem wel bi sight,
 The swerd lay hem bituene ;
 A sonne hem ful bright,
 Schon opon the quene,
 At a bore ;

On her face so schene,
 And Mark rewed ther fore,

" His glove he put ther inne,
 The sonne to were away ;
 Wæthe Mark gan winne,
 Then seyde—" Welay,
 Gif thai weren in sinne,
 Nought so thai no lay,
 Lo how thai live atpinne ;
 Thai no hede nought of swiche play,
 Y wis ;"

The knightes seyden ay,
 —" For trewe love it is."

Once more reconciled to the king, they again betray his confidence, and are again surprised. Ysonde easily recovers her credulous husband's favour ; but Tristram, meantime, goes into foreign lands. He comes to the court of Brittany ; and, singing a lay there upon the beauty of the queen of Cornwall, the princess of Brittany, whose name happens to be Ysonde with the white hand, conceives that it had been made in her praise, and tells her father, who offers her in marriage to the knight. He, reflecting on his dangerous, as well as guilty passion for his uncle's wife, and partly also for her name's sake, accepts her ; they are married, but, in the bridal chamber, he drops the ring which his own Ysonde had given him ; the remembrance of his first love prevails, and the bride remains a virgin. This secret is discovered by her brother Ganhardin ; but Tristram wins his friendship by a faithful recital of the whole sad history, and he becomes enamoured of Brengwain ; they set out together for Cornwall, meet the ladies in a forest, and Ganhardin and Brengwain are betrothed to each other. Canados, king Mark's constable, who himself loved the queen, surprises them, and they are compelled by the number of their assailants to fly. Canados boasts at court that Tristram fled from him ; a tournament is appointed, in which sir Tristram slays him, and takes ample vengeance upon his enemies.

He goes back to Brittany, where he receives an arrow in his old wound ; here the MS. concludes, the remainder having been torn out. Mr. Scott has supplied the conclusion in the same very difficult style and stanza with extraordinary success, following the incidents in the French metrical romance, so that the story is as authentic as what precedes it. His wound becomes daily worse, and none but queen Ysonde can cure it. He sends Ganhardin to implore her help, bidding him on his return hoist a white sail or a black one, according as he has succeeded. His wife Ysonde overhears the conversation ; and thus, having discovered her husband's infidelity, resolves to be revenged. She watches for the ship's return, and, seeing the white sail, falsely tells her husband that it is black ; he believes that Ysonde had forsaken him ; his weak body cannot bear the shock, and he falls back and dies. The true Ysonde arrives, and meets an old

man, from whom she learns the death of her lover; she rushes to the castle where he is laid in state, throws herself beside the body, and expires for grief.

The incidents comprised in this poem form but a small part of the French *Sir Tristram*, one of the most beautiful, as well as of the oldest prose romances. It is very much to be wished that we had a full and faithful abridgment of this work, indeed, that the whole series of romances should be rendered into English, as *Amadis of Gaul* has been. A trans-

lation of the *Bibliothèque des Romans* would not answer the proposed end; not only the style, but the morals of the original, bad as those morals are, are vitiated by the French modernizers.

We have rarely or never seen a work so completely and admirably edited as the present. Mr. Ellis has given a very interesting abstract of the French fragments; and the notes, which are numerous, are such as the reader would expect from the well known taste and learning of the editor.

ART. II. *Lyric Poems.* By JAMES MERCER, Esq. Second Edition; with some additional Poems. 12mo. pp. 114.

IT is with great pleasure that we announce this new impression. Such is the merit of these poems, that their success affords, in our opinion, a most favourable symptom of the public taste. The poetical world has of late been so pampered with puffy and high-flavoured nothings, that we feared,

" Its relish grown callous, almost to disease,
Who pepper'd the highest was surest to please,"

and that the simple repast of reason and nature, however sweet and wholesome, would now have attracted few partakers. Here is an author, however, who, without either novel or obsolete expressions, compound words, inverted constructions, daring flights, or bold transitions, the snares of genius, and the refuge of dullness, at once delights and instructs, entertains the imagination, and touches the heart, by means of pure native English, pure native feeling, genuine taste, and lively fancy. "The author of these poems," says lord Glenbervie, who edits the volume, "is a gentleman who passed the early part of his life in the army, and has since lived chiefly in retirement." This information was scarcely necessary. The poems almost all refer to the life of the writer, and describe the motley train of passions, sentiments, and opinions, which successively take the lead in the progress from ardent youth, through active manhood, to serene old age. The buoyant spirit of a gallant soldier, accustomed to oppose and surmount the tide of adverse fortune, is every where conspicuous; and it is impossible not to love and admire the generous and sprightly veteran, who, after finishing his career of honourable activity, rests (not sinks) in the arms of equally honourable leisure; where, strenuously driving from

his heart the churlish winter of age, he strings again his lyre under the shade of his laurels, and sings the pleasures of youth and the comforts of declining life, neither chiding nor regretting the former, but grateful and satisfied with the latter. Long may this brave officer and amiable poet live to delight and adorn society, and may his life and his lines equally engage the imitation of posterity. Accept a taste, reader, to whet thy appetite for the feast.

" *The Saunterer.*

" Full of the dream of keen delight,
In youth a thousand toils we prove,
We climb ambition's fearful height,
And seek, thro' midnight gloom, the bow' of love.

But with the ensuing morn
The proffer'd bliss we scorn,
And throbs of new desire our rest annoy;
Distemper fires the veins,
The feverish thirst remains,
And passion's bitter dregs pollute the cup of joy.

" Then happier far, in life's decay,
If neither gout nor stone assail,
If conscience, at the close of day,
With angel visitation bid us hail;
When frantic hopes are past,
We taste repose at last,
And reap sincere delight from homely cheer;
For, by the mossy cell,
Where quiet loves to dwell,
The streams of comfort rise, and run for ever clear.

" Assembled round the social hearth,
When winter holds his rigid sway,
We share the fruits of temperate mirth,
Nor fail to charm the dreary hours away—
And O! the joy that streams
Amid the coming gleams,
When blossoms ope, and birds are on the wing;
What time by music led,
The garden path I tread,
And meet the balmy breath of renovating spring.

" But not to formal walks confin'd,
While yet the jocund seasons reign,
I leave the garden wall behind,
With all the green inclosures of the plain :
And sights, and sounds of joy,
My wand'ring steps decoy
Still farther on, in quest of something new ;
Till past the bushy rill,
I mount yon shelving hill,
Where distant spires are kenn'd, and ocean
rolls in view.

" There, as on rapture's dazzled eye,
The wonders of creation throng,
Devotion wakes, and wafts a sigh
To tracts beyond the limits of my song ;
Till, forc'd by growing heat,
I quit the lofty seat,
And hide me from the sun's meridian glare,
Down in some elfin nook,
Beside the pebbly brook,
Whose sound incessant brings forgetfulness
of care,

" Let sullen fools for ever hide—
At ev'n I gain the peopled road ;
Or, led by friendship, turn aside,
To greet my neighbour in his thatch'd
abode,
With him I pace the fields,
Learn what his harvest yields,
And see his children pass in playful drove ;
I know the urchins all—
On me by name they call,
And flatter wrinkled age with many a mark
of love.

" As thus my daily rounds I go,
Still some kind office breeds delay—
My mite with pleasure I bestow,
'To cheer the wand'ring beggar on his
way :
And should the buxom lass,
Of yonder hamlet pass,
Fresh, blooming, and of harmless favours
free ;
Safe from her roguish smile,
I hand her o'er the stile,
And pray that she may meet with livelier lads
than me."

" *To Folly.*

" Hail ! goddess of the vacant eye !
To whom my earliest vows were paid—
Whose prattle hush'd my infant cry,
As on thy lap, supinely laid,
I saw thee shake, in sportive mood,
Thy tinkling bells and antic hood.
" Enlisted in the school-boy band,
With thee from learning's porch I fled ;
And though the pedant's tyrant hand
Hung threat'ning o'er my flaxen head—
Long were my truant footsteps seen
In thy brisk gambols on the green.
" At length, with vast conceits inspir'd
I bade thee and thy sport adieu—
But when, with expectation fir'd,
I to the world's wide circle flew,
I look'd around, with simple stare,
And found thee in broad features there.
" There saw thee, high in regal seat,
Thy crowded clam'rous orgies hold ;
With bounding hands thy cymbals beat,
And full thy tawdry flag unfold—
Proud that thy motley liv'ries shone
On innumerable who begirt thy throne.
" Again in social league we join'd ;
Through fancied fields of bliss we straggled ;
A thousand wonders we design'd,
A thousand idle pranks we play'd :
Now grasp'd at glory's quiv'ring ray,
And now in Cloe's chains we lay.
" But, Folly, why prolong my verse,
To sing the laughter-loving age ?
And what avails it to rehearse
Thy triumphs on the youthful stage ?
Where Wisdom, if she claims a place,
Sits ever with an awkward grace !
" For now, ev'n now, in riper years,
Spite of thy many colour'd vest,
Oft I renounce my cautious fears,
And clasp thee to my thoughtless breast ;
Enough, that in Presumption's mien,
Beneath my roof thou ne'er art seen.
" That, as my harmless course I run,
With candid eyes the world I view—
And still with gen'rous pity shun
The moody, moping, serious crew ;
Since what they fondly, vainly prize,
Is ever, ever to be wise."

ART. III. *Poems, by CHARLES A. ELTON. 12mo.*

" WHEN midst the throng I muse in soli-
tude,
O my remember'd home ! thy scenes arise,
Featur'd with such distinctness, that I gaze
And lose the sense of vacancy : while
swarm
The busy crowds around me with deaf noise
Of clamour multitudinous, while smog
Dims the dense air, and with mephitic
gloom
Pollutes the heav'n, I breathe the vital breath
Of sea-born gales, and view the ascended
sun
Yellowing the mountain summits : O remote

And world secluded vale ! I seem to press
Thy soft untrodden herbage with light step
That scarce the dew betrays : I seem to rest
Among thy primrose banks and thymy beds
In fancy listening with abstracted ear,
The whisper of thy trees, and the faint
swell
Of waters echoing on thy rocky shores
With languid murmur : hour of liberty !
When with elated foot I gain'd the steep,
And felt th' exhilarating rush of winds,
And saw the landscape round emerging full
On my cheer'd gaze : the wavy hills
In bounding prospect ; here the sunset

There the green vale, that like a silent lake
With gentle uplands border'd winds re-
mote;

And cots and woods and wood-embosom'd
spires,

That at unmeasur'd distance faintly gleam
In the slant sun-blaze : while thro' moun-
tain-breaks

Starts the bright sea with all its azure isles !
Thus have I linger'd out the silent day
Till evening's dews have warn'd my footstep
home :

And o'er the rippling seawave have I hung,
Whose murmurings lull'd me to forgetful-
ness ;

Or from some moss-grown clift, where the
wild ash

Protrudes its hoary shade, have heard the
voice

Of labour, swelling soften'd from the dale ;
And the far low of wand'ring herds, and near
The wood-notes of a thousand choristers

Beguiling solitude : yet I have wish'd
That solitude less lonely ; and full oft
Midst the still fantasies of wayward thought,
Thy form, endearing maiden ! would sur-
prise

My cheated fancy ; thy delighting smile
Dawn on remembrance ; O ! and I have felt
Thy unseen presence in the lonesome wild !—
Were it not sweet, beloved ! thus to stray
With him thou singlest from the race of
men :

The while the pleasing burthen of thine arm
Repos'd on his, and in sweet interchange
Of love-impassion'd eyes and gentle smiles,
We felt each pause of silence eloquent ?—
Witness the painful void, that thro' long
years

Ach'd in the lone recesses of my breast,
How have I lov'd thee, WOMAN ? I have
gas'd

On some more favour'd youth, rich in the
gem

Of female worthiness, till sick at heart
Somewhat like envy with repining hue
Sadden'd my features ; now before high
heav'n,

Grateful I bend with praisegiving and joy :
And tho' awhile debarr'd the full delight
Of love's communion pure, yet warm in hope

My soul anticipates the promis'd hour
Haply not distant, when in freedom's vale
Some love sequester'd cot shall sacred rise
To independence : where by distance lull'd
The surge melodious beats, that never wafts
Obtrusive greatness to our quiet cell :
And shades, where turtles blend their mur-
mur'd loves,

Screen the low roof of blest equality !

" O thou departing sun !—thy ling'ring orb
Ne'er yet declin'd with such reluctant speed !
Shine forth, thou bashful harbinger of joy !
Planet of love ! pure emblem of the maid !
In singleness of beauty glimm'ring bright
From forth the crimson chambers of the
west,

Dawn, star of eve ! whose unobtruding ray
But serves to shew the rapture-swimming
glance,

The blush consenting, and the yielding smile !
And thou, the minstrel erst of Eden's groves,
Thou thrilling-soft yet sprightly nightin-
gale,

Trill from the bough whereon thou lov'st to
perch

A hymeneal strain, and glad prolong
Thy trembling wild of harplike melody !
Speed it, O Fortune ! speed the promis'd
hour !"

If these poems be the production of a
young man, they promise much : he is in
the right way.

Mr. Elton mistakes the character of
the sonnet, or he would not split it into
stanzas. It is not necessary to follow
the stiff Italian model ; but unity and
continuity should be preserved. The
first quatrain of the following is awk-
wardly expressed ; but the sonnet is
striking and original.

" While on thy snowy breast dissolv'd I lay
In pleasure's languid trance, a sudden
wound

Transfix'd me ; that with horror-struck dis-
may

The pleasing lethargies of love unbound.

" Then saw I where remorse beside me
crept

With'ring the flow'ry bed with pois'nous
breath ;

And starting forth, some bitter tears I wept,
Then smil'd—as rescued from the swoon
of death !—

" The vows that late ensnar'd my soul are
vain,

And vain the graces of thy vernal youth :
Led by repentance meek to virtue's fane,

On her chaste altars, melting yet with
ruth,

I sacrifice thy sad forsaken heart,
Tho' mine, bear witness God ! hath bled
to part !"

The love of literature has reached our
army, and we sincerely rejoice at so aus-
picious a change. It may seem para-
doxical to affirm, that a military life is
favourable to literary pursuits ; yet so it
will be found for all that do not require
the use of extensive libraries. Neither
lawyer, nor physician, nor divine, in this
age of farming, has so much leisure as
the army-officer, when in England or in
garrison. And, if on active service a-
broad, he may either, like major Doyle
and captain Percival, describe the coun-
tries which he has visited ; or, like sir
Robert Wilson, become the historian of
the war in which he has borne his part.

ART. IV. *Poem.* By THOMAS BROWN, M. D. 2 vols. 12mo.

NEXT to the pleasure of bestowing on genius the well-earned meed of warm and hearty commendation, we critics taste no satisfaction equal to that of consigning a dunce to eternal oblivion. In both these cases, we follow the strong impulse of feeling, and are little apprehensive that the justice of our sentence should be arraigned by the world at large.

But, in the republic of letters, as in general society, we meet with a number of *mixed characters*, in whom virtues and vices, beauties and deformities, are so perplexingly blended, that it is impossible to dwell on either with the serenity of fixed decision. We praise with reluctance, we blame with regret, we hesitate, we qualify, and, after a tedious display of caution and candour, leave our readers at last wearied and embarrassed, dissatisfied, they know not why, with us, the author, and themselves. The poems before us unfortunately come under the perplexing class we have described. This is partly owing to their subject; almost all are purely sentimental, and concerning sentiments and tastes, who shall dispute? or rather, who shall determine? Sometimes we listen with emotion to a strain of refined tenderness, or manly piety; then a trill of dainty affectation grates upon our feelings worse than discord; then again we lose all time and tune, and measure, in hopeless inextricable confusion, which aims at science and execution, and we know not what. Perhaps we cannot describe the poems of Dr. Brown more justly, than as the works of a man of science, of reading, of refinement, of the most liberal sentiments, and amiable feelings, whose genius, however, is neither vigorous nor lively, whose judgment wants clear-sightedness, to distinguish between sentimental elegance and metaphysical subtlety, and whose taste is perverted by that tumid affectation, which substitutes extravagance for energy, and strangeness of expression for originality of conception.

In nothing has Dr. Brown more sinned against grammar, good sense, and that respect for language, which ought to be preserved by every man of taste and learning, however it may be violated by the illiterate mob of modern versifiers, than in his licentious use of compound words. Respecting the formation of

these, it may be difficult to lay down absolute rules; but we apprehend that no one can analyze, without condemning, the following, and many others of a similar kind, none of which, probably, our author would have dreamt for a moment of employing in prose. "Glance-dew, self-shaped, pain-pursued, glittering-vested, pageant-gleam, art-mingled, ponderous-held, carnage-plain, darkly-clotted, favouring-willed, happier-breathed, victor-combat, death-plumed, damp-chilled, death-dark, death-weight, murder-flood, battle-sod, tempest-arm, war-heart, blood-step, anguish-quiverings, night-unhallowed."

We cannot compliment Dr. Brown on the smoothness of his numbers, or the appropriateness and harmony of the measures that he has chosen to adopt. The double rhyme with which he has lengthened out every other line of his elegies, gives them an air of burlesque: of the effect of the strange novelty introduced into the measure of several of his sonnets and small pieces, we shall enable our readers to judge, by the following lines, which will also serve to show that we do not charge him unjustly with turgidity and affectation.

"To the Spirit of Music.

"Wake me not with bliss I cannot name,
Wake me not, to passions thus unknown!
Say, But O! how sweet that stranger tone!
Say, what happier realms its language claim!
Com'st thou from those moon-shine shades
so dear,
Love's still shades, where only murmurs
rise,
And, when joy o'erpowers the whispering
eyes,
Speak faint words, which but the heart can
hear;
Or, where far, in memory's sunless isle,
Echoes only live of raptures past,
And, each mingled cadence wildly cast,
Half with thought the doubtful soul be-
guile!—
No!—A wanderer thou, from native hea-
ven.—
Truths, of holiest power, thou sing'st a-
round.
Angels hear, and learn,—To us the sound,
Dark, but O how sweet, alone is given."

With more pleasure we quote a tender passage from an epistle to a lady in America, the promised bride of a deceased brother, which may give an idea of the best manner of our author, and

evince that, if he will resign the ambitious desire to "elevate and surprize," he may securely hope to please, and to affect.

"No bands of natal joy our hearts enwreath'd;

No sire, our names in one warm blessing breath'd,

Led our light steps, thro' childhood's fairy bowers;

But kindred wishes, kindred griefs, were ours.

For one lov'd breast, with sweet rewarding care,

Rose soft to heaven our distant-mingled prayer:

For him—ah torn from every love below!—

We bend, in darker sympathy of woe.

O! had the wisdom, of unerring thought,

Heard all that love, with human frailty, sought,

And, pausing from the stroke of mortal fate,

To joys, to virtues, given a longer date;

These hands, thy worth how eager to avow,

Had twin'd a gayer garland for thy brow.

How gladly would my heart, when grief oppressed,

In living dreams, have sought thy scenes of rest,

Have shar'd the cares of love, the light employ,

The simple pleasures of thy home of joy!

Yet not alone her flowers, of gayer bloom,

Affection twines: she seeks, and lights, the gloom.

Warm'd by her touch, the hearts, that silent bear

Their lonely woe, and muse, but to despair,

More softly mingling, rise their griefs above;

And even the cypress is the gift of love.

"Sweet sorrow! if my verse, in tones less deep,
Should, idly soothing, bid thee cease to weep,
Should calmly teach, that every tear which flow'd,
Contemn'd his will, whose will is joy bestow'd;

"Dione.

"O! may I learn in truth and time to rise
Simple in lays, and innocently wise;
Still reason lives, reason, philosophy,
Melibee, and Thyrsæ, nature by.
And love, and grief, and sorrow, are our course,
Led and propell'd by a superior force.

That he, who in thy love's luxuriance dwelt,
Whose parting pang thy griefs, thy fondness, felt,

Trod, with ethereal foot, the dark abyss,
Tho' snatch'd from blessings, snatch'd to higher bliss:

To each chill tone, tho' even thy warmth of youth

Might list subdued, and, sighing, own its truth,

Yet would thy shrinking spirit scorn the strain,

And even the heart, which breath'd it own in vain.

The powers, which humble meekness taught to pause,

The gentle virtues, bashful of applause,

Love, in thy breast which all its raptures set—

Who, who shall bid thee feel them, and forget!

No! hearts like thine when warmer feelings ope,

The passion fades not, with the breath of hope:

No more with light the waking moments bloom,

But dreams can fill the slumbers of the gloom.

The dazzled eye, which mark'd the rapture sink,

May see no radiance lingering on the brink:

But all shall not be darkness; time will shed
The beams of brightest twilight round thy head:

In each warm tear, 'twere anguish to dismiss,

Each mild regret, that half recalls the bliss;

Even while thy sickening spirit shuns relief,
Shall memory lose the bitterness of grief.

Thoughts of sweet tint thy musings shall employ,

Which sprung from sorrow, are a softer joy;

That calm, which o'er the mind ethereal-cast,

Sheds on the present all the tender past,

And, mingling with the hopes of holier birth,
That gentler, dearer flame, which burn'd on earth,

More ardent lifts our soul to climes above,
The blissful dwellings of the saints we love!"

Sympathy, light, and light, eternal Jove:
Jove! the great god, and donor of our ways,
If philosophic, or poetic lays;
If partial, general, or social ties,
And nights alternate still proclaim our woes.

"Thyrsæ.

"Reason with us in more familiar part.

"Dione.

"To swains discordant, Oh! my well-meant heart.

Nor school-taught pride now doth improve my lays,

Nor jamper'd learning's artificial bays.

"Thyrse.

"Can'st thou proceed in more familiar sense?

"Dione.

"Whence live creative of non-competence?

Say, whence we shepherds timely thus for
thought,

Taught to shun ignorance by idle thought,
And social power by incompetence?

"Melikee.

"Art just Dion' in every word and sense?

"Dione.

"Adherent words grow just in competence.

"Thyrse.

"Thine is propensive, and peculiar those.

"Dione.

"Nor dare such properties coherent foes;
Say, why the day more baneful than the
night?

Why should design forsake perceptive light?

"Thyrse.

"Proceed familiar, competent, and free,
Social extended influence to be.

"Dione.

"Influence and sympathy still condescend,
Then force thy path, for instinct has no end;
Still let's maintain our elevated strength;
And still admire the shepherd's simple
length."

The prose is as wild as the verse; and that every thing in the book may be *coherent*, (to use the author's favourite word), it contains several prefaces, which are always placed after the foregoing pastoral to which they refer. We will preserve a passage from one of these posterior prefaces.

"If you think I have made too free with my gods; if I have introduced them where they ought not to be introduced; if I have given them that which should not have been

ART. VI. *The Poet's Day, or Imagination's Ramble, a Poem, in four Books; with an Essay on Britain; its Religion, Laws, and Liberties.* By E. WARREN. 12mo. pp. 158.

A STORM comes on apace, the heavens
grow black,
And shifting winds, converging, coalesce
Their bell'wing rage, and from one common
point
Pour their whole fury forth.

Many extraordinary coalitions we have seen, and many more we shall see, but never a more extraordinary one than this which Mr. Warren has brought about. It must have puzzled the sailors terribly!—all the two and thirty points

ART. VII. *Cupid turned Volunteer, in a series of coloured Prints, engraved by Gardiner, with poetical Illustrations, by PARK.* 4to.

THE mutability of fortune was never more strikingly exemplified than in the

given to them; if insinuation, adulation, or assumption, has taken place; then I am lost, and can speak to my gods as to my brothers; and this circumstance least of all; for it will tend to discourage instead of encourage, and all knowledge of nature and myself is dead; then in her participation has this instinctive mistress led me. Her qualities are not the qualities I imagined they were; her powers are not original; her participations are unjust; her motions are not uniform; her actions are mere deviations; her instinct is irregular and unavailing; and her sympathy is non-co-operative. Prove one of these instances, and all parts and powers are utterly abolished. Man is no longer man; reason, reason; or philosophy, philosophy. Nature is lost, and sympathy dead, and I am an atom deviating in the general course of nature; have formed artificial instead of instinctive and co-operative verse; and, like many other non-instinctive diminutives, must fall. But, no, I will maintain that this is not the present case; for, I wrote from a power, and an exciting propensity in nature, matter, and form, a power compelling, perceptible, and instinctive, and gravitating towards its centre; not with a view of gaining manly or worldly esteem, but the esteem of humanity; not to gain, by insinuation, the favour of my gods. Although this sympathetic and uniform power is theirs, I have this participating and co-operative essence in my own bosom, as warm as imagination ever put forth its glance in a truly good man, formed naturally feeling, and philosophically wise, I see its immediate power, and I feel it—a propelling virtuous property. It is this property that I esteem; take it from my gods, and I would turn indignant on them."

The author's mode of associating ideas, or rather of doing altogether without ideas, would puzzle a metaphysician;—to a physician his case is clear.

got into one corner! We beg leave to offer a verbal criticism here: Mr. Warren calls this corner a *common point*; now in our opinion it was a very uncommon one.

Is this gentleman of the sister kingdom? He has entitled one of the parts of his poem *Midnight*, or the *Day of Judgment*. We are the more inclined to suspect this, as he has the art of *prosing* in verse.

revolution which overthrew the heathen gods and goddesses, and the subsequent

vicissitudes to which they have, in consequence, been exposed. They were reduced to great distress in the war with the giants; but since the saints have ejected them, and reigned in their stead, the shifts to which they have been driven are pitiful indeed. At this present time, however, the venerable emigrants, with a few exceptions, seem to be comfortably settled, tho'

" Fallen fallen fallen
Fallen from their high estate."

Jupiter has found a faithful and zealous friend in Thomas Taylor, and Esculapius also has had a cock sacrificed to him in one of our provincial cities. Minerva has been taken into keeping by Mr. Lane of Leadenhall-street; her character has indeed, in some degree, suffered by the connection, but her devotees are numerous, and she consoles herself with her partner for the loss of her owl. Apollo, in like manner, took to loose courses, opened tea gardens in St. George's Fields, and was driven out by the magistrates. What is become of him since none of the poets can tell; but his oracle still continues its old trade of selling its voice, and deceiving the people. Neptune left the ocean to be taken care of by the British navy, and set up a newspaper. Mars and Hercules, on the contrary, both went to sea; one entered the English, and the other the French service; and Mars having been wise enough to choose the right side, took Hercules prisoner. Vulcan has been very fortunate: unlike all other adventurers who want to make a fortune, he crossed the Tweed into Scotland, where he still has his altar, and continues his trade. Mercury has long been invoked in secret, and can boast of votaries of all ranks. Every body knows how Venus has been vilified since the physicians put a crown of shame upon her head. Mr. Barry has now made her amends, and exhibited her in diviner loveliness than ever deserved the admiration of Greece. Bacchus has led a jolly life; is free of both universities; he is courted at elections, being of no party, and at all times has the honour of keeping the very highest company. Ate was for a time one of our cabinet council. The Furies too, after they had been driven out of France, were taken into pay here, and let loose in Ireland. Since the administration of lord Cornwallis they have not been heard of; but there is good reason to believe that they will, ere long, find employment in the sugar

islands. Nemesis, having taken care of governor Wall, is now busy in looking after the emperor Napoleon: and where is Cupid? Gentle reader, Cupid is turned volunteer! and being a volunteer, Cupid is come to be reviewed.

According to this true history, it appears that Cupid, finding all the other young gentlemen in the kingdom were going to *play at soldiers*, was determined that he would no longer play at *blind-man's-buff*. He therefore took the bandage from his eyes, and went to ask leave of Minerva that he might become a volunteer: the reader may wonder perhaps why Minerva's consent should be necessary. She was sitting upon an extraordinary kind of seat when he approached; the base resembles one of the great tombs, which would be square if they were not too long; raised upon two steps, but from the second step to the top of the pedestal, certainly appears to be a longer stride than the goddess could with any decorum take. On the further end of the pedestal she was seated upon a stone seat of the same form, to which a column served as a back, and a very inconvenient one it must needs be. A heart stands on its point, upon the summit of this column; and from the heart a fire ascends, separating into two flames. A flag is suspended about half way up the column: we do not very well know why; neither can we very well tell how. She wore a helmet, and had a spear in her hand, and her dress was certainly too thin to be either comfortable or wholesome in this cold climate. Cupid is stark naked. It is plain that the Philanthropic Society knew nothing of his condition; nor the worthy gentlemen who have associated for the suppression of vice and immorality.

Having obtained Minerva's leave, Cupid wraps up his bow and arrows in the British standard to hide them, taking it for granted that the standard will not be displayed. Whether he is going to place it upon a block of wood, which very much resembles the butchers' blocks in Clare Market, we do not know, but such a block is standing by him, and an hour-glass upon it, the meaning whereof hath not been expounded by Mr. Park. He then assumes his firelock, advances to the altar of loyalty, where a great many sacrifices have been offered of late years, and there takes the oath of allegiance; next he surveys the target, and the poet shall tell his success.

"Right through the mark his bullet flies :
 So may it speed 'gainst all who dare
 Th' invader's ruffian-hazard share,
 To snatch a felon-prize !
 So shall it speed, if freedom's race,
 Be to their king and country true ;
 And each deluded Gaul shall rue
 The day he felt the fraterniz'd embrace,
 The bitter hour he was enforced away
 From her who clasp'd him with connubial
 arms,
 From all domestic life's endearing charms,
 And a sad conscript, looking fiercely gay,
 Compell'd as vassal to a despot lord,
 To bleed for him his soul abhorrd,—
 Whelm'd by defeat in a reproachful grave,
 Or train'd by conquest to be more a slave."

And now Cupid has the honour of presenting colours before the king ; not the king in person, but his head in marble : but we humbly submit to Mr. Wilberforce, and the author of *Munimenta Antiqua*, whether this offering to a graven image savoureth not of idolatry ? There is more reason to suspect this, inasmuch as immediately afterwards he is found beating the drum and dancing, both parts of such idolatrous ceremonies. While Cupid is thus employed, we are concerned to perceive, that one of his little brothers has climbed up to the top of a truncated column ; and is sitting there without considering, that should he fall, he must be in great danger of breaking his neck.

What follows is prophecy ; the painter and the poet both foresaw, that if Cupid should be called out upon actual service, very unpleasant consequences might result,—he might have been placed under the command of colonel P. who is known to have a personal dislike to him ; or he might have been frightened at the sight of the great Raw-head-and-bloody-bones, who, the Form of Prayer says, is determined to swallow us up quick ; or, peradventure, Cupid might have fallen in battle, to the irreparable injury of all song writers and sonnetteers. All these mischiefs are prudently prevented by these designs of genius, loyalty, and patriotism, as Mr. Park denominates them.

The dove brings back his arrows, with an olive branch ; and thus the poet concludes Cupid's campaigns.

"Love leaps with rapture at the joyous sound—

The fane of Pallas hears his footsteps bound,
 For there Augusta's flag triumphantly he bears ;

But ere again at amorous hearts,
 He points his dove-plum'd darts,
 Thus warmly breathes his patriotic prayers :—

Goddess ! renown'd for wisdom as for war,

Be Albion's manly race your darling care ;

And let that sea-green band which Neptune wove,

To swathe in infancy his favourite isle,
 Be still its bloodless girdle, and pure love
 Draw from approving heav'n a skyey smile !

So through each nereid's pearly cave
 While echo floats upon the listening wave,

Still may resound that charter'd strain
 Which hails Britannia, empress of the main !

Still may her sons be fam'd through every clime

For deeds of spotless faith, and dauntless soul sublime !"

In this important history we must notice some censurable omissions. It is not mentioned to what corps Cupid belonged : perhaps this may have been designedly omitted, lest the gentlemen who served with him should be called Cupid's Company. Neither is his uniform described : now every volunteer knows that the uniform is a thing of the first importance.

The designs are very prettily executed ; and the poetical illustrations not unworthy of Mr. Park, a gentleman of unassuming talents, and great erudition in English literature. The subject, however, tempts us to suggest, as a suitable motto, the lines of the song :

"Little Cupid
 Why so stupid ?"

ART. VIII. *The Lewes Library Society ; a Poem.* By JOHN BUTTON, Jun. of the classical and commercial Academy, Cliffe, Lewes. 4to. pp. 22.

IN the year 1786, the design was put in execution of establishing at Lewes a subscription library : it began with only nine members, who deposited half-a-crown each, and agreed to a monthly subscription of one shilling. Thus, trifling in its commencement, the library

has been since so well supported, that at present it contains 1600 volumes. To celebrate the founders of this library, and the volumes which adorn its shelves, is the object of this little poem, which is written in easy and not inharmonious verse.

ART. IX. *Original Poems*, by THOMAS GREEN FESSENDEN, A. M. 12mo. pp. 198.

MR. Thomas Green Fessenden, A. M. of some American university we suppose, is puffer extraordinary to Mr. Perkins, the tractorist; for in our days quacks of every description puff in verse. Dr. Senate has an occasional laureat, and Mr. Packwood keeps a poet. But, saving and excepting the laudable purpose of puffing Mr. Perkins, we were at a loss to conjecture why these American poems should be published in England, relating as they do wholly to American manners, and American party politics. On examination, we discovered a very weighty reason. Mr. Fessenden wants a king in America, abuses all persons who differ from him in opinion, and calls one of the members of congress, whom he names at full length, *an infamous scoundrel*. Mr. Fessenden very prudently prints on this side the Atlantic.

Of the manner of these poems, an extract from the Rustic Rout may suffice as a specimen: the characters described are said to be taken from the life.

"Put us down the squire and lawyer,
Nancy Tubbs and Betty Sawyer;
Jenny Jinks is somewhat brown,
Joe, her brother, quite a clown;
True, but this one thing I'd speak on,
Their good father is a deacon;
And, if we should leave them out,
Pious deacon would, no doubt,
Beat it into many a thick-head
That our junketing is wicked;
Make in parish deal of rumpus,
People vexed enough to thump us.

"Lest we have a scanty ball
Put down marri'd folks and all.
Peter Grievous, and his black wife,
Though they have both had the jack-knife,*
Still are rich, and cut a dash,
Put them down, for they have cash.

"Dicky Dapper, lady's man,
Must be noted in our plan,
Though his brains won't fill a thimble,
Dicky Dapper dances nimble.

"Betty Bilbo too, the heiress,
Though her homely phiz might scare us,
Many a lad would fain get round her,
For she is a thousand pounder.

"Matters now adjusted right,
Let us dance this very night;
Send for Sambo with his fiddle,
Tiddle diddle, tiddle diddle,
Speak to landlord, and his lady,
Bid them make the ball-room ready,
Stores of punch, of wine, and brandy,
Cake and cheese must all be handy;
Seize the moment ere it passes.
Lads send billets to your lasses;
Almost time we should begin it,
Tackle chaise in half a minute.
Polly, prettiest of a million,
Ride behind me on a pillion;
Powder'd beaus, and inaccaronies,
Fops too proud to ride on ponies;
Lawyers grand, and judges bulkey,
Ride with honey in a sulkey.
Now assembled at the hall,
Let us caper, one and all;
Squire, to top, I wish you'd trudge up,
Call a dance to ope the fudge up.
Lads and lasses take your places;
Holo, fiddler! play the "Graces!"
Right and left, chasée at top—
Wrong below there, stop! stop! stop!
Balance Dick, then down in middle,
Deuce is in that fellow's fiddle.
Sure Miss Airy dances topping,
Lighter than a cricket hopping;
Sally Squad, as round as bumpkin,
Capers cuts with Betty Bumpkin;
Balance Joe, to Lucy Wiggle,
Pho! you're wrong, all higgle-piggle!
Now you're right, and keep it going,
Tim, you dance like man a mowing,
Graceless as a colt a prancing,
Can't you stand up when you're dancing?
Sammy Snider trots like thunder,
Sure he'll split the floor asunder;
See his partner pull and haul him,
Out of patience, I could maul him!
Well, the fam'd Egyptian camel
Dances much like our friend Samu'li!"

So much for the manner: the matter
is for the most part very *malignant pus*.

ART. X. *The Powers of Genius; a Poem, in three Parts*. By JOHN BLAIR LYNN, A. M. 8vo. pp. 155.

A POEM without any power of genius:—*lucus, a non lucendo*.

* In America they have a custom of presenting a person who has an ugly appearance with a jack-knife. The donee, in such case, preserves the present, till he can find some one whose phiz, in his opinion, gives him a superior claim to the favour.

ART. XI. *An Ode, in celebration of the Emancipation of the Blacks of Saint Domingo, November 29, 1803; by THOMAS CLIO RICKMAN.* 4to. pp. 12.

THE imprimatur of Capel Lofft is affixed to this poem, with the following eulogium. 'A subject more suitable for an ode in its novelty, its greatness, and the just and generous emotions which it inspires, can hardly be conceived. And in this poem the freedom, spirit, and variety of its numbers, its diction and sentiments, I trust will appear to others as they do to me, not unworthy of the subject.'

In his opinion of the subject Mr. Lofft is perfectly right; let the poetry which he has pronounced not unworthy of it, speak for itself.

"A trade that long has curs'd the christian name,
And damn'd the white-men (only white of skin)

At length must fall.—But who, alas! can claim
The merit of one head struck from this hydra sir?

ART. XII. *The Poetical Register, and Repository of Fugitive Poetry, for 1803.* 8vo. pp. 468.

THE "original" part of this volume possesses, we think, less merit than that of the last volume; the selected, we might perhaps say *pilfered* part, contains several pieces of superior excellence. It is not our business to enter into questions of copy-right, but it is our business to apprise the purchasers of the Monthly Magazine, that they already possess a very large portion of the best matter contained in this collection, the editor of which has acknowledged his obligations neither to it nor to any other publication. Among original contributors the names of Preston, Swift, Boyd, Davenport, and Park, occur most frequently; and we believe the public will allow that to these no very large share of poetical celebrity is attached. Miss Pearson has communicated a very elegant version of the first canto of *Vertvert*; Mr. Maurice two small pieces. We select one of the liveliest and one of the most elegant trifles contained in this portion of the work.

"Yes, false one, triumph in my woes,
And joy these flowing tears to view!
How just to wound that heart's repose
That gladly would have bled for you!

"Yet, poor the pleasure thou hast gain'd,
And very soon will it be o'er;

No learn'd accomplish'd European pow'r,
Refined and christian, high in boast and pride,
At last produced this most important hour.

No! these would still have stopp'd bright freedom's tide;

And, loving darkness rather than the day,
Regret and sorrow at the event betray.

Its was whilst one of these, bearing too hard

On mankind's comforts, lost mankind's regard,

Fell as it ought,—and an insulted race
Swept from the earth its system of disgrace;

It was 'mid this that freedom found its way,

To black-men's lands, and gave this glorious day!—

This day of joy, when black-men shout
"we're free!"

And the full tone resounds to every land and sea."

That bosom, where thou long hast reign'd,
Shall fondly throb for thee no more.

"Nor vainly think my tears, my sighs,
Love's still unvanquish'd power proclaim:
Each drop that trickles from my eyes
But helps to quench his dying flame."

R. A. D.

"EPIGRAM,

By Theophilus Swift, Esq.

"The rooted aversion entertained by the late Judge Robinson, of the king's bench, in Ireland, to the volunteers of that country, in the year 1780, is well known. The following Epigram was occasioned by a circumstance that actually took place about that period, in the court where he was then sitting.

"That soldier so rude—he that swaggers in scarlet—

"Put him out of the court—I'll imprison the varlet,"

As in judgment he sat, frowning Robinson said:

"A soldier I'm not," quoth the hero in red;

"No soldier, my lord, but an officer I,

"A captain who carries his sword on his thigh."

Stern Robinson then, with sarcastical sneer,
Roll'd his sharp eagle eye on the vain

lunteeer,
And "Tipstaff," he cried, as the captain grew bolder,

"Out, out, with that officer who is no soldier."

The author of "Sir Roland," mistakes in speaking of "the Sir Bertrand of Mrs. Barbauld;" that fragment is by Dr. Aikin. The strange expression, "*from hence to whence*," was what surprised us most in the strange tale of Sir Archibald. Among the "fugitive poetry" we were struck with a solemn "*memento mori*," eminently worthy of the grave and vigorous mind of its admirable author.

"EPITAPH,

Sacred to the Memory of

CLUER DICEY,

Who died the 3d of October, 1775, aged 60.

"O! Thou, or friend or stranger, who shalt tread

These solemn mansions of the silent dead,
Think, when this record to enquiring eyes
No more shall tell the spot where Dicey lies;

When this frail marble, faithless to its trust,
Mould'ring itself, resigns his moulder'd dust;
When time shall fail, and nature feel decay,
And earth, and sun, and skies, dissolve away;
The soul this consummation shall survive,
Defy the wreck, and but begin to live:
Oh, pause! reflect, repent, resolve, amend!
Life has no length—eternity no end."

HANNAH MORE.

Two or three small poems, besides a very fine one copied from the Monthly Magazine, bear the signature of our favourite Alceus; with one of these, and a beautiful ode by the author of "English Lyrics," we shall close our extracts.

"At fond sixteen, my roving heart
Was pierced by Love's delightful dart:
Keen transport throbb'd in every vein—
I never felt so sweet a pain!

Where circling woods embower'd the glade,
I met the dear romantic maid:
I stole her hand—it shrunk—but, no!
I would not let my captive go.

With all the fervency of youth,
While passion told the tale of truth,
I mark'd my Hannah's downcast eye:
'Twas kind, but beautifully shy.

Not with a warmer, purer ray,
The sun enamour'd woos young May;
Nor May, with softer maiden grace,
Turns from the sun her blushing face.

But, swifter than the frightened dove,
Fled the gay morning of my love;
Ah! that so bright a morn, so soon
Should vanish in so dark a noon!

The angel of affliction rose,
And in his train a thousand woes;
He pour'd his vial on my head,
And all the heaven of rapture fled.

Yet, in the glory of my pride,
I stood—and all his wrath defied;
I stood—though whirlwinds shook my brain,
And lightning cleft my soul in twain.

I shunn'd my nymph; yet knew not why
I durst not meet her gentle eye:
I shunn'd her—for I could not hear
To marry her to my despair.

Yet sick at heart, with hope delay'd,
Oft the dear image of that maid
Glanc'd, like the rainbow, o'er my mind,
And promised happiness behind.

The storm blew o'er, and in my breast
The haleyon peace rebuilt her nest;
The storm blew o'er, and clear and mild
The sea of youth and pleasure smiled.

'Twas on the morning of that day,
When Phœbus marries rosy May,
I sought once more the charming spot,
Where bloom'd the thorn by Hannah's cot.

O! as I cross'd the neighbouring plain,
I lived my wooing days again;
And fancy sketch'd my future life,
My home, my children, and my wife.

I saw the village steeple rise—
My soul sprang, sparkling, in mine eyes;
The rural bells rang sweet and clear—
My fond heart listened in mine ear.

I reach'd the hamlet;—all was gay;
I love a rustic holiday!

I met a wedding—stept aside;
O, God!—my Hannah was the bride!

—There is a grief that cannot feel;
It leaves a wound that will not heal!
—My heart grew cold—it felt not then!
When shall it cease to feel again?"

"Ode to the Sky Lark.

"Sweetest warbler of the skies,
Soon as morning's purple dyes
O'er the eastern mountains float,
Waken'd by thy merry note,
Thro' the fields of yellow corn,
That Mersey's winding banks adorn,
O'er green meads I gaily pass,
And lightly brush the dewy grass.

I love to hear thy matin lay,
And warbling wild notes die away;
I love to mark thy upward flight,
And see thee lessen from my sight:
Then, ended thy sweet madrigal,
Sudden swift I see thee fall,
With wearied wing, and beating breast,
Near thy chirping younglings' nest.

Ah! who that hears thee carol free
Those jocund notes of liberty,
And sees thee independent soar,
With gladsome wing, the blue sky o'er,
In wry cage would thee restrain,
To pant for liberty in vain;
And see thee 'gainst thy prison grate
Thy little wings indignant beat,
And peck and flutter round and round
Thy narrow, lonely, hated bound;

And yet not ope thy prison door,
To give thee liberty once more.

None! none! but he whose vicious eye
The charms of nature can't enjoy;
Who dozes those sweet hours away,
When thou begin'st thy merry lay;
And 'cause his lazy limbs refuse
To tread the meadow's morning dew,
And there thy early wild notes hear,
He keeps thee lonely prisoner.
Not such am I, sweet warbler; no,
For should thy strains as sweetly flow,

As sweetly flow, as gaily sound,
Within thy prison's wiry bound,
As when thou soar'st with lover's pride,
And pour'st thy wild notes far and wide,
Yet still depriv'd of every scene,
The yellow lawn, the meadow green,
The hawthorn bush besprent with dew,
The skye lake, the mountain blue,
Not half the charms thou'dst have for me,
As ranging wide at liberty."

WILLIAM SMYTHE.

Liverpool, April 6, 1797.

ART. XIII. *Good Tidings; or, News from the Farm. A Poem, by ROBERT BLOOMFIELD.* 4to. pp. 37.

THE cow-pox is the subject of this little poem. Many of our readers will recollect the Oxford verses 'Inoculation! heavenly maid descend!' But the Farmer's Boy has too much good sense to deal in these despicable common places of *poetastry*. Every one will be interested by the following account of the poet's own escape from small-pox in infancy, and of his father's death; it is, he says, strictly true.

"There dwelt, beside a brook that creeps
along

Midst infant hills and meads unknown to
song,

And alder-groves, and many a flow'ry lea
Still winding onward, to the northern sea;
One to whom poverty and faith were giv'n,
Calm village silence, and the hope of heaven:
Alone she dwelt; and while each morn
brought peace,

And health was smiling on her year's increase,
And haply still a flatt'ring prospect drew,
'Twas well,—but there are days of trouble
too.

Sudden and fearful, rushing through her
frame,

Unusual pains and feverish symptoms came;
Then, when debilitated, faint, and poor,
How sweet to hear a footstep at her door!
To see a neighbour watch life's silent sand,
To hear the sigh, and feel the helping hand!
But woe o'erspread the interdicted ground,
And consternation seiz'd the hamlets round:
Uprose the pest—its fated victim died;
The foul contagion spread on ev'ry side;
She, who had help'd the sick with kind
regard,

Bore home a dreadful tribute of reward,
Home, where six children, yielding to its
pow'r,

Gave hope and patience a most trying hour;
One at her breast still drew the living stream,
(No sense of danger mars an infant's dream,)
Yet every tongue exprest, and ev'ry eye,

"Who'er survives the shock, that child will
die!"

But vain the fiat,—Heaven restored them all,
And destin'd one of riper years to fall.

Midnight beheld the close of all his pain,
His grave was clos'd when midnight came
again;

No bell was heard to toll, no funeral pray'r,
No kindred bow'd, no wife, no children
there;

Its horrid nature could inspire a dread
That cut the bonds of custom like a thread.
The humble church-tow'r higher seem'd to
show,

Illumined by their trembling light below;
The solemn night-breeze struck each shiv'r-
ing cheek;

Religious reverence forbade to speak:
The starting sexton his short sorrow chid
When the earth murmur'd on the coffin lid,
And falling bones, and sighs of holy dread
Sounded a requiem to the silent dead!

'Why tell us tales of woe, thou who didst
give

'Thy soul to rural themes, and bade them
live?

'What means this zeal of thine, this kind-
ling fire!

'The rescu'd infant and the dying sire?'
Kind heart, who o'er the pictur'd seasons
glow'd,

Whose smiles have crown'd the verge, or tears
have flow'd,

Was then the lowly minstrel dear to thee?
Himself appeals—What if *that child* were

HE!
What, if those midnight sighs a farewell
gave,

While hands, all trembling, clos'd his father's
grave!"

These lines may evince that the present publication is not inferior to Robert Bloomfield's former productions;—no trifling praise.

ART. XIV. *The Year of Sorrow, written in the Spring of 1803, by W. R. SPENCER.* 4to. pp. 22.

AN elegiac poem upon many of the author's friends and relations, to whom

the year appears to have been remarkably fatal. It opens thus:—

"Tear from thy guilty brow that vernal
wreath,
Chase from thy train those wanton airs which
breathe
Of joy, and love, and life! let nought ap-
pear
To gratulate thy course, disastrous year!
Away with all the season's gaudy trim,
Cold be thy zephyrs, and thy suns be dim!
—Vain is the curse! the laughing hours
who draw
Thy car, have heard th' irrevocable law,
The world has felt thy renovating rays,
All nature jubilant, resounds thy praise,
Creation lifts to thee her grateful voice,
By spring's brief charter licens'd to rejoice,
And as thy genial steps progressive move,
The lifeless all revive, and all the living love!

These are thy works of grace!—thy works
of woe
Man, only man, is privileg'd to know;
Man, only man, creation's lord confess'd,
Amidst his happy realm remains unblest'd,
On the bright earth, his flow'r-embroider'd
throne,
Th' imperial mourner reigns and weeps alone!
Sad year! whilst yet I hold one social joy,
Suspend thy dire commission to destroy.
My heart, so late of many joys possess'd,
Laments for many lost, and trembles for the
rest!"

The whole is in the same polished
strain, and we cannot but wish a *happier*
subject to a writer of such powers.

ART. XV. *British Purity; or the World we live in; a poetic Tale of two Centuries.*

THESE writers have wit enough, if
they knew what to do with it. The fol-
lowing are the best lines.

"For their safety at home, half the heads
in the nation,
Together are laid for a fortification;
Each district—a jacketted association! }
No compulsion is us'd, and th' occasion may
hold years,
The frolic so flashy of———playing at sol-
diers!
From the counter, the gran'ry, the garret,
the cellar,
The office, the warehouse, hastes each fierce
repeller:
At the snell of the powder nor staggers nor
flinches,
Proud of guarding his parish—and shewing
his inches!
Then whilst punctually true to the training
diurnal,
Neglecting the ledger, forgetting the journal;
A loud halt's sometimes heard, and the tactic
position
Ends in what it began—a gazetted commis-
sion!
See pure loyalty stream from without and
within,
Like a vast April shower, till you're sous'd
to the skin:
From the great water spout of the fl! fa!
fum! flag ship,

Doors and windows full streaming with many
a rag slip,
'Gainst four-footed Napoleone, the fierce
giant killer,
Poison-mERCHANT, rape-broker, and wholesales
blood spiller:
The framer of treaties, all-swindling to trap
man;
And in every religion a dealer and chapman!
Quite puerile in talent; in head and heart
rotten;
Dropt by Beelzebub flying;—not born nor
begotten!"

"Now the larger the debt swells, the nation
is richer;
Just as liquor increases by swigging the
pitcher!
If felicity brightens by adding of millions,
Perfect bliss can be gain'd but by making
them trillions!
Nay to this happy end, there are hopes of at-
taining,
And a million'd millenium thus easily gain-
ing."

The versification is very harsh, and
the language often obscure, so that much
will be marred. Perhaps the writers might
succeed better in a shorter metre. There
would be no want of perspicuity if they
could but versify with ease.

ART. XVI. *The Wiccamical Chaplet, a Selection of original Poetry: comprising, smaller Poems, serious and comic; classical Trifles; Sonnets; Inscriptions and Epitaphs; Songs and Ballads; Mock-heroic Poems; Epigrams; Fragments, &c. &c.; edited by GEORGE HUDDSFORD. 8vo. pp. 225.*

THIS collection, says the editor, "con-
sists chiefly of smaller pieces, written by
gentlemen educated at the same seminary
with the editor of these poems, and was
principally made while the editor was
resident in the university." To include
under a general character pieces of va-

rious authors, united by so slight a bond
of union, would obviously be a vain at-
tempt. There are few collections of
this kind in which there is not something
that is good, none in which there is not
a good deal that is indifferent. We have
seldom found so great a proportion of

ludicrous pieces as in the present volume, a circumstance not to be wondered at, since the editor, so well known as the author of *Salmagundy*, acknowledges that he has mingled some productions of his own. No particular signature distinguishes Mr. Huddesford's pieces, but we imagine our sagacity would run little hazard of impeachment, should we point out the following ludicrous tale, as one of his literary offspring.

"Volumes of historic lore

Read, and you'll find that heretofore
Flourish'd a brood of strapping dogs;
To whom the present race of men are frogs:
Ajax a rock in's arms could take
And hurl it at your pericrane,
Which half a dozen folks of modern make,
With force combin'd, would strive to lift in vain.

By gallant Guy of Warwick slain
Was Colbrand, that gigantic Dane;
Nor could this desp'rate champion daunt
A dun cow bigger than an elephant:
But he, to prove his courage sterling,
His whyniard in her blood inbrued;
He cut from her enormous side a surloin,
And in his porridge-pot her brisket stew'd:
Then butcher'd a wild boar and ate him bar-
becu'd.

When Pantagruel ate salt pork

Six waiting-jacks were set at work

To shovel mustard into's chops.—

These you'll allow were men of mould;

And made on purpose for an age of gold;
But we, their progeny, are mere milk-
sops:

They drank whole tuns at a sup to wet their
throttles,

But we're a race of starv'lings—I'll be shot
else—

Begotten with the rindings of the bottles.

'Twas so the sage Monboddio wrote;

And many a learned clod of note

You'll see come forward and advance

Positions every whit as wise:

And that they tell their friends no lies

I'll shew you by collateral circumstance.

There liv'd—'tho' that is somewhat wide

O' the purpose—I should say, there died

A squire, and Wyschard was his name;

Pictish and Saxon ancestry

Illustrated his pedigree,

And many a noble imp of fame:

Yet these renowned ancestors,

As if they had been vulgar sons of whores,
Were long, long since, by all the world
forgot

Save by himself: he knew the very spot

Where they had each been coffin'd up to rot;

And in his will directions gave exact

Amongst those venerable dads to have his
carcase pack'd.

Now deep the sexton burrows to explore

The sepulchre that these old worthies hid;
Something at last that seem'd an huge bam-
door,

But was no other than a coffin-lid,
Oppos'd his efforts; long it spread and wide,
And near the upper end a crevice he espied.
Thence on his ear strange uncouth utterance
broke,

As of some sullen slumb'rer half awoke,
Who, yawning, mutter'd inarticulate
And angry sounds: yet could not this abate
The courage of the clown: "Speak out!"
quoth he—

"Raw head and bloody bones ne'er yet af-
frighted me."

A thund'ring voice replies, "What miscreant
knave

"Dares break the sabbath of old Wyschard's
grave?"

"No miscreant knave, worm-eaten Sir,
am I,

"But Hodge the sexton:—knave! I scorn
the word:

"I at my honest calling work, for why?

"Your kinsman's just brought down to be
interr'd."

"My kinsman's to be buried here?—Oh,
ho!

"What year of our Lord is't, fellow, let me
know."

"'Tis eighteen hundred, sir, and two."

"Ay, Goodman Sexton; say you so?

"Then time on me a march hath stole;

"'Twas near sev'n hundred years ago

"That I became the tenant of this hole:

"Men like myself behind I left but few;

"Since then, the world, I wot, is fangled all
anew!

"Tell me, in sooth, are other folks like thee?

"For, by thy voice, thou seem'st a tiny
elf."

"Tiny!" quoth Hodge: "Zooks, I am six
feet three!

"There's no man in the hundred but my-
self

"Can say as much—thy name-sake that is
dead,

"I'll warrant him, was shorter by the head."

"Thy words lack proof: I prithee, honest
friend,

"Thrust thro' this chink thy little finger's
end;

"Whence I may know, if thou the truth
dost state,

"And judge, by sample small, of thy dimen-
sions great."

"Thought Hodge—"Altho' I little fear the
dead,

"Nool-hardy mortals perils strange en-
viron:"

His finger then withheld he, but, instead
Thrust in his pick-axe nozzle, sheath'd with
iron:

And he wasn the right,
 For at a single bite,
 Old Wyschard snap it off clean as a whistle.
 "Hence, lying varlet, bear
 "Your pigmy corpse elsewhere,
 "'Twould Wyschard's grave disgrace!
 "In the stoutest of your race,
 "There's no more substance than a Bit of
 GRISTLE."

"Well a day Jack," and the "Cape Hunt," are very amusing ballads, probably from the same hand. Under the title of a Monumental Inscription, we were not a little surprised to meet with the lines:

"Hosanna! to the Prince of Peace
 That clothed himself in clay,
 Entered the iron gates of Death,
 And tore the bars away!"

Lines which have been known among dissenters this half century past, as the first stanza of a hymn by the late Rev. and worthy Dr. Doddridge. There is novelty and elegance in the following "Ode to the Crow:"

ODE

TO THE CROW.

"Say, weary bird, whose level flight,
 Thus at the dusky hour of night
 Tends thro' the midway air,
 Why yet beyond the verge of day
 Is lengthen'd out thy dark delay,
 Adding another to the hours of care?"

The wren within her mossy nest
 Has hush'd her little brood to rest;
 The wood-wild pigeon, rock'd on high,
 Has coo'd his last soft note of love;
 And fondly nestles by his dove.
 To guard their downy young from an inclement sky.

Each twittering bill and busy wing,
 'That flits thro' morning's humid spring,
 Is still;—list'ning perhaps so late
 To Philomel's enchasting lay,
 Who now, ashamed to sing by day,
 Trills the sweet sorrows of her fate.

Haste, bird, and nurse thy callow brood,
 They call on heav'n and thee for food,
 Bleak—on some cliff's neglected tree;
 Haste, weary bird, thy lagging flight—
 It is the chilling hour of night;
 Fit hour of rest for thee!"

ART. XVII. *The Shipwreck, a Poem, by WILLIAM FALCONER, a Sailor. The Book illustrated by additional Notes, and corrected from the first and second Editions; with a Life of the Author. By JAMES STANIER CLARKE. F. R. S. 8vo. pp. 220.*

MANY more costly works than the present have been published in England, but neither in this nor in any other country has there ever appeared a work of which the ornamental parts were ex-

Under the head of *Nugæ Poeticæ*, nothing pleased us so much as a parody on the first Ode of Anacreon.

"The story of king Arthur old,
 And More, that dragon-slayer bold,
 I strove to sing—in vain I strove—
 My cat-gut squeak'd "How sweet is Love."
 A thousand ways I turn'd the screw,
 And resin'd every string anew.
 Again I try'd: "God prosper long—"
 Broke in the middle was my song—
 I found each faint idea flown
 In "Joys of love are joys alone."
 Adieu each big, each lofty air!
 Come, "Leinster, fam'd for maidens fair!"
 Adieu each tale so blythe and merry
 Of John and the Priest of Canterbury!
 My fiddle now alone can tell
 "The charms of beauteous Florimel."

The "Sonnets" are of a manlier cast than most of the present day—some of them are a good deal in the style of Edwards. We recollect few better than the following:

SONNET X.

TO AN OAK,

Blown down by the Wind.

"Thou who, unmov'd, hast heard the whirl-
 wind chide
 Full many a winter round thy craggy bed;
 And, like an earth-born giant, hast out-
 spread
 Thy hundred arms, and heaven's own bolts
 defied,
 Now liest along thy native mountain's side
 Uptorn;—yet deem not that I come to
 shed
 The idle drops of pity o'er thy head,
 Or basely to insult thy blasted pride:—
 No—still 'tis thine, tho' fall'n, imperial
 Oak!
 To teach this lesson to the wise and brave,
 That 'tis much better, overthrown and
 broke
 In Freedom's cause, to sink into the grave,
 Than, in submission to a tyrant's yoke,
 Like the vile reed, to bow and be a slave."

But it is time to close our extracts, of which we should not have been so profuse, had we not been well satisfied that enough would remain to compensate the trouble of the reader in a selection which bears the stamp of taste so forcibly impressed.

cuted with more beauty or designed with equal propriety. Pococke is as peculiarly the sailor's painter as Falconer is the sailor's poet. Instead, therefore, of that lamentable inferiority of the

artist to the author which has disgraced the editions of Shakespeare and Milton, instead of any vain rivalry between the arts, we have the skill of the painter employed here exactly as it should be to illustrate the poet, on a subject equally within the reach of his art, and with which he is as intimately acquainted.

Much praise is due to Mr. Clarke for his very beautiful edition of a popular work. He is indeed peculiarly fitted for the undertaking by his own nautical knowledge, and has been fortunate in obtaining the valuable assistance of Mr. Bowles, Mr. Pococke, and of his brother whose travels are so eagerly expected by the literary world. Each of these gentlemen has supplied him with annotations. Mr. Gell's drawings have given the actual scenery. The biographical memoir has been collected with care, and its deficiencies are not to be imputed to any want of industry in the author.

William Falconer was the son of a poor barber at Edinburgh; the children of whom, with this single exception, were all either deaf or dumb; and two, in consequence of being thus incapacitated, died in the poor-house. Falconer himself was fortunate enough to become servant to Campbell, the author of *Lexiphanes*, then purser of a ship, who discovered his talents and delighted in cultivating them; his own industry must have been considerable, as he could readily understand French, Spanish, Italian and German. His first poem upon the death of Frederic Prince of Wales, was published at an early age in 1751; between this time and the publication of the *Shipwreck* in 1762, Mr. Clarke has discovered that he inserted one poem in the *Gentleman's Magazine*, and conjectures two others to be his with sufficient probability. It is also his opinion, and that of many other persons, that the famous song "Cease, rude Boreas" was either written by Falconer or by Captain Thomson.

The *Shipwreck* was dedicated to the Duke of York, who immediately noticed the author, and advised him to quit the merchant service for the navy; he was accordingly rated a midshipman in the *Royal George*; but Falconer was too old for this situation to benefit him, and by the advice of his friends gave up the military for the civil line in the navy, and was appointed purser of the *Glory* frigate. When the *Glory* was laid up

in ordinary at Chatham, commissioner Hanway, brother to the good Jonas Hanway, interested himself for the poet, and the captain's cabin was ordered to be fitted up for him with a stove, and with every addition of comfort that could be procured. In this hermitage, as his editor calls it, he finished his *Universal Dictionary of the Marine*. While he held this situation also it was that he disgraced himself by his satire on Wilkes, Churchill, and Lord Chatham, which served as a powerful antidote to the *Rosciad*, says Mr. Clarke, forgetting that the *Rosciad* has nothing to do with politics. Falconer was not equal to the service in which he volunteered; political satire was above his strength; it requires all the sterling sense and sterling genius of Churchill to preserve such poems from the oblivion to which their subjects drag them down. He had now to struggle with narrow circumstances, being obliged to take up his abode in a London garret; but he had an affectionate wife, and a good spirit, and some old messmates helped him on. Something he got by writing under Mallet in the *Critical Review*; in which, if we understand Mr. Clarke's note properly, he wrote a severe critique upon one of his own poems. At this time, Murray the bookseller being about to take Sandby's business, proposed to Falconer to become a partner with him; this proposal he unhappily rejected, obtained the appointment of purser to the *Aurora* frigate then bound for India, reached the Cape in her, and on the remainder of the passage was lost—it has never been certainly known how. There is, however, reason to believe that the ship foundered in the Mozambique channel, a course which the captain had obstinately determined to take, though ignorant of the navigation.

The technical excellency of his great poem has always been acknowledged.

"The poem of the *SHIPWRECK* is of inestimable value to this country, since it contains within itself the rudiments of navigation: if not sufficient to form a complete seaman, it may certainly be considered as the grammar of his professional science. I have heard many experienced officers declare, that the rules and maxims delivered in this poem, for the conduct of a ship in the most perilous emergency, form the best, indeed the only opinions which a skilful mariner should adopt. We possess, therefore, a poem not only eminent for its sublimity and pathos, but for an harmonious poetic assemblage of technical terms

and maxims used in navigation; which a young sailor may easily commit to memory; and also, with these, such scientific principles, as will enable him to lay a sound foundation for his future professional skill and judgment. We should, therefore, as Britons, respect this poem as the composition of a naval sibyl."

Its poetical merit is also considerable, but the editor's admiration goes too far when he calls Falconer a second Homer.

Mr. Clarke has with good judgment printed the introductory lines separate from the poem. Whether he has acted with equal propriety in so often rejecting the text of the last edition, may be doubted. He is induced to think, he says, that Falconer, in the agitation of his mind on being appointed purser to the *Aurora*, with the promise of being private secretary to the commissioners who went out in her, neglected this edition, and left the last alterations to Mallet, the inferiority of many passages being strikingly evident. I have endeavoured, says Mr. Clarke, with the assistance of the first and second editions, to make our author correct himself, and thus to restore the purity of the original text, which had become strangely impaired; at the same time being careful to preserve all the beauties of the third edition. To this we must reply that there is no proof that the alterations were Mallet's, and that Mr. Clarke has no rule for rejecting one passage and retaining another but his own opinion. For instance, there are eight lines in the introduction in which Falconer complains of his evil fortune; these Mr. Clarke has omitted, because, he says, they strongly savour of fatalism, and are unworthy of a British mariner. There would have been no impropriety in entering such a protest against the passage in a note, but unless editors be entitled to more deference than their authors, not only poets but the public in general are interested in reprobating such mutilations. Bentley made wild work with Milton, but what work would Johnson have made with him had he cut him down to the standard of his own miserable politics and more miserable religion? Mr. Clarke should have adhered to the text of the last edition as that which the poet himself approved, and the variations might have been inserted in the notes.—The chart of the ship's path we think should not have been omitted.

The notes are for the most part very

good. Mr. Pococke's indeed are not less scientific than those of Falconer himself: the following will exhibit the editor in a very favourable light.

"And cheerless Night o'er Heaven her reign extends."

"This is a most correct, and awful description of a Sun-set, preceding a storm, or rather an heavy gale of wind, and was some years since selected by Mr. Pococke as the subject of a large oil painting; in which this artist with a bold originality of genius represented only the sea and sky. No vessel whatever was introduced: the effect was admirable; and may be recommended to the notice of such persons as are fond of marine scenery. The spectator in this beautiful picture is supposed to be standing in a ship, and the view that lies before him is the expanse of ocean rolling in all its grandeur, without any object to intercept the sight: whilst the sickening orb of the setting sun is enveloped in the crimson scud that tinged the dusk of the horizon.

"I have a melancholy pleasure in retracing scenes, that remind me of my lost and ever to be lamented friend, Admiral Payne; and, as it serves to illustrate a passage in the poem, I trust that such remembrance will not be deemed irrelevant by the reader.

"We were cruising off Ushant, in the *Impetueux*, during an evening at the close of October, and the dreary coast so continually present to our view, created a painful uniformity, which could only be relieved by observing the variations of the expanse that was before us.—The sun had just given its parting rays, and the last shades of day lingered on the distant waves; when a sky most sublime, and threatening, attracted all our attention, and was immediately provided against by the vigilant officers of the watch. To the verge of the horizon, except where the sun had left some portion of its departing rays, a hard, lowering, blue firmament presented itself: on this floated light yellow clouds, tinged with various hues of crimson, the never-failing harbingers of a gale. A strong vivid tint was reflected from them, on the sails and rigging of the ship, which rendered the scene more dreadful. The very calm that prevailed was portentous—the sea-bird shrieked as it passed! As the tempest gradually approached, and the winds issued from the treasures of God, the thick darkness of an autumnal night closed the whole in horrid uncertainty:

*"It was a dismal and a fearful night;
And on my soul hung the dull weight
Of some intolerable fate!"* COWLEY.

"It is to be lamented that in our navy no mathematical instruments are sent on board by the Admiralty. Even the master is obliged to purchase the mount of his pay; and, as that is but moderate, he naturally procures the cheapest that can be obtained. One set at least of the very best that the metropolis can produce, should be sent from The Board to

each ship; having previously been examined by the royal astronomer at Greenwich. The institution of an hydrographer at the Admiralty, in order to furnish our ships with correct charts, will, probably, in time lead to the above mentioned desideratum. It is painful to observe the wretched instruments that are now in use on board; nor can the exception of a few ships, whose captains are men of independent fortunes, weaken this assertion."

* * *

"It can never be sufficiently lamented that the crews of our ships are not supplied with cheap editions of such books as Robinson Crusoe, Sinbad's Narrative, Roderic Random, and some of the most interesting voyages: the perusal of such works would often tend to allay the ferment of an irritated and harassed mind. So persuaded was I from experience, of the beneficial effect likely to result from an adoption of this idea, that I mentioned it to Lord Spencer when he presided at the Board: by whom it was approved."

The only worthless notes are some that bear the signature of Mr. Bowles: for instance—"How very beautiful and affecting is this natural transition."—"How clearly is every circumstance set before us in this description." Such imperfections would make us suspect that Mr. Bowles had been studying criticism in the school of Capel Lofft. Two poems by this gentleman are inserted, the one is entitled

"*The Dirge of poor Arion.*"

"What pale and bleeding youth (while the fell blast

Howls o'er the wreck, and fainter sinks the cry

Of struggling wretches ere o'erwhelmed they die)

Yet floats upborne upon the driving mast?

XVIII. *The Poetical Works of Charles Churchill, with explanatory Notes, and an authentic Account of his Life, now first published.* 8vo. 2 vols.

"THE difficulty experienced by the editor in understanding many of the allusions contained in the following poems, gave rise to the present work. In the attempt to obviate this difficulty, he was obliged to wade through some hundred volumes, mostly of a local or political nature, and consequently at this time, either very scarce or quite neglected and forgotten: from these and other works in more general circulation, he principally extracted and compiled the notes he now offers to the public: for some of them, however, consisting of original anecdotes, he is indebted to oral tradition, and to an intimate acquaintance with several of the friends and contemporaries of the poet.

"His authorities the editor has not often given; they are generally of a nature not calculated intrinsically to convey an impression of authenticity. In gleaning from the magazines, pamphlets, and newspapers of the day, the

O poor Arion! has thy sweetest strain,
That charm'd old Ocean's wildest solitude,
At this dread hour his waves dark might
subdued?

Let sea-maids thy reclining head sustain;
And wipe the blood, and briny drops, that
soil

Thy locks, and give once more thy wreathed
shell

To ring with melody:—Oh fruitless toil!
Hark! o'er thy head again the tempests swell,
Hark! hark again the Storm's black demons
yell

More loud; the bellowing Deep reclaims
his spoil!

Peace! and may weeping sea-maids sing thy
knell."

The other concludes the volume.

"Farewell, poor Falconer! when the dark sea
Bursts like despair, I shall remember thee;
Nor ever from the sounding beach depart
Without thy music stealing on my heart,
And thinking still I hear dread Ocean say,
'Thou hast declared my might,
Be thou my prey."

Mr. Clarke would render an essential service to English literature by faithfully editing the works of our early voyagers. Such a collection, illustrated by the learning and genius of Mr. Pococke, as it would be a national honour might reasonably expect national patronage.

On a book so beautiful as this we may be permitted to offer a typographical criticism. The custom of breaking a verse on account of its length greatly disfigures the page; it might often be avoided by packing and pressing the words a little closer, or always by using a wider form.

editor could only be induced from concurrent testimonies to select such anecdotes as seemed best entitled to credibility, and to submit them to the judgment of the public.

"Long before the press teemed with new editions of inferior poets, the present editor undertook the illustration of his Herculean author; his materials had lain by several years when the publication of his work was accelerated by the obliging kindness of Mr. Flexnoy, the original publisher of Churchill's works, who being in possession of several MSS. relating to the life and writings of the satirist, in the hand-writing of the Rev. William Churchill, his brother, communicated them to the editor. The spirit of party had not subsided at the time they were written, and they were unfortunately too strongly imbued with that spirit, to render them of much utility."

The public are much indebted to the present editor for having thus elucidated the works of so able a writer, which, without such assistance, were becoming as unintelligible as *Hudibras*. Wilkes should have performed this task; it was Churchill's dying wish, and no other person could have performed it so well. He knew the secret history of the poems, his opinions accorded with the satirist's, and the comment would have been as poignant as the text. Such annotations would have fixed that volatile spirit of satire which has now evaporated. In the present edition much is done, but it is not done with that unison of feeling which is desirable. Churchill has one opinion in the poem, and his commentator another in the notes, and this discrepancy produces upon the reader a very unpleasant effect. This is the age of editors; they have gradually assumed a censorial power, to which they are in general as little entitled by their talents as by their office. In old times they confined themselves to illustrating their authors, which and which only is their proper function; the next step was that of undertaking to shew the beauties, like the guides to the lakes—when you come to such a place stop and admire; and in this way critical essays, as they are called, are manufactured, as if the public had neither eyes to see, nor understanding to comprehend for themselves: a mischievous practice by which the young are taught to acquiesce blindly in the opinion of others instead of exercising their own powers of thought. The same acquiescence is expected when the editor takes it for granted that he is wiser than his author, and proceeds to censure his mistakes.

All the biographical notices of Churchill which have hitherto appeared are said to have been taken from a partial and inaccurate statement in the *Annual Register*, and eked out by imaginary anecdotes. The present narrative is certainly faithful, and is written with no partiality towards the subject. We lament, says Mr. T. the opportunity afforded us by our author of relating some few facts beyond the mere limits of his literary labours, facts too notorious to be suppressed, too immoral to be palliated.

Charles Churchill was the eldest son of a clergyman, who was for many years curate and lecturer of St. John's, Westminster; in which parish the poet was

born some time in February, 1731. When about eight years of age he was sent to Westminster school, where his proficiency in learning, though considerable, was not pre-eminent.

"At the age of fifteen, he became a candidate to be admitted on the foundation at Westminster, and went in head of the election; soon afterwards a circumstance happened which seemed in some measure to indicate the future strength and bent of his abilities. Having by some trifling puerile misdemeanour incurred the displeasure of his masters, he was by them enjoined to compose a poetical declamation in Latin, and speak it publicly in the school-room, by way of apology for his misbehaviour. This task he acquitted himself of in so proper yet spirited a manner, as to obtain the unqualified approbation of his masters, without forfeiting the esteem of his schoolfellows by any undue concessions.

"On entering his nineteenth year he quitted Westminster school, and, as is generally supposed, applied for matriculation at the university of Oxford; here it is said he was repulsed on account of his alleged deficiency in the learned languages. We cannot vouch for the authenticity of this anecdote, but must suppose he was more successful in his answers, or the questions to have been less difficult, at his next examination, at Cambridge, in 1749, in which year we find him admitted of Trinity College in that university."

The anecdote is unquestionably false. No person who ever went in head of an election at Westminster, could possibly have been rejected at Oxford as deficient. It is said in another part of these volumes that, instead of making proper replies to the questions demanded of him, he launched out into satirical reflections on the abilities of the gentlemen whose office it was to examine him. The probable truth is this: the king's scholars at Westminster are elected to Christchurch, or to Trinity-college, Cambridge, at the pleasure of the electors; the appointments to Oxford are far the most valuable, and as the business is regulated by interest, of course they fall to the lot of those who have the most powerful friends, which was not likely to be Churchill's case. That he should have ridiculed the electors (for this is settled at Westminster and not at the universities) is very improbable, that he should have been deficient in attainments, altogether impossible. At Trinity he was admitted, but he never resided there. The editor says he was disgusted with

both universities; that may well have been the case, but his conduct is explained by his marriage, by which act his scholarship was vacated.

For a year after his marriage he resided with his father, during which time his conduct was exemplarily regular; he then removed to Sunderland for family reasons, where he lived two years, devoting almost the whole of that time to poetry. Are none of his early productions to be traced? it would be interesting to know to what branch of poetry his first feelings inclined him. At the customary age he was ordained on the curacy of Cadbury, in Somersetshire, where he discharged his duties well; and when five-and-twenty was admitted to priest's orders by Sherlock, on the mere strength of his good character and reputation for learning, notwithstanding he had never graduated. This circumstance alone would disprove the tale of his rejection at Oxford. He removed now to his father's curacy at Rainham, in Essex, applied himself closely to theology, and opened a school. From this situation he was liberated by the unfortunate event of his father's death: the parishioners of St. John's immediately electing him as his successor to the curacy and lectureship. Here also, for a while, his conduct was unexceptionable; he gave lessons in the English tongue at a female boarding-school, and read the classics with some pupils.

But Churchill was unhappy at home. To this domestic unhappiness must be added another and a deeper source of disquietude. It is evident by his subsequent conduct that he had ceased to believe, if not in Christianity, certainly in Christianity as by law established. To continue the profession then must have been intolerable to a mind so truly honest. At this time he renewed his intimacy with his schoolfellow Lloyd. Lloyd also was unhappily circumstanced, with less reason than Churchill, for he was unhappy only because he was discontented. Two men, so sympathizing in genius, in temper, and in situation, were dangerous companions to each other. It appears, however, by the poet's own account, that he was driven into excess by embarrassments; and not as is usually represented, reduced to distress at first by his own imprudence: thus we should interpret these lines, for Churchill never palliated his own faults.

"What proof might do, what hunger
might effect,
What famish'd Nature, looking with neglect
On all she once held dear, what fear, at strife
With fainting Virtue for the means of life,
Might make this coward flesh, in love with
breath,
Shudd'ring at pain, and shrinking back from
death,
In treason to my soul, descend to bear,
Trusting to fate, I neither know nor care.
"Once, at this hour, those wounds afresh
I feel,
Which nor prosperity nor time can heal,
Those wounds, which, fate severely hath decreed,
Mentioned or thought of, must for ever
bleed;
Those wounds, which humbled all that pride
of man
Which brings such mighty aid to Virtue's
plan;
Once, aw'd by Fortune's most oppressive
frown,
By legal rapine to the earth bow'd down,
My credit at last gasp, my state undone,
Trembling to meet the shock I could not
shun,
Virtue gave ground, and black Despair prevail'd;
Sinking beneath the storm, my spirits fail'd,
Like Peter's faith, till one, a friend indeed,
May all distress find such in time of need;
One kind good man, in act, in word, in
thought,
By virtue guided, and by wisdom taught,
Image of him whom Christians should adore,
Stretch'd forth his hand, and brought me safe
to shore."

Lloyd's father was the friend who saved him; he interfered with the creditors, and persuaded them to receive five shillings in the pound. When Churchill had acquired money by his publications he voluntarily paid the full amount of the original debts.

He now commenced author. The first poem which he offered to the booksellers was in hudiastic verse, and entitled the Bard: it was rejected without any hesitation as a contemptible performance, an opinion in which he seems himself to have afterwards coincided. The Conclave was his next attempt, a satire upon the Dean and Chapter of Westminster; but this was thought by the lawyers too personal to be printed without danger: it was written in anapestic measure, not alexandrine as the editor says in the life; and the characters are said to be nervously drawn, boldly coloured, and nicely discriminated. If this poem be in existence, and so we understand from one of the notes, its virulence and per-

sonality should not now have prevented its publication. Nearly half a century has elapsed since it was written, and that length of time must have removed all to whom it could give pain. The poem would be the more interesting inasmuch as it is written in a metre which will not admit of his usual ruggedness of versification. After the second failure he produced the *Rosciad*, and offered it to several booksellers for five guineas. Luckily for Churchill he could find no purchaser: and, therefore, ventured to publish it on his own account. The unexampled success of this poem is well known, and the subsequent history of his literary career.

Had it been Churchill's fortune, like Savage and Burns, to have found a friendly biographer, who would rather have extenuated something than have set down aught in malice, his latter conduct would have appeared in a very different light. He separated from his wife;—it is admitted that she possessed but little of the spirit of conciliation, and that her conduct opened some field for recrimination: what provision he made for her in his life is not stated, but it was not in his nature to be ungenerous, and he left her an annuity of sixty pounds. He threw off the gown and totally renounced all claim to the clerical character: when his theological researches had ended in disbelief what other course was left him? 'He indulged in all the excesses to which youth and unbridled licentiousness could prompt!' But this is the accusation of his enemies: late hours and convivial meetings do not necessarily imply licentiousness, and his epistle to Lloyd is the vindication of an imprudent and irregular man, not of a debauched one. The authority of Chrysal is nothing. If novels and satires are to be quoted as proofs in the next generation, God help us! As for the assertion that he shortened his life by his debaucheries, it is utterly false; he died of a military fever. It is equally false that his last words were 'What a fool I have been!' Such pious frauds are usually invented by a man's enemies, and there are weak people enough in the world to believe them. In worldly matters Churchill had not been a fool; wealth is the test of wisdom in the world, and he was accumulating money.

The worst action of his life is thus related by his biographer:

"Early in 1763, he had formed an intimacy with Miss C. the daughter of a tradesman in Westminster; this poor young creature he seduced, prevailed on her to quit her father's roof, and lead a life of infamy with him. Satiated by a fortnight's gratification of his passion, during which short period she had full leisure afforded her for sorrow and repentance, they prevailed upon a real friend to communicate her penitence and sufferings to her father, who by their joint entreaties was induced again to receive her into his family. This instance of parental tenderness sensibly affected her, and she most probably would by her future conduct have justified the lenient kindness of her father, and having once felt the pangs of vice would never again have deviated from the paths of virtue, had she not been continually exposed to the taunts and goadings of an elder sister, the bitterness of whose reproaches induced this unhappy young woman to apply once more to Churchill for protection. Actuated by a false sense of gratitude and honour, he thought himself imperiously bound to receive her into his arms; had he made an ample provision for her support, and declined all farther intercourse, his former offence might have admitted of some extenuation, but this renewal of the connexion aggravated the crime. While this transaction was fresh in the public mind, and with a view in some measure to efface the unfavourable impression it had made, he published the *Conference*, in which the emotions of a mind not hardened in guilt, and severely labouring under the pressure of self-conviction, are pathetically described, and several passages of that poem are strongly expressive of manly sensibility and acuteness of feeling."

'Let us add the passage alluded to. "Self-condemnation," says the editor, "so just, so public and severe, if it does not excite compassion, must at least disarm revenge."

"Ah! what, my lord, hath private life
to do
With things of public nature? why to view
Would you thus cruelly those scenes unfold
Which, without pain and horror to behold,
Must speak me something more, or less than
man,
Which friends may pardon, but I never can?
Look back! a thought which borders on
despair,
Which human nature must, yet cannot bear.
'Tis not the babbling of a busy world,
Where praise and censure are at random
hur'd,
Which can the meanest of my thoughts con-
trol,
Or shake one settled purpose of my soul;
Free and at large might their wild curses roam,
If all, if all, alas! were well at home.

P p 4

No—'tis the tale which angry conscience
tells,
When she with more than tragic horror
swells
Each circumstance of guilt ; when stern, but
true,
She brings bad actions forth into review,
And like the dread hand-writing on the wall,
Bids late remorse awake at reason's call ;
Arm'd at all points, bids scorpion vengeance
pass,
And to the mind holds up reflection's glass,
The mind which, starting, heaves the heart-
felt groan,
And hates that form she knows to be her
own."

If we are not deceived by the initial, he left this lady fifty pounds a year for her life. These were his faults, let his virtues be weighed against them. His payment of his debts has been already mentioned. The fearless zeal with which he came forward as a political writer, and the pure principles which all his writings so manfully inculcate, would alone be sufficient to evince that he has deserved well of mankind. Even his enemies never denied that he had a heart to feel compassion, and a hand to bestow relief. He it was who allowed poor Lloyd a guinea a week and a servant to attend him when he was in the Fleet, having been deserted by his three summer friends, whose whole united stock of goodness will not be worth so much to them in purgatory as the fraction of one Ave Maria equally divided among a whole fraternity. Churchill was a true friend and a true Englishman.

What has been falsely asserted of his moral is true of his intellectual character. As a poet he sacrificed future fame to present gratification. No English poet ever enjoyed so excessive and so short-lived a popularity. Such reputations resemble the lives of insects, whose shortness of existence is compensated by intensity of enjoyment. He, perhaps, imagined that his genius would preserve his subjects, as spices embalm a mummy ; that the wretches whom he had celebrated would go down to posterity in his verse, as an old admiral comes home from the West Indies in a puncheon of rum ; but he did not consider that the rum is wasted, and that the Pharaohs and the Ptolemies spoilt all the spices which were bestowed upon their carcases. Some old parabalist has a tale in point, of a man who being remarkably wise and remarkably ugly, married a woman very

beautiful and very foolish, calculating that the children would have his wisdom and their mother's beauty ; they all proved ugly and idiots.

Churchill was soon forgotten :—his friends were silent, for poor Lloyd followed him to the grave ; and his enemies did not venture to trample upon the dead lion : his superiority had been too notorious, and they prudently held their tongues. More important politics succeeded, and his satires would, perhaps, have slept with their heroes, if they had not been luckily included in Bell's Collection of the Poets ; which, though made with little knowledge and little judgment, has been followed by subsequent collectors. Johnson omitted him ; if he had not received personal offence, Johnson would from system have disliked his poetry as much as his principles ; but he was included in the supplement to Johnson's collection, and is now considered as a regular member of the corporation of poets. To this rank he is fairly entitled.

No writer seems to have better understood his own powers ; there is no indication in any of his poems that he could have done any thing better than the thing he did. It was his intention to have written an epic poem, in four books, upon the battle of Culloden. Modern warfare is even less poetical than picturesque ; it would have been curious to see how an event so recent could have been modified to his purpose, and a general of the year 1745 elevated into an epic hero. This subject is better suited to a Scottish poet, and Flora Macdonald should be the heroine ; a woman whose unexampled heroism, true Whigs as we are, and deeply as we abhor the house of Stuart, we never remember without admiration and reverence. Churchill would not have done justice to the Jacobites ; he would have delineated strongly the absurdity of their principles, but he would have forgotten the virtues by which that very absurdity was fostered. Perhaps the projected poem would not have added to his reputation : the subject was unpromising, and his powers, though great, were not of the highest order. Manly sense is the characteristic of his poems, deriving strength of expression from indignation. His reputation may be considered as fixed : it is impossible that he should ever recover his popularity ; but politicians will still read

his works for their temporary allusions, and poets for their intrinsic merit and permanent truth.

The editor has performed his work well; it would have been better had he displayed less dogmatism, and he would do wisely to remember that when a writer ventures to speak contemptuously of the abilities of his contemporaries, some proof may fairly be demanded of his own. He has not done all that should have been done. "Of the numerous publications," he says, "relating to our author, and his works which appeared during his life and soon after his death, notice has occasionally been taken in the remarks upon his poems; and we shall not trespass on the patience of our readers by any farther mention of them here. They have, like many other things, become valuable, only because they are scarce, and become scarce only because they were of no value; their titles, names and merits are preserved in the Reviews of the day; the works themselves may be found in the

libraries of the antiquarian scavengers of English literature." A criticised catalogue of these publications should have been given in this edition, as materially illustrative of Churchill's literary life, and of the literary history of his times. Has Mr. W. T. examined those publications? if he has not, he has not performed his duty as an editor; if he has, he must probably have been obliged to some of those gentlemen whom he thinks proper to denominate antiquarian scavengers; but to whom English literature is daily more and more indebted. The free use of their collections, which they afford to all men of letters who deserve the privilege, is not, and perhaps could not, properly be afforded by any of the public libraries in England. The language of the editor is sometimes disfigured by such miserable affectation as appears in the following instances. "The Monthly Review sympathetically aged with its editor." "Dodsley was unequal to receive the sublime inspiration of Melpomene."

ART. XIX. *Invasion, a descriptive and satirical Poem.* By J. AMPHLETT. 8vo. pp. 78.

MR. AMPHLETT very properly observes that some objection may be made to a work of this kind, as describing an event which has not taken place—"But were I," he adds, "to wait until the event actually transpired, I might wait a longer time than would be suitable with the impatience of a young author; or I might fall in the field of honour, unknown and unsung!" His motto is in character:

"Ha! thou hast roused
The lion in his den; he stalks abroad
And the wide forest trembles at his roar."

This lion is represented in the title-page, and a very fierce lion he is, far fiercer than the red lion at Brentford. A most apt emblem to the poem; for, as Peter Quince says, "it is nothing but roaring!"

ART. XX. *Poems, by GEORGE RICHARDS, M. A. late Fellow of Oriel College.* 2 Vols. 12mo. Oxford; at the University Press.

THE first of these volumes contains two dramatic poems on the Greek model, "Odin," and "Emma;" the second, thirteen odes; a tedious heroic epistle called "Matilda, or the dying Penitent;" "The Aboriginal Britons," a prize poem; "The Christian," which seems to be a chapter of "Paley's Evidences," turned out of good prose into very indifferent verse; "Britannia," a political rhapsody on the commencement of the present war; and a piece in heroic verse entitled "Bamborough Castle."

A Frenchman celebrated for his Latin poems and his love of good liquor is recorded to have said—"When I read French verse, I think I am drinking

water!" We know not how it happened, but so it was, that we could not get this saying out of our heads all the time that we were perusing the poems of George Richards, M. A. though they are not in French verse.

Speaking of "Odin," our author says, "This drama is intended as an imitation of the manner of Æschylus. To this cause, it is hoped, will be attributed whatever want of interest may be found to arise from the severe simplicity of the fable, or from the romantic and even supernatural cast of the actions, the characters, the sentiments, and the imagery." If Mr. Richards was really sensible that his drama is uninteresting from the dryness of the style, the awkward and in-

artificial conduct of the plot, the rudeness and ferocity of the characters, and the marvellous turn of the incidents, did he imagine that the plea of having imitated *Æschylus* would be sufficient to render it palatable, or even tolerable, to readers of an age like the present? If *Æschylus* wrote thus, and was admired for thus writing, it was because no better style being then known, he and his contemporaries considered this as a good one. "Emma" is somewhat better than "Odin;" but still it is "on the Greek model;" the long-winded odes of the chorus are insufferably tiresome, and the "severe simplicity of the fable" precludes all interest. And what are all the odes about? Gentle reader, that is a puzzling question—there is one to Spring, one to Summer, one to Autumn, and one to Winter. Hark! *Summer loquitur.*

" 'Tis mine to bless the fruitful vales;
With fragrance I enrich the gales;
I bid the mellowing orchard shine;
I purple o'er the clustering vine;
I dart my rays, and deep below
The gems within the mountains glow;
I flame, and murmuring myriads stream,
Peopling the prolific beam.
And but for my effulgent ray,
That darts intolerable day,
The groves, that shadowy wave,
The dim dew-dropping cave,
Would no refreshing charm to man supply;
Who on the mountain's brow,
While cooling breezes blow,
O'erarch'd by lofty branching elms would lie,
Save when with noontide blaze I fill the
burning sky."

There is likewise an "Ode to Envy," whom he thus addresses:

"Come forth, and show to the revealing
sun
Thy form which all should see, that all who
see may shun."

There is a good deal too about ancient Britons, "Deva's wizard Flood;" *Charactacus*, *Madoc*, and *Hoel*; *Hesus*, and *Taranis*, and so forth—names of barbaric celebrity, which in the nineteenth century might perhaps be suffered to sink into oblivion without any great loss to mankind.

The style of our author is not always

so correct as might be expected from a scholar; for instance—

—————"seem'd
Solemn to utter loud mysterious sounds.
A custom this I frequent have observed."

—————"a gloom
Mournful o'erspread my breast."
"Dreadly poise each weight of shield."

"O my prophetic soul!
Impatient of controul
Thou rushest *fateful* on thro' evil days."

How can the *soul* be *fateful*? "*Dreadly*" is a new coinage to which we shall not contribute to give currency.

We conceive that there is an anachronism in making the followers of *Odin knights*. "*Cherubic thought*" is no very happy novelty.

"Melancholy *morbid* maid,"
we have often heard of *morbid affections* and *morbid actions*, but never yet of *morbid patients*.

"Loud fall the tower'd towns renown'd."

Is there any error of the press in this jingling line?

"The aromatic bowers
Of *Arab*,"

we never before met with in prose or verse.

In the poem entitled "*Britannia*," after indignant mention of the execution of *Louis XVI*. Mr. Richards proceeds thus:

"Yet to desert shall human-kind be true,
And virtue meet on earth her awful due:
Ages to come shall annual pomps bestow,
And give the consecrated day to woe:
The hallow'd taper o'er thy tomb shall shine;
And sacred hymns be chaunted round thy
shrine."

While pious millions at their altars bend,
And bless the spirit of their martyr'd friend.
The pensive priest with aid and delight shall
tread

The solemn spot where holy *Louis* bled:
There melting Pity of thy fall shall tell;
There on thy memory lonely Thought shall
dwell;

And weeping Freedom endless vigils keep,
O sainted Sufferer, where thy ashes sleep."

Is it by virtue of his poetic function, or his degree of *M. A.* that our *Oxonian* ventures to add a saint to the calendar? "*The Aboriginal Britons*," the best of these poems, is only a republication.

ART. XXI. *Poems, sacred, moral, and descriptive: to which are added four Essays.* By JOSEPH JEFFERSON. 8vo. pp. 195.

IN this methodistical volume there is a striking instance of the power which

dulness possesses of assimilating every thing to itself.

"While Vict'ry wav'd the palm of war,
 Britannia's sons had won ;
 While shouts of triumph heard afar,
 Proclaim the deeds her conqu'ring troops had
 done.

"A single soldier, sad and pale,
 Amidst the lengthen'd file,
 Could heave a sigh at woe's dread tale,
 And pensive, on his musket lean'd the while.
 'What! my brave soldier,—why so griev'd,
 (A martial hero cries),
 Why is the pensive sigh thus heav'd
 While shouts of glorious vict'ry rend the skies?'
 An't please your honour, 'twas replied,
 While I this scene survey,—
 What numbers by this musket dy'd !
 Sad thought! I fight for a few pence a day."

The reply of the soldier to the duke
 of Marlborough, which is thus *doggerel-
 ized*, was simply this—"An't please your
 honour I was thinking what a hard day's

work I've done for sixpence!" Never
 was there a better specimen of that pre-
 cious alchemy which transmutes gold
 into lead.

Mr. Jefferson has an Essay on the
 Conduct of Calvin in the Affair of Ser-
 vetus. When he adduces proofs that
 Melancthon approved of this persecu-
 tion, and that all the reformers thought
 it right to persecute; so far he shows
 his individual learning. But when he
 excuses or justifies the execution by
 saying that Servetus had indeed long
 disturbed the church, by propagating
 the most blasphemous heresies, waxing
 worse and worse, deceiving and being
 deceived; he then shews what is the
 principle of the *United Calvinists*, and
 what would be their practice.

ART. XXII. *The Grampians desolate; a Poem.* By ALEXANDER CAMPBELL. 8VO.
 pp. 316.

"LET the astrologer," says Milton,
 "be dismayed at the portentous blaze of
 comets, and impressions in the air as fore-
 telling troubles and changes to states;
 I shall believe there cannot be a more
 ill-boding sign to a nation (God turn
 the omen from us!) than when the inha-
 bitants, to avoid insufferable grievances
 at home, are inforced by heaps to for-
 sake their native country."

Mr. Campbell is no poet, and but a
 very bad versifier: but his intentions are
 excellently good, and he has brought to-
 gether in his notes much curious informa-
 tion respecting the original system and
 habits of life of the Highlanders. The
 best lines in his volume are those which
 occur in the beginning.

"Amid these Alpine wilds remote I
 roam

From thee, my Clementina, far from home
 I wander pensive, lonely, and unseen,
 As thus I gaze o'er all the altered scene,
 Where thy renown'd fore-fathers in the chase
 Were wont to speed.—How desolate the
 place

Where erst the hall resounded in high joy;
 Where innocently gay thou didst employ
 The swift-wing'd moments of life's early dawn
 Along the wooded stream, or flowery lawn,
 How sadly changed! How desolate the
 waste!—

Save where yon shepherd and his dog in haste
 Ascend the mountain's brow, the fleecy
 charge

To toil among, as far they stray at large,
 No trace of human step the eye perceives!—
 In vain the feeling bosom pining heaves,
 Since dire Depopulation's deepening gloom
 Spreads all the horrors of a living tomb!—

'Tis vain to murmur, since no powerful arm
 Is left to save a land from hopeless harm!—

"Where now the guardian chiefs hu-
 mane and just?

Dispers'd some wander—many sleep in dust—
 While some, to honour lost, mind nought
 save gain:—

But few, alas! of sterling worth remain!—
 Ah! how unlike the chiefs, in times of old,
 Who, mindful of their kindred, nor for gold,
 Nor sordid gain, nor selfish narrow views
 The bonds of sacred friendship would un-
 loose!—

How changed of late!—The chieftains of
 these times

Behold with apathy to distant climes
 Their kinsmen sore oppress'd, deluded go,
 But to encounter poverty and woe!—
 Oh! with what rapture could the muse re-
 late

The mild contentment of their former state,
 When calm domestic joys beam'd in each
 eye,

And every heart was glad, and none knew
 why;

When every glen, and hill, and mountain's
 side,

A hardy race possess'd, proud Albion's pride!
 —The times are altered—desolation reigns
 Amidst these Alpine wilds and narrow plains!
 The mournful Muse recounts those recent
 ills

Which swept around the hoary Grampian
 hills!

"And dost thou, Stranger from afar, en-
 quire

Where stood the chieftain's hall, whose
 evening fire

Saluted oft the weary traveller's gaze,
 As onward hastening to the social blaze?

Where stood each lowly cottage rang'd
 around,

Within the cultur'd in-field's ancient bound:

Beside the streamlet, near the sheltering hill,
Where stood the smithy, where the hamlet's mill,

Whose ringing anvil, and whose clapper, told
Their cheering tales of toil to young and old :
Where old and young did usually resort

To loiter gaily,—join some harmless sport,
Or “Tales of other times,” with glee rehearse,

Or praises challenge by some new-made verse :

Perchance, some strange or interesting news
Excite the curious rustics, or amuse ;—

With keen avidity they still enquire,
And gaze and wonder much,—and more admire.—

Where stood the aged Ollamhan's hallow'd shed,

That shelter'd from the storm his hoary head :
Save heath-spread ridges, or some moss-clad mound,

No trace of ancient times can now be found !

“More recent evils, Stranger ! I deplore
The Gael are banish'd from their native shore !”

The rural æconomy which is noticed in these lines is thus explained :

“As the Tighearna, Cean-Finich, or chief, had under his patriarchal protection, chieftains, and heads of families, and those again still more subordinate adherents of still lower condition, besides mere labourers or herdsmen, the possessions were of consequence subdivided conformable to this order ; and accordingly we find that the laird, lord, or tighearna, had his place of residence on a bold projecting rock hanging over a sea arm, or on an islet in a lake ; or at the confluence of a river, to which several mountain-streams are tributary ; along the banks of which, among the windings of the narrow glens, the houses and huts of the subordinate chieftains, heads of families, lesser branches, poorer relatives, and menial dependents, had their *in-field* and *out-field* possessions ; of which traces are still observable where those subdivisions of arable lands took place. Now the farms consisted of three divisions, viz. *in-field*, *out-field*, and *hill-pasture*. The *in-field* was so called from the circumstance of its being that division of the arable ground which was inclosed with either a turf, or stone wall, and was kept in constant tillage. The *out-field* was that division immediately adjoining the former, which was but occasionally ploughed ; and, after it had afforded a few successive crops, was suffered to acquire a sward spontaneously ; after which it was again tilled, and a few more scanty crops reaped, till it was completely exhausted. This mode of agriculture requires no comment. Those two divisions were subdivided into what is termed *runrig*, *rig-and-tennet*, or *rig-and-balk*, a wretched relic of feudal times, when the conflict of the clans raged throughout the Grampians and western isles. In order that each individual should have an interest

in common to stimulate him in the defence of the cause, his possessions lay dispersed here and there among those of his neighbours. And the one *rig* (ridge) running in a direction (generally curvilinear) to that of another, with interstices, consisting of stones heaped up that were gathered year after year when labouring the ground, which was called the *balk* ; or, if free from stones, those interstices served for pasture, on which the calves were tethered during summer and autumn ; and also, (particularly on the borders), those interstices being always clear of any corn-crop, whenever a marauding party made their appearance, the alarm was given ; and each male capable of defending his property *ran up the rig* to oppose them hand to hand.”

Sometime in May the cattle of every description were driven to the hill pastures, where they were kept till toward the end of autumn. In the green coves or vallies of the mountain which were called *airidh*, the huts or *boibans* were pitched. Whole families removed together in this manner to the summer pastures. It is scarcely possible to conceive a mode of life more favourable to health and happiness.

The division of lands was strictly feudal.

“The ancient usage, privilege, or right, of the Gael, which, simply considered, amounts to neither more nor less than inheriting, as they were wont time immemorial, their *duas*, *duchas*, or hereditary possessions in the order already specified, according to their proximity to the chief, of whom the chieftains, heads of families, or principal tacksmen, sub-tenants, viz. small farmers, crofters, and cottars, held their lands and places of abode. The chieftains and principal tacksmen were in the rank of gentlemen. The sub-tenants, or small farmers, were *half-gentlemen*, (a term very well understood among the higher classes), the crofters and cottars, were what were called, by way of distinction, *commoners*, (another term very well understood among the highland noblesse) on whom devolved the lower employments of the field, fold, oar, &c. Some of the chieftains who had not been provided with free possessions from their chief or common progenitor, were tacksmen, and held in lease a pretty considerable stretch of country, consisting of infield and outfield or arable land, common-moor, and hill-pasture ; and those were let in lease again in smaller lots to sub-tenants, crofters, and cottars. The ancient mode of computing the value of such possessions, was very simple and convenient ; which was either in money, or in grain ; in the former case, lands were valued at pennies, halfpennies, farthings, clittings, placks, bodles, &c. ; in the latter case sheaves, half-sheaves, &c. A principal tack-

man possessed lands to the value of from twenty to forty or more pennies, for which he paid a yearly rent during the currency of his tack or lease. Of this extensive portion of land he sub-set a third part, and sometimes two-thirds, to small farmers, crofters, and cottars. Each farmer may possess one sheaf, one and a half, or two sheaves of valued land, or in Scots money, one farthing, one half-penny, or one penny, according to the specific agreement of parties. A crofter has a small lot of arable ground called *croft* or *croft*, on which he has a house or hut, a *kail-yard*, ground for raising as much crop as will keep a cow, which yields him milk and butter to his meal and potatoes. A *cottar* has only a cot or shed of the humblest sort, a *kail-yard*, and a small piece of ground for potatoes. This then was the order of the subdivision of land, according to ancient usage, privilege, or right, of the several classes of the inhabitants of the Hebrides and Grampian mountains, till within these forty or five-and-forty-years; when those rights were disregarded; and the *duchas* of the tacksman which had descended from father to son for many generations, as a species of patrimony, sacred as the heritage of the proprietor himself, was entirely abolished. Before this, however, took place, the tacksmen lived comfortably as gentlemen: the sub-tenants, or farmers, lived decently in their huts, grouped, it is true, with but little regard to cleanliness, or much comfort, forming, as it were, a community, in which their privileges and rights were scrupulously respected and maintained; and while their live-stock grazed in common beyond the head-dykes, and through the upland-pastures in summer and autumn, their arable lands were divided yearly by lot, as already noticed; and thus the whole demesnes of the chief, or common father, was apportioned, according to the rank or condition of each individual of the miniature commonwealth;—a mode the most congenial with the patriarchal system; and the best adapted for a peculiar people, such as the Gael, or inhabitants of the Hebrides and Grampian districts."

The conduct of the Scotch lairds is as illegal as it is inhuman and iniquitous. Our best laws are those which have grown out of custom; what has been the custom of the country for time immemorial is the law of the country. Every individual of a clan has as legal a claim to his inheritance as the chieftain. But of what avail is the right when it cannot be vindicated? The law is impartial, but not the administration of law: between equals it is equal; but if the life of the late lord Lonsdale were recorded, volumes of facts would appear to prove that it is possible to commit the most barefaced and wanton acts

of injustice, and yet set the law at defiance. The gates of law do not stand open day and night; they are closed, and will open to none but those who bring with them the master-key of gold. The Scotch chieftain gives warning to his clan to quit their hereditary possessions; they have no alternative but that of wandering to seek employment, or emigrating—that of starving at home, or encountering the yellow fever abroad. It is not easy, says Mr. Campbell, to conceive the manifold miseries to which many of the ejected inhabitants of the Grampians are exposed, when they wander to any of the towns or cities of the low country, without any determinate object in view; and they can have no determinate object, having been wholly accustomed to agriculture, which every where finds sufficient hands. One melancholy instance fell under this gentleman's own observation.

"It was in the depth of winter (in the year 1781); a heavy fall of snow had lain long on the ground; the north wind blew keenly, and chilled one almost to death, when Alexander Lawson, a well disposed person (by trade a weaver) came to me and requested my charity for a poor, destitute family, who had taken shelter in a wretched hovel, a few doors from his workshop. My curiosity being excited by the description he gave of their deplorable condition, I accordingly followed him to the spot. We descended a few steps into what had once, perhaps, been a cellar. A small lamp placed in one corner of this hole, for it could not be called a habitable place, gave hardly sufficient light to shew the miserable state of those persons who had taken shelter in it from the inclemency of the storm. In one row, on a bed of straw made on the cold damp floor, were laid three men: their only covering plaid, for they were highlanders, and their dissolution seemed fast approaching. A woman, apparently past the middle period of life, who supported the head of the eldest on her lap, lifted up her eyes, as we entered, looked wistfully at us, and shook her head, but uttered not a word, nor did a sigh escape her.—"Alas! good woman," said I, "have you no one to look after you, in this destitute condition?"—"She can converse in no other save that of her native tongue," said my conductor; and I addressed her in that language, when she instantly raised her eyes, in which a faint gleam of joy seemed to sparkle. Laying the head of her husband (for such the eldest of the three men was) gently down on the straw, she suddenly sprang up, came forward, seized me by both hands, cast a look upwards, and exclaimed, "O God! whom hast Thou sent to comfort

us!" Then looking me steadfastly in the face, she said, "In this wretched condition you thus see me among strangers. My husband, and these my two sons, are fast hastening to their graves. Nine days and nights has their blood boiled in the malignant illness you now see wasting them. It is now almost three days since I tasted the last morsel of bread." She then turned to her dying family, wrung her hands, and remained silent. On turning from this affecting scene, I observed a decent old woman coming forward to enquire for the unhappy sufferers; and, by the interest she seemed to take in their welfare, it led me to hope that, through her kind assistance, I should be enabled to afford them some relief. Having in the mean time ordered them an immediate supply of things absolutely necessary, I made haste to call in medical assistance; but, alas! it was too late; for the fever had already wasted the living energy in them; and, notwithstanding every possible aid art could administer under such unfavourable circumstances as their cases presented, when I called next morning, I found the father and his eldest son in the agonies of death. All was silent. In a few minutes, the young man breathed his last. And now quivering in the pangs of dissolution, the old man lay on his back—his eyes fixed—the death-film covering them, and the dead rattle, as it is called, indicating the near approach of the end of his earthly troubles. When a reasonable time had elapsed, I learned the story of this family from the unfortunate widow herself, the particulars of which, so far as I recollect, are nearly the following.—There was not a happier pair in the whole parish, (which lay on the banks of the Spey), than the father and mother of this poor family, till, by reason of the introduction of a new set of tenants from a distant part of the country, the small farmers were ejected; among whom were the subjects of this simple narrative. To add to their misfortunes, their third son, a lad about fourteen, was affected with a white-swelling (as it is called) in his knee-joint, which prevented him from walking; and, when the family took their departure for the low-country, the father and his other two sons were obliged to carry this poor lame one on a hand-barrow; and thus travelled onward till they reached Aberdeen; where they got him put safely into the hospital of that city; but he was soon after dismissed incurable; and their little all being nearly spent, they were at a loss what next to do for subsistence. They were advised to travel to Edinburgh, in order to procure medical assistance for the lad; and get into some way of gaining an honest livelihood somewhere in or near the capital. To Edinburgh, therefore, they directed their course; and, after a tedious journey of many days, they found themselves within a short distance of the city. But, by this time the little money

they had saved from the sale of their effects, was gone; and they now were reduced to a state of absolute want. To beg they were ashamed; but starve they must, in the event they could find no immediate employment. But, from humane and charitably disposed persons they at last were obliged to implore assistance; and by this means they found their way to Edinburgh; where, soon after, the unfortunate lad whom they had carried in the way already mentioned, from Aberdeen, was admitted a patient into the Royal Infirmary. It was now the beginning of harvest. The high price of labour in the north of England, compared with that in the south of Scotland, induces many of our highlanders to go thither, in order to earn as much as possibly they can, during the season of reaping in that quarter. This poor family, among other reapers, travelled southward:—but it was a sad journey to them: for being soon seized with fever and ague, thus were they at once plunged into the deepest distress, far from their native home, and without a friend in the world to look after them. Not even suffered to remain any time in one place, they were barbarously hurried from parish to parish, as the custom is, till they reached Edinburgh, where being safely placed in the hospital, they soon recovered. But, on making enquiry after the lad left behind when they went to England, they were informed of his death, which happened a few days before their admission into the infirmary. They now were dismissed cured;—but, where to take shelter they knew not! for they had not a soul in the city to assist them in the smallest matter. Feeble, tottering, and faint with hunger, they wandered about the streets until the evening, when they crept into that wretched hovel, in which I found them."

The conduct of government with respect to the Highlands is truly praiseworthy as far as it goes. It is however to be wished that they would go to the root of the evil, and pass a law to confirm these oppressed people in possession of their inheritance. We are now driving into exile a race of brave and generous men, who have ever distinguished themselves in fighting our battles. Before they leave their native country they swear to each other upon their broadswords to return and take vengeance if ever it shall be possible. Would it be strange if in some hour of natural indignation they should swear rather to stay and maintain their rights by the sword, or die upon their own fields? Such a rebellion would undoubtedly be quelled, but it would lead government to those measures, which, if adopted now, may prevent the possibility of evil.

The profits arising from the sale of this publication are intended to lay the foundation of a fund for the aid of industrious peasants and tradesmen who shall hereafter incline to become settlers,

or cultivators of waste land in any part of Great Britain. A prospectus of the proposed institution, which is called the Fund of Aid for Waste Land Cultivators, is annexed to the volume.

ART. XXIII. *The Reign of Fancy, a Poem, with Notes, lyric Tales. By the Author "of the Pleasures of Nature."* 12mo. pp. 179.

THE author of this little volume, Mr. Carey, acknowledges in his preface, that in "The Reign of Fancy," (which was once intended to have been published as the third part of the *Pleasures of Nature*) he has "given a loose to all the vagaries of an ungovernable imagination;" and that he now offers his poem to the public "with a degree of diffidence and anxiety, bordering upon terror."

There is indeed an incoherence in the succession of images, a wildness in the poem and want of plan, which, notwithstanding some intrinsic beauties, might well produce an anxiety for its fate in the mind of a modest author, not unconscious of its demerits. We are shocked at being told however, that this anxiety is so intense as to "border upon terror;" and we feel it a duty incumbent on us very seriously to warn the author, who probably is a young man, against suffering himself to be thus made the sport and plaything of hope and fear; passions, which, like every other, are prejudicial or conducive to happiness, exactly as their influence on the soul is despotic and imperious, or controuled by the dominion of reason.

We could select from this little volume several passages of much poetical beauty: the power of music to elevate the soul is thus described with delicacy and feeling:

"So, when the organ lifts the soul on high,

And peals the soft, sweet music of the sky,
While rapt Attention lists seraphic strains,
Above, below, around enchantment reigns!

"When Ocean's waves reflect the sun's last light,

And Vesper leads the starry train of night,
Who swells the choral incense of the even,
Night's sacred melody the songs of heaven!

ART. XXIV. *Poems, Elegiac and Miscellaneous; by Mr. HACKETT.* 12mo. pp. 184.

MR. HACKETT is his own reviewer; he tells us, perhaps very truly, in the preface and in various scattered stanzas,

And whose the hand the woodland harp that wakes,

When eve's lone songstress warbles from the brakes?

So softly swell the murmurs of the lyre,

Æolian spirits wander on the wire,

And love-sick virgins hang upon the strain,

And pity melts with ecstasy of pain;

A thousand sweets endear the hollow'd ground,

A thousand fond illusions swarm around!

"Hence virtue more than mortal charms acquires,

Hope borrows strength, and Science trims her fires;

What time such pure intelligence is lent,

The mind grows conscious of her high descent:

What is the spark of intellectual light?

Creation is too narrow for her flight!"

The following simile is pleasing, though perhaps it would have been more correct, had the mountain's torrent, instead of losing itself at last "midst fields and flowers," reposed within the margin of some peaceful and sequestered lake:

"When all the bursts of passion are no more,

And all the vanities of life are o'er,

Love rears his home beneath the greenwood tree,

And sage Experience bears him company.

So pours the torrent with resistless force,

O'er many a mountain-precipice its course,

To lose itself at last 'mid fields and flowers,

Beneath the shade of solitary bowers."

The rhyme in the second couplet is bad.

We could select some other passages of equal merit, and yet the poem as a whole leaves no impression on the mind: it has melody to please the ear, but nothing to satisfy the understanding or engage the heart.

tile fancy. No one who reads these elegiac moanings will question the sincerity of this last avowal, and giving Mr. Hackett credit in the one case, it would be very unfair to withhold it from him in the other. We must confess, however, that marks of admiration, ahs! and ohs! dashes, pauses, mysterious pauses, afford not, in our opinion, any stronger evidence of fine feeling than they do of good taste. We see in these poems a great many prettinesses of expression, much alliterative labour, and such frequent attempts to produce a concordance of sound and sense, as indicate, that, for one voluntary contribution from the heart there has been many a severe assessment levied upon the head.

One of the sonnets begins thus:—

“ Ah! why that gloom upon each crimson face,
Where sparkling tears their crystal course pursue?
Rather should mirth each gladden'd feature grace,
And ev'ry feeling to the mien be true.”

Another, written on a stormy night:—

“ Loud howls the wind along the blacken'd sky,
And drives infuriate 'gainst the crystal pane,
That, sounding, clashes with the big-dropt rain;—
At which I shiv'ring, start—and heave a sigh.”

This *shiv'ring* is a beggarly feeling: the *start* is dramatic enough; and as to the sigh, it is kindly intended, no doubt, and may be admitted as evidence of exquisite sensibility! Mr. H. is very lavish of his sighs: well may he exclaim in an address to Anna:

“ If sorrow mark thee her devoted prey,
Turn the soft lustre of thine eyes to me;
I'll chase the sadness from thy breast away,
And sigh enough, my lovely girl, for thee.”

“ Sighing never won a maid,” says an old song: we suspect Mr. H. has at length discovered what will, by his address to the “*Maid with a burning kiss*.” We are glad to see him in so jocund a humour on the occasion:

“ Though the mandates of destiny bid me depart
From Albion's gay vallies and beautiful plains,
And tear me from objects endear'd to my heart,
In an instant I'd conquer my fostering pains
With the exquisite thought of the seraphic bliss
Bestow'd on the maid with a burning kiss.”

We find several extravagant conceits in these poems: take the following air:

“ Flow, silver stream! in murmurs flow,
And catch my lightly-falling tears,
Preserve the symbols of my woe
Till sorrow's fount extinct appears.
Then kindly give me all my store,
As tears can yield a balm to grief,
That I may shed them o'er and o'er,
And feel a soothing, sweet relief.”

On returning to London from a visit to the coast, Mr. H. expresses his regret that he has no longer an opportunity of swimming, in the following curious stanza:

“ Nor with an eager and a panting heart
The silver surface of the surge divide;
And by the dalliance of the finny art
Beneath the ocean, for a time abide.”

Mr. H. has had the courage to write an elegy on the death of Cowper; it is not without its prettinesses;

“ Hark! how the Naiads of the silver waves
In murmurs, gentle as the dying air,
Bemoan the minstrel from their pearly caves,
And curl their eddies to the strains of care!”

We shall not stop to notice others of them, but it is impossible to pass over without censure the following stanza:

“ Yet, sorrow knew him as her darling child,
And rudely tost him on her stormy waves,
Deform'd his nature from a lambkin mild,
To a fierce tyger that infuriate raves!”

If Cowper had been the rankest bigot and most unrelenting persecutor that the world ever saw, he could not have merited a harsher character.

We must not occupy so much room in censure as to leave none for praise: we have pleasure in transcribing an elegy written on the marriage of a young lady, which bears the impression, we suspect, of no imaginary sorrow, no unreal regret. The subject of this disappointment is occasionally alluded to elsewhere; and the allusion we observe is always devoid of that whining sentimental cant, which is easily distinguishable from the genuine unsophisticated feelings of the heart.

ELEGY,

Written on the Marriage of a Young Lady

“ For her this bosom heav'd its earliest sigh,
And fondly fram'd each gay, fantastic dream;

'Twas her fair form first fix'd my ardent eye,
And rul'd my feelings with command supreme.

'Twas she, whose beauties, in the calm of night,
When the blest hamlet had awhile repos'd,
Led me to loiter, in the moon's mild light,
Around the mansion where she sweetly doz'd.

Though still a stripling—an enthusiast boy,
Not yet emerg'd from the corrective school,
Now hope deceiv'd me with illusive joy,
And gilt the visions of a sanguine fool!

Her seraph-charms upon the couch of rest,
How oft has Fancy pencil'd to my view,
With loves disporting on her lily-breast,
And fragrance breathing from her lips of dew!

Oh!—if, indulgent to my tender woe,
Some gentle comrade would attend my plaint,

With warmest raptures would my accents flow,
And paint her lovely as a sky-born saint.

Oft would I dwell upon her cheek's soft glow,
Whose tints reflected a delightful grace,
And turn with anguish to some rival foe,
Who own'd, like me, the magic of her face.

ART. XXV. *Lewesdon Hill, considerably enlarged: with other Poems; by the REV. WM. CROWE, of New College, LL. B. 12mo. pp. 115.*

THE merits of this delightful poem are too well known to need our praise: we have only to regret that Mr. Crowe, who writes so admirably, should have written so little.

The following lines are interesting for their own merit, and because there is an anecdote concerning them which ought not to be forgotten.

“ VERSES,

Intended to have been spoken in the Theatre, to the Duke of Portland, at his Installation as Chancellor of the University of Oxford, in the Year 1793.

“ In evil hour, and with unhallow'd voice,
Profaning the pure gift of Poesy,
Did he begin to sing. He, first who sung
Of arms and combats, and the proud array
Of warriors on th' embattled plain, and raised
Th' aspiring spirit to hopes of fair renown
By deeds of violence!—For since that time
Th' imperious victor oft, unsatisfy'd
With bloody spoil and tyrannous conquest,
dares
To challenge fame and honour; and too oft
The poet, bending low, to lawless pow'r
Hath paid unseemly reverence, yea, and
brought
Streams clearest of th' Aonian fount to wash
ANN. REV. VOL. III.

That friend would chase the tremors of my mind
With blissful prospects, which his kindness drew,
And urge the strength of reasons he assign'd,
That I was only favour'd in her view.

Ah me! his voice was heaven to mine ear,
And sweet Ambrosia in his language fell;
His soft tones prov'd oblivion to each fear,
While rapt attention on his tongue would dwell.

Nor, when the progress of increasing hours
Launch'd me afloat upon the tide of life,
Did Time diminish her enchanting powers;
Still, still, I sigh'd to own her as a wife.

Alas! the mention of that startling name
Arouses vengeance in my mad'ning soul,
And strongly prompts me to enforce my claim,
And tear the object from unjust controul.

No: let the viper perish from my thought,
And clouds o'erveil the horrors of the scene:
May mem'ry blast the traces it has wrought,
Nor longer whelm me in the shades of spleen!”

enlarged: with other Poems; by the REV. Public Orator to the University of Oxford.

Blood-stain'd Ambition. If the stroke of war

Fell certain on the guilty head, none else,
If they that make the cause might taste th' effect,
And drink, themselves, the bitter cup they mix,

Then might the bard (tho' child of peace) delight

To twine fresh wreaths around the Conqueror's brow;

Or haply strike his high-toned harp, to swell
The trumpet's martial sound, and bid them on

Whom Justice arms for vengeance; but, alas!
That undistinguishing and deathful storm
Beats heaviest on th' exposed innocent,
And they that stir its fury, while it raves, ¶
Stand at safe distance, send their mandate forth

Unto the mortal ministers that wait
To do their bidding.—Ah! who then regards
The widow's tears, the friendless orphan's cry,

And Famine, and the ghastly train of woes
That follow at the dogged heels of War?
They, in the pomp and pride of victory
Rejoicing, o'er the desolated earth,
As at an altar wet with human blood,
And flaming with the fire of cities burnt,
Sing their mad hymns of triumphs; hymns
to God,

O'er the destruction of his gracious works !
Hymns to the Father, o'er his slaughter'd
sons !

Detested be their sword ! abhor'd their
name,
And scorn'd the tongues that praise them !—
Happier Thou,
Of peace and science friend, hast held thy
course
Blameless and pure ; and such is thy renown.
And let that secret voice within thy breast
Approve thee, then shall these high sounds
of praise
Which thou hast heard, be as sweet harmony,
Beyond this concave to the starry sphere
Ascending, where the spirits of the blest
Hear it well pleas'd :—For Fame can enter
Heaven,
If Truth and Virtue lead her ; else, forbid,
She rises not above this earthly spot ;
And then her voice, transient and valueless,
Speaks only to the herd.—With other praise
And worthier duty may She tend on Thee,
Follow thee still with honour, such as time
Shall never violate, and with just applause,
Such as the wise and good might love to
share."

These verses were rehearsed in the theatre, but not permitted to be spoken, because the University of Oxford did not approve the sentiments which they express. Many poems were spoken on that occasion, and they are gone the way of all such poems. This, which was rejected, is the only one that survives.

ART. XXVI. *Bickleigh Vale, with other Poems.* By NATHANIEL HOWARD. 12mo. pp. 139.

BICKLEY Vale is a poem in blank-verse, purely descriptive of rural scenery : here and there we catch a natural picture, and there is generally rather a want of spirit than of accuracy. Mr. Howard is more successful in his translations than in his original compositions ; the translation of *La Tempesta*, from Metastasio, is particularly happy. Mr. H. has ventured a few short Latin odes ; the language is easy and fluent.

The Ode to Horror wants revision :

"Horror ! with strange delightful fear
Lead any fit soul to deserts drear ;
To churchyards where hyenas roam,
And tear the body from the tomb."

Hyenas, we apprehend, do not frequent

ART. XXVII. *Wallace; or, the Vale of Ellerslie, with other Poems.* By JOHN FINLAY. 12mo. pp. 170.

MR. Finlay notices in his preface the coincidence of plan between his own

We copy one more piece from this valuable volume :

"Inscribed beneath the Picture of an Ass
"Meek animal, whose simple mien
Provokes th' insulting eye of Spleen
To mock the melancholy trait
Of patience in thy front display'd,
By thy Great Author fitly so portray'd,
To character the sorrows of thy fate ;
Say, Heir of misery, what to thee
Is life ?—A long, long gloomy stage
Thro' the sad vale of labour and of pain !
No pleasure hath thine youth, no rest thine
age,
Nor in the vasty round of this terrene
Hast thou a friend to set thee free,
Till Death, perhaps too late,
In the dark evening of thy cheerless day,
Shall take thee, fainting on thy way,
From the rude storm of unresisted hate.

Yet dares the erroneous crowd to mark
With folly thy despised race,
Th' ungovernable pack, who bark
With impious howlings in Heaven's awful
face,
If e'er on their impatient head
Affliction's bitter show'r is shed.

But 'tis the weakness of thy kind
Meekly to bear the inevitable sway ;
The wisdom of the human mind
Is to murmur and obey."

The Latin poem, entitled *Romulus*, is so good that we wish Mr. Crowe had added a translation for the sake of his unlearned readers.

the haunts of church-going men.

"Stern, awful Horror ! thou can'st tell
What pangs the mother's bosom swell
When bare on distant rocks outcast
Her child's corse blisters to the blast,
Alone, unnoticed ;—while the surge
Hoarse heaving, moans the incoherent
dirge !"

The picture of the ship-wrecked mother beholding, from the rock on which she had escaped, the floating body of her child, is well imagined ; but its effect is almost entirely destroyed by the sing-song alliteration, and the silly conceit of the dirge being chanted by the moaning waves.

poem and the Minstrel, as a fact of which he was unconscious till it was pointed

out to him. To us it appears that the young author (for young we conclude him to be) is affected by good poetry, just as he is by fine scenery; both impress him strongly, and excite the wish of embodying his feelings, and thus his own poetry becomes imitative, exactly as it becomes descriptive. He may not have designed to copy the Minstrel, but would he ever have written Wallace if the Minstrel had not pre-existed?

The following poems evidently show that this author has been an attentive reader of the Lyrical Ballads.

THE ROOKAN.

"Sure there's a spirit

That dwells amid the mingled sounds that fill

The woodland gloom, and while thro' all the soul

Nature delights to pour her melody
Of echoing glens and foaming cataracts,
Swells into extasy each slumbering sense.—
While dreams, that love to haunt the Poet's mind,

In long succession play; till the fair scene
Presents a form that fancy's happiest hour
Faintly has fashion'd.—

The tall rocky cliff

That canopies the dim-seen stream below,
Seems like some hoary castle from its height
Low'ring destruction; save that for the tones
Of minstrelsy, amid the armed hall,
The dell rings loud with the deep mellow note
Of woodland thrush.

How darkly seen above

The wild recesses of the hanging cliff,
And o'er the pathless steep how sweetly waves
The light-branch'd birch; how softly thro' its leaves
Steals the low-murmuring gale;—while far beneath
Rolls the smooth current, 'mid o'erhanging wood,
Scarce twinkling thro' the foliage. 'Tis a place
Where one might sit and think the live-long day,
And yet not mark the fiery sun uprise,
And yet not mark the gradual soft decline.
Where one might live from youth to hoary age,
And yet not mark the change.—Each flow'r that blows
Along the margent side, each tree that rears
Its green head o'er the wave, would sweetly blend
With individual feeling, and become
The register of thought —"

"Thy steps shall trace the sounding dell,
The wild sequester'd glade,
The mazes of the winding glen
And the deep woodland shade.

Their mingled charms thy soul shall bless,
A tender joy bestowing;
—Ah! who can tell the tender joys
From nature's beauties flowing?

While the dark stream, and waving wood,
With hues contrasted shine,
A holy charm shall softly blend
Their being into thine.

From ev'ry bank, from ev'ry tree,
A nameless rapture stealing,
Thro' ev'ry slumbering sense shall wake
A richer, finer feeling.

And when the woodland path is strewn
With leaves so cold and sere,
When ev'ry vivid bloom deserts
The desolated year—

When fast on earth the whelming rains
And wreathy flakes are falling,
Then mem'ry's pictur'd ray shall beam,
All nature's joys recalling."

Whoever is acquainted with the admirable poems of Mr. Wordsworth will immediately perceive the resemblance. The following also was produced by the same imitative power, which, if Mr. Finlay be a young poet, as we imagine, promises well.

DIRGE.

"A Knight there came from the field of slain,
His steed was drench'd with the falling rain:
He rode to the forest to rest his head,
Till day should dawn on his grassy bed;
But his wounds bled fast, and his courser fell,
Ere he reach'd the brook in the forest dell.
His shield hung low, and the moon's wan beam
Shone sad and soft, on the murmuring stream!
He could not wind his bugle horn,
And he died at the brook ere the early morn.
—Pray for the soul of the knight, who fell
At the mossy brook in the forest dell.—"

The Three Ravens are the prototype of this. We do not notice these resemblances with any design of detracting from the author's merit. It is with poets as with painters: no one ever attained to excellence himself who did not rightly understand the excellence of the great masters of his art, and passionately admire their works. We do not often meet with a volume from which so many interesting extracts might be made.

We add one more, as being more original than what we have previously quoted.

"As on a meadow-bank I lay,
Amid the exuberance of May,

All listlessly—within my breast,
By wild and wand'ring thoughts possess'd,
I felt a wish—I hope no crime—
To put my mistresses in rhyme.

On the sloe bush the Linnet swung,
And soft and sweet his ditty sung:
His gay meand'ring carol ended,
The Lark in circling flight descended:
Murmuring low my seat beside,
The Bees their noon-tide labour plied:
A brook that winded gently near,
Stole with wild music on my ear;
Wild yet sweet, its melody
Murmur'd with the murmuring bee.
—O'er the brink the broom hung low,
Soft its golden tresses glow;
Every sweep the branches made,
Quiver'd in the wat'ry glade.

“ Oh! 'mid a scene so fair, could love
One wish excite, or feeling move;
Could ev'n the fond look, the melting eye

All tearful, or the vow that trembles in a
sigh,
Have charms for me—No! no, I'm free—
Nature thou my mistress be!—”

Some inaccuracies of language occur in this volume—as, in the last extract—winded for wound. Wallace is called Wallace the Wight, or the Wallace-Wight, or Wight of Ellerslie. Whatever feeling Mr. Finlay may associate with this word, it has been so long appropriated to hudibrastic poetry, that most of his readers will find it ludicrous. If he will reflect a moment he will find that he has sometimes used it without any meaning at all.

If we have particularized the faults rather than the merits of this volume, it is because the faults deserve to be pointed out in deference to the merits.

ART. XXVIII. *Love Letters to my Wife; written in the year 1789.* By JAMES WOODHOUSE. Vol. I. 12mo. pp. 169.

THESE Letters, written after a conjugal union of twenty-eight years, do credit to the feelings, as well of the wife to whom they are addressed, as of the author himself. Each, it is evident, has shared the happiness and alleviated the cares of the other; and in every humble life they have both illustrated the effects of domestic harmony, by an example which the titled libertine may profitably envy.

Mr. Woodhouse satirizes the fashionable vices and follies of the great, and

not the least useful part of his moral seems to be to make those in a low sphere of life contented with their situation. His verse is certainly not very nervous or highly polished; and we seriously advise the author not to publish a second volume of these Love Letters, until he can fairly anticipate its success by a sufficient sale of the present.

Mr. W. is the Woodstock shoe-maker, whose poem entitled Norbury Park, we reviewed in our last volume.

ART. XXIX. *Village Scenes, the Progress of Agriculture, and other Poems.* By T. BACHELOR. 12mo. pp. 138.

MR. BACHELOR is by occupation a farmer, and tenant under the Duke of Bedford. He was taught the rudiments of learning at a school at Ampthill, but appears to be entirely indebted to his own exertions for the progress which he has made in the art of literary composition. His “Village Scenes” was written before the publication of Bloomfield’s “Farmer’s Boy,” and, from the similarity of subject, and the resemblance in the circumstances of the authors, the reader will be naturally induced to estimate the merit of the former by a comparison with the latter. But though Mr. Bachelor’s poems exhibit, for the most part, a correct and flowing versification, unaffected sentiments, and a minute and accurate delineation of natural objects, yet they are unquestionably far inferior

in merit to the productions of Robert Bloomfield. We look upon the volume before us, however, with interest, as tending to excite emulation and a sensibility to the charms of literature, in a very important; and as yet, very uncultivated class of English society.

The following extract is a fair specimen of Mr. B.’s poetical abilities.

“ Lo! the wild heath, where star’ling
flocks have stray’d
Mid scatter’d fern to seek a shrivel’d blade;
Where, hid in many a subterranean den,
The furry people shunn’d the view of men;
Lost are its fleet inhabitants, its flocks
No longer pine o’er ling and arid rocks.
There oft the plow has turn’d the glowing
sand,
The spade, the pick-axe, smooth’d the rugged
land;

Harrows sharp-tooth'd, and rolls, with pond'-
rous toil,
Have pulveriz'd and cleans'd the weedy soil;
Manures and argil o'er the surface spread,
Fix'd the loose sands consistent to their bed.
Hence, many a year has seen their harvests
glow
In emulous rivalry of fertile vales below;
And, e'en where steep the rocky heights
arose,
The verdant fir, the larch aspiring grows;
Array'd in gold, here broom adorns the scene,
Or humbler gorse, deck'd in eternal green.
Thus, Caledonia sees her hills array'd,
When keen-edg'd frost and fleecy snows in-
rade:
Thus verdant pines Norwegian mountains
grace,
When nature sleeps in winter's cold em-
brace.

ART. XXX. *Ode to Dr. Thomas Percy, Lord Bishop of Dromore; occasioned by read-
ing the Reliques of Ancient English Poetry.* Fol. pp. 38.

THE merits, or the no-merits of this
ode may be best understood from a spe-
cimen. We copy the opening.

"Yes, the rapt soul's ecstatic swell
Glow's in the eye through glistening tears,
While genius sounds her time-worn shell
The music of departed years:
Scorning the frigid rules of art,
She awes, she warms, and melts the heart

Whose are yon roofs that rise beside the hill?
Whose humble names those decent mansions
fill?

What, though nor stone, nor brick the walls
sustain,
Nor slate nor tile, avert the falling rain,
Content and happiness may there reside,
Nor breathe one sigh for seats of costly pride.
His little field th' industrious peasant plants,
Richly supplying all domestic wants;
And oft retir'd, at noon-day's burning hour,
Where arching woodbines weave a fragrant
bow'r,
Bless'd with all joys, that ever bless'd the
poor,
He views the cypher figur'd o'er his door,
And breathes, when slaves and bigot minds
defame,
A grateful sigh to gen'rous Russel's name."

With nature's witching minstrelsy:
Informing spirit of the hour,
When inspiration's mystic power
Unfolds to mortal view the wonders of the
sky."

Nine and forty stanzas of such trash
and tinsel as this, are printed in folio with
as little taste as propriety.

ART. XXXI. *Fables on Subjects connected with Literature; imitated from the Spanish of
Don Tomas de Triarte, by JOHN BELFOUR, Esq.* 12mo. pp. 164.

THESE imitations are, without ex-
ception, the very worst we ever saw.
Mr. Belfour either has not understood
the original, or has made the most un-
warrantable alterations, as the following
specimen will prove.

"The Bear, the Ape, and the Hog.

"A Bear, by whom a trav'ling train
A scanty pittance used to gain,
Puff'd up with vanity and pride,
The art of others would deride,
And thought as he had been in France,
No one like him could skip and dance.

Rous'd by some sprightly notes he rear'd
His pond'rous form, nor censure fear'd;
But call'd the ape, to mark at will,
His might, agility, and skill;
When lo! the ape, a sturdy friend,
Refus'd his antics to commend.
The bear at this took great offence,
And call'd it spleen, and want of sense,
Daring him boldly, face to face,
To caper with such air and grace;
Nay, challeng'd all the lookers on,
To do the feats that he had done!

Amaz'd all stood and mute; at length
A servile hog, who knew his strength,
Admir'd his steps, his shape, and mien,
And swore such skill he ne'er had seen.

On hearing this, the stately bear
Assum'd a more important air,
And raising high his shaggy crest,
Aloud the populace address'd.

"Sirs, when the surly ape refus'd
"To praise my parts, I own, I mus'd,
"Lest him more skilful you might deem,
"And me but great, in self esteem;
"Yet since the hog—in merit's cause,
"Has honour'd me with his applause.
"His words have fix'd my future fame,
"And dance I will, though fools may
blame."

Ye, who in sense and reason's spite,
To scribble verse will still delight!
Deep on each warm poetic breast
Be this important rule impress:
If those whom taste and genius bless,
Whose truth, whose learning, all confess,
Your works with judgment should abuse,
Or with cool apathy peruse,
Mistrust the efforts of your muse.
But, if by power or influence aw'd,
Fools, to feed vanity, applaud;
To Pindus' height forbear to soar,
And spur your Pegasus no more."

Compare this with the translation of
the same fable, published some years
ago, by Mr. Southey.

"Some greater brute had caught a Bear,
And made him dance from fair to fair,
To please the gaping crowd;
The rabble mob who liked the sight,
Express'd, by clamours, their delight,
And so the Bear grew proud.

Conceited now, as praise he sought,
He asked a monkey what he thought,
And if he danced with taste?
Most vilely! honest pug replied,—
Nay, nay, friend Monkey! Bruin cried,
I'm sure you only jest.

Come—come—all prejudice is wrong,
See with what ease I move along!

A Hog was by the place,
And cried, according to my notions,
There's elegance in all your notions,
I never saw such grace!

Bruin, tho' out in his pretence,
Was yet a Bear of common sense,

Enough, he cries, grown sad;
The Monkey's blaming I might doubt,
But approbation from that snout!
I must dance very bad.

Thus he who gives his idle song
To all the motley-minded throng,
Meets many a heavy curse.
Vexations on vexations rise,
Bad is the censure of the wise,
The blockhead's praise is worse.

The reader may judge for himself
whether Mr. Belfour has spoilt this
fable from ignorance or from presumption;
from not understanding it, or
from thinking that he could improve it.

A bad poet deserves more compassion
than a bad translator, for he injures no
reputation but his own, and suicide is a
lighter offence than murder.

ART. XXXII. *Poems, Tales, Odes, Sonnets, Translations from the British, &c. &c.*; by
RICHARD LLWYD. *Author of Beaumaris Bay, Gayton Wake, &c.* 12mo, pp. 210.

WE cannot flatter Mr. Llwyd with
the hope that these poems will have many
charms for those who were not born
among the Cambrian hills. The allusions
to the history and antiquities of
Wales are so crowded, that every other
couplet would be unintelligible without
the assistance of a note. These latter
are biographical, antiquarian, and topographical,
as occasion requires. Some
of the translations from the ancient
British have spirit, particularly we think
the "Ode of the Months," from Gwili-
lim Ddu, of Arvon, bard to Sir Gryff-
ydd Llwyd, whose magnanimity and
heroism, and patriotic virtues, are justly
celebrated by the grateful bard.

A few lines written on a view of Snow-
don, from the New Inn of Capel Cerrig,
afford as favourable a specimen as any
we can select of our author's original
composition.

"Father of hills! I greet thy friendly face,
The last best shelter of thy country's race;

ART. XXXIII. *The Triumph of Music, a Poem; in six Cantos.* By WILLIAM
HAYLEY, Esq. 4to. pp. 148.

THE fable of this poem is as fol-
lows: Venusia the daughter of Donado,
a Venetian senator, among other ac-
complishments cultivates a talent for
music, in which she is instructed by
Lucilio, a man of genius and refine-
ment, handsome and not old, but sunk
in so profound a melancholy by the loss
of his wife and only daughter, that the

The smile, that led them to thy sinewy
arms,
Where nature revels in unvarnished charms;
Stretch'd, for their safety, all thy realms of
rock,
Repell'd invading hosts' repeated shock;
Heard her inspired sons, in torture tell
Where suffering freedom with their fathers
fell.
Now hear, from heights sublime, the happier
lay,
Enjoy the social triumph of to-day!
Behold, again, thy harass'd country blest,
Internal peace lean laughing on her breast;
See Penrhyn plant thy cliffs—adorn thy
meads,
And cheerful plenty follow where he leads;
While grateful industry, with ceaseless hands,
Is weaving for his brows unfading bands.
And, now! may Heaven accept the patriot
voice,
That bids thee and thy kindred rocks rejoice:
Bids thy loud torrents tell—repeat the strain,
And waft the welcome tidings to the main:
That tranquil here, thy tuneful son can
meet
United nations crowding to thy feet."

sagacious father never suspects the pos-
sibility of his feeling or inspiring a pas-
sion hostile to his ambitious views, which
destine Venusia to be the bride of an
aged but wealthy senator. But who
shall calculate the force of music and
pity? On the first mention of the odious
old senator, the affrighted fair one,
warned she says in a vision, flings her

self into the arms of the music-master, who had but just hinted his passion, marries him almost instantly, and flies with him to the neighbourhood of Milan, where they hope to conceal themselves from the rage of Donado. The amiable father, having discovered their retreat, dispatches two assassins, to rid him of his son-in-law. Fortunately these ruffians too are gifted with an ear for music, and having concealed themselves in a private chapel, to perpetrate the murder, are so touched with a kind of religious rondeau, played and sung by Lucilio, that they fall at his feet, confess their design, and beg his forgiveness. After this, the tender pair hasten to take refuge with a melancholy man, who has imposed on himself a vow to shun all human society, and who, without ever seeing them, supplies them with all the comforts and luxuries of life. The implacable Donado comes in disguise, and makes an attempt on Lucilio's life; the recluse observes and seizes him, an explanation takes place, and it appears that Venusia is the daughter, not of Donado, but of the recluse. The young couple forgive the murderous designs of the old man with the best grace in the world, sing a song or two, and all is well and all are happy! How far the execution of this piece is worthy of the design, we proceed, to show:—the story is told in heroic verse, but a great number of songs and sonnets are introduced, to “relieve the monotony of heroic rhyme,”—or to empty the portfolio of the author. The exquisite strains which captivate the heart of the fair one, are these:

“SHOULD a mortal, rais'd in vision
To a glimpse of scenes divine,
Madly cry, with bold decision,
Bias of angels! thou art mine.

At the gate of Heaven presiding!
Seraphs might his zeal reprove;
But to teach, by heavenly chiding,
Future hope to patient love.

I was that presumptuous mortal!
And thy heart the heaven I view'd!
Truth, the seraph at the portal,
Tells me I too rashly sued.

Teach me now in true contrition,
(Injur'd Heaven requires no more)
How to soothe by just submission,
How deserve what I adore!”

It is pity that we are not favoured with the tune: this must surely have pos-

sessed great merit. The rondeau of saving power is the following:

“WITHOUT the help of God,
Nor innocence, nor faith, are sure
Their being to retain;
Or trial from the fiends endure
With no contagious stain:
Not safe the path by angels trod,
Without the help of God!

Without the help of God,
The powers of wisdom, courage, youth,
Dissolve, like steel, by rust,
The blazing eye of spotless truth,
Is only rayless dust,
And mental fire a senseless clod,
Without the help of God!”

Without the help of God,
All is decay, delusion all,
On which mankind rely:
The firmament itself would fall,
And even nature die
Beneath annihilation's nod,
Without the help of God!”

After the confession and pardoning of the assassins, we are told that

“Pleas'd Venusia, every fear above,
And hoping all things from Lucilio's love,
Prepares a packet, to her sire address,
In which their blended eloquence express
Every kind wish, that filial hearts can feel,
To soothe a father's pride with tender zeal:
To these the daughter adds, with duty warm,
Gifts of affection, in a graceful form,
A radiant purse, that may respect command,
Ingenious labour of her skilful hand!
A symbol, fondly fashion'd to impart
Her lover's temper to her father's heart!
Him she informs, her busy hours produce
A fellow-purse for her Lucilio's use,
Who, now enrich'd by fortune, would be
proud,
If to his zeal such honours are allow'd,
To make his wealth an agent to fulfil
Each gracious purpose of Donado's will.”

Surely this insipid sentimental stuff is rather expressive of a want of all moral feeling, or a desire to curry favour by false and servile professions, than of the generous placability of a noble mind, or the meek forgiveness of a christian! Merely to describe a consistently excellent character, requires a correctness of principle and elevation of soul which does not fall to the lot of every writer, even of hymns and spiritual songs. The conclusion of the following hymn sung by Venusia, appears to us absolutely shocking.

“Nor dazzling pomp, nor golden store,
That raise the world's too eager rove,
My suppliant heart, and soul, implore
When to my heavenly sire I bow:

Humbly I crave, from sovereign power
 above,
 To see my father's face
 Glow with paternal grace,
 And, as the face of God, with guardian
 love."

Twenty four pages of hymns and sonnets are thus forced into the service.

"She (Venusia) a daily pleasure took
 To form in pity's shrine, devotion's hook;
 In which she treasur'd, and was glad to
 blend,

The hallow'd rhymes of each poetic friend:
 Manfredi, Theodore, Lucilio there
 Her hand united in melodious prayer:
 Nor did she shrink herself; but kindly deck'd
 The social page that friendship may respect,
 With verse, in which simplicity exprest
 The feelings of her own angelic breast.

"Mild youth, and tenderness! for whom
 I write,
 Your praise my wish, my purpose, your de-
 light!

Ye will not murmur if my story pause,
 While, justly zealous in devotion's cause,
 I from the volume of Venusia steal
 Some pages, which may wake your early zeal;
 Blest, if her tender piety imparts
 Its own pure spirit to congenial hearts!"

Of incomplete sentences, awkward ellipses, false quantities, "needless alexandrines," and affected expressions, we should produce several examples did not the uniform feebleness of this performance preclude that kind of particular criticism which seems to imply a considerable degree of general approbation. We should likewise remonstrate against the exorbitant charge of half-a-guinea for a quarto pamphlet, containing only 148 pages, and printed in a style by no means splendid, did we apprehend that any very large portion of our readers would be likely to suffer by the exaction.

ART. XXXIV. *The Lay of the last Minstrel; a Poem.* By WALTER SCOTT, Esq. 4to. pp. 320.

THE researches of Mr. Scott into the feudal times, and his exertions in bringing to light the remains of Scottish poetry, are well known to most of our readers. He has also, in his former publications, given such specimens of his own talents as to convince the public that it is not probable he will easily find more elegant entertainment for them, than what he can provide from the stores of his own genius. It is with pleasure, therefore, that we see he has given scope to his fancy in the elegant poem before us; the peculiar plan of which we cannot better explain than in the words of the author's preliminary advertisement. "The poem now offered to the public is intended to illustrate the customs and manners which anciently prevailed on the borders of England and Scotland. The inhabitants, living in a state, partly pastoral, and partly warlike, and combining habits of constant depredation with the influence of a rude spirit of chivalry, were often engaged in scenes highly susceptible of poetical ornament. As the description of scenery and manners was more the object of the author, than a combined and regular narrative, the plan of the ancient metrical romance was adopted, which allows greater latitude in this respect than would be consistent with the dignity of a regular poem. The same model afforded other facilities, as it permits an occasional alteration of

measure, which, in some degree, authorizes the change of rhythm in the text. The machinery also, adopted from popular belief, would have seemed puerile in a poem which did not partake of the rudeness of the old ballad, or metrical romance." The frame of the poem is elegant. An aged minstrel, the last of the race, is supposed to be wandering near the seat of the duchess of Buccleuch, widow to the unfortunate duke of Monmouth, who was beheaded in the reign of James II.; he is invited into the castle, cheered and refreshed by the kindness of the duchess and her ladies, and, to gratify them, he sings to his harp a tale of feats of arms and chivalry, the action of which is supposed to pass about the middle of the sixteenth century, when most of the characters mentioned in it actually flourished. The poem thus beautifully opens:

"The way was long, the wind was cold,
 The Minstrel was infirm and old;
 His withered cheek, and tresses gray,
 Seemed to have known a better day;
 The harp, his sole remaining joy,
 Was carried by an orphan boy.
 The last of all the bards was he,
 Who sung of Border chivalry;
 For, well-a-day! their date was fled,
 His tuneful brethren all were dead;
 And he, neglected and oppressed,
 Wished to be with them, and at rest.
 No more, on prancing palfrey borne,
 He carolled, light as lark at morn;

No longer, courted and caressed,
 High placed in hall, a welcome guest,
 He poured, to lord and lady gay,
 The unpremeditated lay;
 Old times were changed, old manners gone,
 A stranger filled the Stuart's throne;
 The bigots of the iron time
 Had called his harmless art a crime.
 A wandering harper, scorned and poor,
 He begged his bread from door to door;
 And tuned, to please a peasant's ear,
 The harp, a king had loved to hear.

"He passed where Newark's stately tower
 Looks out from Yarrow's birchen bower:
 The Minstrel gazed with wishful eye—
 No humbler resting place was nigh.
 With hesitating step, at last,
 The embattled portal-arch he passed,
 Whose ponderous grate, and massy bar,
 Had oft rolled back the tide of war,
 But never closed the iron door
 Against the desolate and poor."

When the old man is received, timid
 and depressed, he is some time before he
 can bring his harp and his spirits into
 tune; at length,

"When he caught the measure wild,
 The old man raised his face and smiled,
 And lightened up his faded eye
 With all a poet's ecstasy."

At each canto he is supposed to make a pause, and we are agreeably recalled to the character of the bard, and the notice he receives from his noble auditors. The *Lay*, considered as a story, is but slightly put together, and not remarkably interesting as a whole; its excellence consists in the beauty of the descriptions of local scenery, and the accurate picture of customs and manners among the Scottish borderers at the time it refers to. These are further illustrated by notes, explanatory of the customs or incidents alluded to. The various exploits and adventures which occur in those half-civilized times, when the bands of government were so loosely twisted, that every man depended for safety more on his own arm, or the prowess of his chief, than on the civil power, may be said to hold a middle rank between history and private anecdote. War is always most picturesque where it is least formed into a science: it has most variety and interest where the prowess and activity of individuals has most play; and the nocturnal expedition of Diomed and Ulysses to seize the chariot and horses of Rhesus, or a *raid* of the Scots, or the Kerrs to drive cattle, will make a better figure in verse than all the battles of the great king

of Prussia. The *slath-dog*, the *beacon-fires*, the *Jidwood-axes*, the *moor-troopers*, the yell of the *slogan*, and all the irregular warfare of predatory expeditions, or feuds of hereditary vengeance, are far more captivating to the imagination than a park of artillery and battalions of drilled soldiers. The chief scene of the story is the castle of *Branksome*, the ancient seat of the Buccleugh family, and it opens soon after the murder of sir Walter Scott, the head of the family, by the Kerrs, in the streets of Edinburgh. The vigilance of the Scotts is thus described: nine and twenty knights, with their attendant squires and yeomen, kept constant watch and ward against the incursion of their southern enemies:

"Ten of them were sheathed in steel,
 With belted sword, and spur on heel:
 They quitted not their harness bright,
 Neither by day, nor yet by night:
 They lay down to rest
 With corsled laced,
 Pillowed on buckler cold and hard;
 They carved at the meal
 With gloves of steel,
 And they drank the red wine through the
 helmet barred."

The intrigue of the poem is formed by the love of lord Cranstown for Margaret, the lady of Branksome's daughter. Lord Cranstown had fought on the side of Kerr, and of course is held as an enemy to the family. The lady of the castle being skilled in *gramarye*, an art which she learned from her father, sends William of Deloraine, one of the nine and twenty knights, to the monk of St. Mary's Isle, to get a book of magic from the tomb of Michael Scott. The merits of the knight are thus described; (in modern times he would make a very good horse stealer.)

"A stark moor-trooping Scott was he,
 As e'er couched border lance by knee.
 Through Solway sands, through Tarras moss,
 Blindfold, he knew the paths to cross:
 By wily turns, by desperate bounds,
 Had baffled Percer's best blood-hounds;
 In Eke, or Liddell, fords were none,
 But he would ride them one by one;
 Alike to him was time, or tide,
 December's snow, or July's pride;
 Alike to him was tide, or time,
 Moonless midnight, or morn prime.
 Steady of heart, and stout of hand,
 As ever drove prey from Cumberland;
 Five times outlawed had he been,
 By England's king and Scotland's queen."

The lady charges him not to read a line of the book, but he informs her the

prohibition is very unnecessary. "*Letter, or line, know I never a one, Wer't my neck-verse* (the verse by which they claimed benefit of clergy) *at Hairibee*." His nocturnal journey from Branksome on the Teviot, to Melrose abbey on the Tweed, is described with great beauty, particularly for those who are acquainted with the local scenery, and the anecdotes attached to it.

"On Minto-crags the moonbeams glint,
Where Barnhill hewed his bed of flint;
Who flung his outlawed limbs to rest,
Where falcons hang their giddy nest,
Mid cliffs, from whence his eagle eye,
For many a league his prey could spy;
Cliffs doubling on their echoes borne,
The terrors of the robber's horn."

When he crosses the Aill, a mountain torrent.

"Each wave was crested with tawny foam,
Like the mane of a chesnut steed."

At length he sees the Tweed and old Melrose.

"Like some tall rock, with lichens gray,
Seemed dimly huge the dark abbay."

The enchanting scenery of Melrose abbey, by moonlight, is one of the most beautiful passages of the poem. We cannot refuse a few stanzas to our readers.

"If thou would'st view fair Melrose aright,
Go visit it by the pale moon-light;
For the gay beams of lightsome day
Gill, but to flout, the ruins gray.
When the broken arches are black in night,
And each shafted oriel glimmers white;
When the cold light's uncertain shower
Streams on the ruined central tower;
When buttress and buttress, alternately,
Seem framed of ebony and ivory;
When silver edges the imagery,
And the scrolls that teach thee to live and
When distant Tweed is heard to rave,
And the owlet to hoot o'er the dead man's grave;
Then go—but go alone the while—
Then view St. David's ruined pile;
And, home returning, soothly swear,
Was never scene so sad and fair!"

And again,

"— the pillars with clustered shafts so trim,
With plinth and with capital, flourished around,
Seemed bundles of lances which garlands had bound."

Again,

"The moon on the east oriel shone,
Through slender shafts of shapely stone,
By foliated tracery combined;
Thou would'st have thought some fairy's hand,
Twixt poplars straight, the osier wand,
In many a freakish knot, had twined;
Then framed a spell, when the work was done,
And changed the willow wreaths to stone.
The silver light, so pale and faint,
Shewed many a prophet and many a saint,
Whose image on the glass was dyed;
Full in the midst, his cross of red
Triumphant Michael brandished,
And trampled the apostate's pride.
The moon-beam kissed the holy pane,
And threw on the pavement a bloody stain."

This moon-light scene, with the light which streams from the tomb of Michael Scott, shewing "*the Monk's cowl and visage pale, and dancing on the warrior's mail*," would be a good subject for a painter. We should not wonder if it were chosen by one. The *diableries* of lord Cranstown's goblin-page fill good part of the third canto. He entices away the heir of Branksome, and, assuming his form, remains in the castle, astonishing every body at the sudden unluckiness and perverseness of the noble child. In the mean time, the beacons give notice of the approach of an enemy.

"On Penchryst glows a bale of fire,
And three are kindling on Priestthughwire;
Ride out, ride out,
The foes to scout."

We absolutely see the fires kindling one after another, in the following animated description:

"The ready page, with hurried hand,
Awaked the need-fire's* slumbering brand,
And ruddy blushed the heaven:
For a sheet of flame from the turret high
Waved like a blood-flag on the sky,
All flaring and uneven;
And soon a score of fires, I ween,
From height, and hill, and cliff, were seen;
Each with warlike tidings fraught;
Each from each the signal caught;
Each after each they glanced to sight,
As stars arise upon the night.
They gleamed on many a dusky tarn,†
Haunted by the lonely earn;‡
On many a cairn's§ gray pyramid,
Where urns of mighty chiefs lie hid;
Till high Dunedin the blazes saw,
From Soltra and Dumpender Law;

* Need-fire, beacon.

† Tarn, a mountain lake.

‡ Earn, a Scottish eagle.

§ Cairn, a pile of stones.

And Lothian heard the regent's order,
That all should bowpe* them for the Border."

What an admirable picture of the costume of the times is the following of the yeoman, who brings notice of the approach of the English.

"While thus he spoke, the bold yeoman
Entered the echoing barbian.
He led a small and shaggy nag,
That through a bog, from hag to hag,†
Could bound like any Bilhope stag;
It bore his wife and children twain;
A half-clothed serf ‡ was all their train:
His wife, stout, pudgy, and dark-browed,
Of silver brooch and bracelet proud,
Laughed to her friends among the crowd.
He was of stature passing tall,
But sparely formed, and lean withal;
A battered marion on his brow;
A leatheru jack, as fence enow,
On his broad shoulders loosely hung;
A border axe behind was slung;
His spear, six Scottish ells in length,
Seemed newly dyed with gore;
His shafts and bow, of wonderous strength,
His hardy partner bore."

The English in force approach the walls of the castle, and the lady, to her great surprise, sees her son in their hands, and they give her the option, either to yield up Deloraine, to suffer march-treason, or to have her child carried to London. This dilemma promises rather more of pathos than the author has drawn from it; the lady however refuses, and both sides prepare for battle; then,

"His bugle Wat of Harden blew;
Pencils and pennons wide were flung,
To heaven the border slogan rung,
"Sr. Mary for the young Buccleuch!"
The English war-cry answered wide,
And forward bent each southern spear;
Each Kendal archer made a stride,
And drew the howstring to his ear;
Each minstrel's war-note loud was blown;
But, e'er a gray-goose shaft had flown,
A horseman galloped from the rear."

The affair is at length settled by proposing a single combat between Musgrave, on one side, and Deloraine on the other, of which the heir of Branksome is to be the prize. This gives occasion to describe all the usages relating to a combat in the lists, as well as the intimacy between the adverse troops, who, as was often the case in such intervals of hostility, drink, game, and play at football together.

"Yet, be it known, had bugles blown,
Or sign of war been seen;
Those bands, so fair together ranged,
Those hands, so frankly interchanged,
Had dyed with gore the green:
The merry shout by Teviot-side
Had sunk in war-cries wild and wide,
And in the groan of death;
And whingers,§ now in friendship bare,
The social meal to part and share,
Had found a bloody sheath."

The battle is fought on foot, with all the ceremonies of defiance, &c. Musgrave is killed; but the warrior on the other side proves to be lord Cranstoun.

"As if exhausted in the fight,
Or musing o'er the piteous sight,
The silent victor stands;
His beaver did he not unclasp,
Marked not the shouts, felt not the grasp
Of gratulating hands.
When lo! strange cries of wild surprise,
Mingled with seeming terror, rise
Among the Scottish bands;
And all amid the thronged array,
In panic haste gave open way,
To a half-naked ghastly man,
Who downward from the castle ran;
He crossed the barriers at a bound,
And wild and haggard looked around,
As dizzy, and in pain;
And all, upon the armed ground,
Knew William of Deloraine!
Each lady sprung from seat with speed;
Vaulted each marshal from his steed;
"And who art thou," they cried,
"Who hast this battle fought and won?"
His plumed helmet was soon undone—
"Cranstoun of Teviotside!
For this fair prize I've fought and won,"—
And to the lady led her son."

The union of the lovers in the next and last canto gives occasion to describe the dress, feasting, and entertainments of the times; it contains also a warm and affectionate apostrophe to

"Caledonia, stern and wild,
Meet nurse for a poetic child."

The large quotations we have made from this singular poem must have convinced our readers that it abounds equally with poetical description, and with circumstances curious to the antiquarian. These are further illustrated in copious and very entertaining notes; they, as well as the poem, must be particularly interesting to those who are connected with Scottish families, or conversant in their history. The author has managed the versification of the poem with great

* *Bowpe*, make ready.

† The broken ground in a bog.

‡ Bonds-man.

§ A sort of knife, or poniard.

judgment, and the most happy effect. If he had aimed at the grave and stately cadence of the epic, or any of our more regular measures, it would have been impossible for him to have brought in such names as *Watt Tynlin*, *Black John*, *Priestbaugh-Scrogg*, and other Scottish names, or to have spoken of the *lyke-wake*, and the *slogan*, and *driving of cattle*, which Pope and Gray would have thought as impossible to introduce into serious poetry, as Boileau did the names of towns in the campaigns of Louis IV. Mr. Scott has, therefore, very judiciously thrown in a great mixture of the familiar, and varied the measure; and if it has not the finished harmony which, in such a subject, it were in vain to have attempted, it has great ease and spirit, and never tires the reader. Indeed we think we see a tendency in the public taste to go

back to the more varied measures and familiar style of our earlier poets, a natural consequence of having been satiated with the regular harmony of Pope and his school, and somewhat wearied with the stiffness of lofty poetic language. We now know what can be done in that way, and we seek entertainment and variety rather than finished modulations and uniform dignity. We cannot help mentioning it as a defect, that there is no reference from the text to the notes, we suppose, in order that the beauty of the page might not be injured; but surely it is a very vicious taste which is prevailing more and more among us, to sacrifice use and convenience to the fancied beauty of a page of letter press, which, after all, is but a poor imitation of a picture. We now take our leave of this very elegant, spirited, and striking poem.

CHAPTER XL

PLAYS.

ANOTHER contribution has been added to the permanent treasures of the British language by Miss Baillie, to whose extraordinary genius for the higher departments of dramatic composition we have already had the pleasure of bearing our testimony. The plays for the annual supply of the theatres are as numerous and worthless as usual.

ART. I. *Almabide and Hamet, a Tragedy.* By BENJ. HEATH MALKIN, Esq. M. A. 8vo. pp. 157.

ABOUT one-third of the volume before us is occupied by prefatory matter, addressed to Mr. Kemble; and consisting, for the most part, of desultory remarks on our earlier dramatic authors, from Jonson to Addison, together with a few strictures on some of the more recent of our theatrical exhibitions. The *tragedy* is founded on the same historical events as Dryden's splen-

did and spirited, but ranting, play, the "Conquest of Granada." But if Mr. Malkin has avoided some of the absurdities of Dryden, he has also declined a competition with the excellences of this great poet; and we are wholly at a loss to conceive what motive could have induced the author to encounter the storms of criticism, in so ill-equipped a pinnace.

ART. II. *The Sea-Side Hero. A Drama in three Acts.* By JOHN CARR, Esq. Author of *the Stranger in France.* 8vo. pp. 95.

THIS drama was written at the time when we were in daily expectation of being invaded by the French. It is a

patriotic effusion, calculated to rouse the martial ardour of an audience.

ART. III. *Foul Deeds will Rise. A Musical Drama.* By S. J. ARNOLD. 8vo. pp. 47.

THIS was performed at the Haymarket without success: and the disappointed author has ill-advisedly exposed himself to the double disappointment

which he will experience from the probable fate of his piece, now that it is submitted to the public at large.

ART. IV. *Twenty One: an Operatic Afterpiece, in one Act.* By JAMES WILKINSON. 24mo. pp. 39.

THERE is a neat engraving prefixed to this silly farce, which is translated

from "Le Trente & Quarante" of Alexander Duval.

ART. V. *The Counterfeit: a Farce, in two Acts; as performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane.* Written by ANDREW MACKLIN. 8vo.

THAT a counterfeit so perfectly valueless, so palpably base, should have

had a moment's currency, is past all belief.

ART. VI. *The Soldier's Daughter; a Comedy, in five Acts. Now performing with unbounded applause at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane. By A. CHERRY, of the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane. The tenth Edition! 8vo. pp. 84.*

IF it had been worth transcribing, we should have presented our readers with one of the most puffing and quacking dedications that we ever remember to have met with. When its nauseating effects are a little subsided, the play itself may be read with interest, as indeed might fairly be inferred, from the *unbounded applause* with which it has been performed at Drury Lane, and from the sale of nine editions! Mr. Cherry is a comedian himself, and he has avowedly adapted his characters to the powers and professional genius of his brother actors. This is a modern manœuvre, and one which has answered the purpose of our play-writers very well. They take the measure of an actor for his character, as a taylor does for his coat: and in both cases, when the work is brought home, if it does not fit to a nicety it is immediately altered; it often happens, too, that the character, like the coat, will fit nobody but the person for whom it was made. This mode of dramatic composition, however contemptible, is yet for the most part successful: the author flatters the actor, and gives him an opportunity of *showing himself off* to the best advantage; he is too proud and too wise to let slip the advantage, and oftentimes, by the excellence of his performance, is known to have saved the author's piece from "damnation."

Mr. Cherry has contrived to lay several clap-traps: the bravery of the British soldier, indeed, is proverbial, but Mr. Cherry—following, perhaps, the example of a splendid orator in the house of commons—gives a vote of thanks, for anticipated services, to the volunteers—their wives and their daughters.

There is a good deal of life in this comedy, some humour, and a little sentiment. A double portion of archness

and vivacity is thrown into the character of Widow Cheerly, by the archness and vivacity of Mrs. Jordan; and Frank Heartall is suited to the dashing gaiety of the younger Bannister.

It is a very foolish and injurious fashion to represent married couples on the stage, as eternally tormenting one another, bickering, and quarrelling. We are half disposed to suspect an author of not being very easy and comfortable in his own family, when we see him holding up matrimonial life to ridicule and scorn. If a foreigner, by frequent attendance at our theatres, were to draw any inference from the usual representations of connubial life, it would certainly be that the English knew nothing of conjugal felicity. Such representations do us great discredit, and most unquestionably are not warranted by real life: there is no country in the world, perhaps, where conjugal love is so uniformly and so ardently felt as in England. This is no random assertion: it will bear examination, and the fact would redound to our honour. In the comedy before us, Mr. Cherry has presented the public with an interesting picture of connubial love: young Malfort, by early extravagance, has dissipated a splendid fortune, and reduced himself, his wife, and infant, to penury and wretchedness. This wife, amiable and affectionate, a character we honestly believe infinitely more common than its opposite, soothes the anguish of her culprit husband, cheers his broken and repentant heart, fashions excuses for his past conduct, and bears, not with patience only, but with complacency, more than her proper share of the common burden.

Mr. Cherry is entitled to much praise for the character of Mrs. Malfort: it does credit to his feelings as a man, and to his taste as an author.

ART. VII. *The Recal of Momus, a Bagatelle. By BENJAMIN THOMPSON, Esq. 4to. pp. 54.*

WE grudge the little ink that is wasted in copying the title page of this miserable nonsense.

ART. VIII. *The Hunter of the Alps. A Drama, interspersed with Music.* By Mr. DIMOND, Jun. 8vo. pp. 40.

THIS little afterpiece acts very well, which it has received at the Haymarket and is better entitled to the applause theatre, than many of its rivals.

ART. IX. *The Paragraph; a Musical Entertainment, in two Acts, as it is performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden.* By PRINCE HOARE. 8vo. pp. 52.

A few coarse jokes for the gallery.

ART. X. *Guilty, or not Guilty? a Comedy in five Acts.* By THOMAS DIEDIN. 8vo. pp. 108.

THIS comedy acts much better than it reads; there is a good deal of bustling incident and cross-purpose in it, which create some confusion in the pe-

rusal, but give life to the representation. Some of the puns and repartees which may be endured upon the stage, are very vapid and tiresome in the closet.

ART. XI. *The Sailor's Daughter: a Comedy in five Acts, now performing at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane.* By RICHARD CUMBERLAND, Esq. 8vo. pp. 86.

FROM the pen of this veteran dramatist we are warranted in expecting something considerably above the ordinary run of comedies; nor has Mr. Cumberland disappointed us. We have here no unnatural or extravagant characters, no improbable incidents, no buffoonery to offend us. Julia Clareville is the orphan daughter of a naval officer; she resides at the house of Mr. Hartshorn, an apothecary at Bath, and from her beauty and accomplishments is exposed to the dangerous flatteries of the gay young men of the place. Among them, Varnish, a libertine without honour or principle, is particularly assiduous; but honest Hartshorn, the friend of her father, cautions the too credulous beauty against the seductive and treacherous attentions of this rake.

Julia's father is killed at the battle of Copenhagen, and in his dying moments bequeathed the care of his child to captain Sentamour, a young man whom he had formed, protected, and trained to his profession; to whom he had been a parent when he was young, and a friend when he was destitute. In his last breath he had expressed a hope that the hearts and hands of these young people would be for ever united.

Sentamour, grateful, generous, and affectionate, by frequent and ample remittances had, without the knowledge of Julia, supported her in her orphan and dependant state: but the unprincipled Varnish, the better to accomplish his projects, had insinuated that to his own munificence Julia had been in-

debted for her support. Captain Sentamour arrives in England, together with the surgeon of his ship, Mr. Lindsay, who is recommended to Hartshorn as a partner in his house and business. They go down to Bath, and as their persons are unknown both to Julia and to Hartshorn, captain Sentamour, anxious to discover whether the virtues of her father are infused and fostered in the bosom of his child, proposes to pass himself off in the character of Lindsay.

"You smile, Lindsay. I can read your thoughts. You think my project is ridiculous."

"Lind. Romantic, perhaps; you cannot be ridiculous."

"Sent. Hear me. I want your name for little else than as an introduction, and you know we hold it fair to reconnoitre under false colours, though not so to engage. Do you conceive me now, or shall I open myself farther?—I would not approach her as Sentamour, because I would make no claim upon her gratitude; I would not purchase an opinion from her by money, by worldly prudence, or even by filial duty and obedience to her father's wishes. If she prefers Varnish, and he honourably proposes, let her marry him: As Lindsay, I obstruct her not; as Sentamour she shall never know me."

The sequel is, that Julia falls in love with Sentamour under the disguise of Lindsay: she is shocked and distressed beyond measure at her own ingratitude in yielding her affections to any other than her father's friend and her own benefactor, (for she had now learnt the

baseness of Varnish,) and is on the point of making an heroic effort to shake off the fetters of love, when Sentamour lays aside his disguise, and presses the delighted fair one to his bosom.

Notwithstanding the simplicity of the story, Mr. Cumberland has, by the introduction of subordinate characters, thrown a good deal of vivacity and humour into his comedy: sir Matthew Moribund is a well-drawn hypochondriac, and Louisa Davenant is a sprightly, fascinating little rogue, not unlike Madam d'Orbe in the *Nouvelle Héloïse*. The following dialogue is by no means destitute of humour.

Hartshorn and Mrs. Hartshorn.

Harts. All this is well; all this is as it should be. Didn't I tell Lindsay we were the happiest couple in creation? and behold we are so! Good humour is a blessed thing; good humour in a wife, my dear Dolly, is like gold leaf upon a pill; it does not alter the dose, but it makes it go down.

Mrs. H. Very true, my dear Sam; very well compar'd. And when I see a smile upon my husband's face, as I do now, it seems to me like sunshine in a prison; it does not set me free, but it makes confinement bearable.

Harts. You are right, it does all that; and I shall always smile whilst you look kind.

Mrs. H. 'Tis your own fault whenever I look otherwise.

Harts. Not always, Dolly.

Mrs. H. Always, Mr. Hartshorn.

Harts. Come, come, lambkin, there are faults on both sides; but we'll not talk of faults: we will forget them.

Mrs. H. But you do talk of faults; aye, and you commit so many, 'tis impossible to forget them.

Harts. What faults have I committed just now? you have such a gentle way of bringing them to my recollection, I shall not be sorry to be told of them.

Mrs. H. Look at your pretended partner, Lindsay. What do you know of him? What does he know of his business? Have you ever examin'd him?—Not you. Are you sure he is what he pretends to be?—I much doubt it. Not one feature of the apothecary can I see in his face, not one trace of the hospital in his conversation and appearance.

Harts. What then do you take him to be?

Mrs. H. A very handsome fellow he certainly is; and without any compliment to his understanding, I take him to be very capable of outwitting you, and making off with your modest and immaculate Miss Julia. He is much more likely to be her partner than yours.

Harts. Say no more; I'll be up to him. Outwit me indeed! No, no, he'll not do that.—Mum! not another word.

Sentamour enters.

Glad to see you, brother doctor; glad to see you.—Dolly, my love, my life, we are upon business. (*Exit Mrs. Hartshorn.*) There! do you see that? A word, a look, a motion of my eye does it. Docile and obedient as a tame she bear. Now to business. I can assure you, Mr. Lindsay, my expectations are raised very high by the terms in which captain Sentamour and others have reported you to me. I flatter myself I shall not be disappointed.

Sent. I am vain enough to think you will not.

Harts. Very good, very good. A little self-confidence in our way is not amiss—but to the point. My practice, Mr. Lindsay, you observe, comprises all the three branches, surgery, pharmacy, and the obstetric department:—In the two former well established—full employment; in the latter, rising, growing, mending every day. Now there it is, brother Lindsay, there it is that I must look to you. When ladies cry out, it is but fit and right the young and able should attend the call, and take that duty from the old and feeble.

Sent. With reason, Mr. Hartshorn, and they commonly do.

Harts. Good; very good again. Then you'll turn out when Obadiah comes full tilt upon the coach-horse, and I'll keep snug the whilst.

Sent. Yes, I'll turn out if I hear him; but I am us'd to sleep in a ship. Noises don't easily waken me.

Harts. Not such noises perhaps as you are us'd to in a ship: but there are some that I am us'd to in this house will do it effectually, if others fail. You are handy enough, no doubt, in mixing up medicines, labelling phials, rolling up pills, construing prescriptions, weighing out drugs, and infusing them in their proper vehicles.

Sent. O yes, all that is very easy.

Harts. I am glad you find it so: I can't say I always do. Of chemicals and galenicals I need not speak diffusely.

Sent. You need not speak a word about them. We'll agree to pass them over.

Harts. We'll agree to no such thing. Pass them over indeed! I hope you understand their several powers, properties, and proportions; their compositions and decompositions, acids and alkalies, bracers and relaxers, quickeners and quietters, tonics and anti-tonics—

Sent. Understand them all—What is an apothecary that does not?

Harts. What is he?—Why he is what many apothecaries are; what I have been, and what I am now—puzzled.

Sent. I perceive it; instead of puzzling me, brother Hartshorn, you have puzzled yourself.

"*Harts.* D—ce, if I know whereabouts you are. Apothecary, or no apothecary—will you turn out, and take the round of patients with me this afternoon?

"*Sent.* As I can be of no manner of service to you or them, I had rather be excus'd.

"*Harts.* You had rather be excus'd! What the pestilence did you come here for?

"*Sent.* For an experiment.

"*Harts.* I'm obliged to you—You came for an experiment! Be so good to try the experiment of going away again.

"*Sent.* Bear with me a little longer, and I will give you perfect satisfaction.

"*Harts.* Give me the satisfaction of getting rid of you. If you will not go out and visit the patients, go out and visit where you

like, only don't let me be favour'd with your company any longer.

"*Sent.* If I were Sentamour, wou'd you say this?

"*Harts.* No, d—ce, no! To Sentamour my arms are open'd thus, as wide as I can stretch them—To Sentamour I say—Here is my heart, command it; it is yours!

"*Sent.* I take you at your word, for I am Sentamour. Forgive me, my dear fellow. I was anxious to know the real character of Julia. I wish to see her under no restraint, and sound the secret feelings of her heart. I borrowed Lindsay's name, not in the hope I could impose on your sagacity, but as a cover only for the moment, 'till I could find how her affections stood, and where they pointed."

ART. XII. *Miscellaneous Plays.* By JOANNA BAILLIE. 8vo pp. 450.

IT is with sincere pleasure we find ourselves called upon to attend Miss Baillie through another volume of her beautiful dramatic compositions. The present publication, she informs us in her preface, is not to be considered as belonging to the series of plays of which the former volumes are a part. Not that she intends to discontinue her original plan, though she may interrupt it from time to time with pieces perhaps better fitted to the present state of the stage. For our own parts, we do not profess to feel any great partiality for the peculiar plan of the series; except as the fulfilling of it may be an inducement to the author to write: and, provided she exercises her pen amongst the great mass of human characters and human events, we feel little solicitous whether she does it in elucidation of a preconceived system, or gives a freer and more desultory scope to her elegant and powerful genius. A play should be an image of nature, not a lecture of philosophy; and wherever characters are faithfully delineated, the feelings strongly called forth, and noble sentiments impressed upon the mind, there the true ends of tragedy have been answered, whether one ruling passion has been exhibited in its growth and progress, or whether the interest has been produced from that motley mixture of contending passions and various fortunes, of which the texture of human life is generally composed.

The present volume contains two tragedies and a comedy; of the first of these, entitled *Rayner*, the story is as follows. *Rayner*, a soldier of fortune,

gallant and spirited, returns from foreign service, where he had greatly distinguished himself, to his native country, to reap the inheritance of a rich uncle. On his arrival, he finds he has been supplanted in the favour of his relation by the insinuations of Hubert, an artful villain, who has practised on the credulity of the old man, and is become his heir. In this conjuncture, destitute and unfriended, and burning with indignation, he falls into company with a band of robbers, men of broken fortunes, headed by count Zaterloo, whom he had slightly known when a boy. The count wishes the accession of so brave a fellow to his troop, and proposes to him to waylay and murder Hubert, who is to pass with his wealth through a wood at night. *Rayner* for some time resists the temptation; but is at length overcome by learning that Elizabeth, a young lady to whom he is tenderly attached, is turned out of doors, and coming to take shelter with him. On the night appointed for the murder, *Rayner* is separated from his companions by a thunder storm, and takes refuge in the hut of an old man of a hermit-like appearance, who admits him, though in an ungracious and suspicious manner. His host proves to be one who had formerly committed a murder, and *Rayner* is an involuntary witness of the horrors of his midnight visions and his agonizing remorse. This scene induces a sudden repentance, and determines him to drop his bloody purpose, but too late, for the deed is at that moment perpetrated by count Zaterloo and his confederates; they escape, and *Rayner*, being seized by the officers of justice, is

thrown into prison, and condemned to death as the actual murderer. Many affecting scenes pass in prison between Elizabeth and himself. He is also visited by an old general, who interests himself warmly, but unavailingly, for so brave a soldier. At length, when every thing is prepared for the execution, count Zaterloo, who has been mortally wounded in the fray, exculpates Rayner of the actual deed, by signing a confession that he was the person who murdered Hubert. A swift messenger is ordered to convey it to the governor; but the bridge of the river he is to cross is broken down by the swell of the waters: the reader feels the agonizing suspense of the parties; the messenger swims his horse over the flood, obtains a pardon from the governor, with which he hastens to the prison, but arrives, as he is told, a few minutes after all is over. It soon appears, however, that a delay had been obtained through the contrivance of a grateful negro, to whom Rayner had done a favour. The pardon takes place, Rayner is restored to the congratulations of his friends, and the piece concludes with the following striking and moral lines.

“ Yes, gather round him, kindly souls tho’
rude,

In the true artless sympathy of nature;
For he is one o’er whom the storm has roll’d
In awful power, but spar’d the thunderbolt.—
When urg’d by strong temptation to the
brink

Of guilt and ruin, stands the virtuous mind
With scarce a step between; all pitying
heaven,

Severe in mercy, chast’ning in its love,
Oftumes, in dark and awful visitation,
Doth interpose, and leads the wand’rer back
To the straight path, to be for ever after
A firm, undaunted, onward bearing traveller,
Strong in humility, who swerves no more.”

In the play of which we have thus given the sketch, there is character, a sufficiency of incident, and not a little pathos, along with those moral sentiments and that spirit of poetry which so eminently distinguish the works of Miss Baillie. The scenes between Elizabeth and her lover are extremely tender. Rayner is, in the words of the author, “ a young man of an easy amiable temper, with delicacy of sentiment and a well principled mind, tempted in the extremity of distress to join in the proposed commission of a detestable deed, and afterwards, under one of the severest

trials that human fortitude can be called upon to endure, bearing himself up, not with the proud and lofty firmness of a hero, but with the struggles of a man who, conscious of the weakness of nature within him, feels diffident of himself to the last;—one who, being brave in the field, and of a light buoyant disposition, bears up with a cheerfulness by no means inconsistent with a considerable degree of the dread of death, when called upon to encounter it with deliberation and certainty.” This outline, the reader will perceive, is well filled up, and Rayner excites a considerable degree of interest; yet we suspect his character is somewhat too faulty for the hero of a piece which is to end happily. Mixed characters, it is true, often succeed better in the drama than faultless ones: but it is when they are left objects of our pity, when the veil of death is thrown over their faults, when we are called to lament the wreck of a noble mind, by some strong passion thrown off its bias, or by some fatal mistake ruined in its future prospects. Had Jaffier lived and been happy with Belvidera, it would very much have weakened the interest we take in him. The crime to which Rayner had consented is a very serious one, and the pure tone of moral sentiment, expressed with truth and feeling, which pervades the works of this author, makes us more sensible of the turpitude of the action, than we should be, had it belonged to one of the ranting heroes of Lee or Dryden. We do not indeed impute to the author the sentiments of the old general Hardibrand, who, speaking of the judges that had condemned a *brave soldier*, who had to all appearance been guilty of a murder, says,

“ I would that to their grave and pompous
chairs,
Their asses ears were nailed.”

We acknowledge, notwithstanding these remarks, that the interest of the piece is kept up in a lively manner. We love Rayner, because he is tenderly beloved, and because he is unfortunate; we are agitated with the suspense which the various incidents produce; and it was only upon reflection that we were led to make the objection we have now stated to the hero of it.

Among the under parts of this play, is a beautiful contrast between maternal affection, and the false caresses of veal

beauty, exemplified in the mother and mistress of count Zaterloo. The count, who is in distress and mortally wounded, is attended by a lady masked, whom he believes to be his mistress Mira.

"Now, charming Mira, lay disguise aside, Speak thine own natural voice, and be thyself:

There is no eye to look upon us now;
No more excuse for this mysteriousness.
Let me now look upon thy face and bless it!
Thou hast done well by me: thou art wondrous gentle.

I knew thee fair and charming, but I knew not

Thou wert of such a soft and kindly nature.
(*The countess unmask, and looks at him sorrowfully.*)

Ha, mother! is it you?

"Countess Z. Who should it be? where should'st thou look for kindness?

When we are sick where can we turn for succour;

When we are wretched where can we complain;

And when the world looks cold and surly on us,

Where can we go to meet a warmer eye
With such sure confidence as to a mother?

The world may scowl, acquaintance may forsake,

Friends may neglect, and lovers know a change,

But when a mother doth forsake her child,
Men lift their hands and cry, a prodigy!

"Count Z. (*taking hold of both her hands and kissing them*)

O mother! I have been a thankless child!
I've given thee hoary hairs before thy time;

And added weight to thy declining years,
Who should have been their stay.

"Countess. Be calm, my son, for I do not upbraid thee.

"Count Z. Wretch that I am! I was an only son,

And therefore bound by no divided tie
To be to thee thy hold and thy support.

I was a widow's son, and therefore bound
By every generous and manly tie

To be in filial duty most devoted.
O I have vilely done! I feel it now;

But if I live to be a man again,
I'll prove a better son to thee, dear mother.

"Countess. I know thou wilt, my dearest Zaterloo;

And do not thus upbraid thyself too sharply;
I've been a foolish mother to thy youth,

But thou wilt pardon me.

"Count Z. Of this no more—How came you by my letter?

If you did intercept it on its way,
Mira is faithful still.

"Countess. It was from Mira's hand that I received it.

She toss'd it at me with a jeering smile
When I with anxious tears inquired for thee.

"Count Z. (*rising half from his seat in great passion*)

O faithless, faithless woman! she it was,
Who made of me the cursed thing I am!
I've been a fool indeed and well requited.
Base, avaricious and ungrateful."

The distress of Elizabeth as she meets the crowd who are attending the criminal to prison; her alarm on first perceiving, at a distance, the resemblance of his figure to that of her lover; and the increasing horror she feels as the procession approaches nearer, till her fears are turned into dreadful certainty, is affecting and tender; as are also the scenes between them in prison, one of which we shall give our readers.

"Rayner. Thou sayest well, my sweet Elizabeth;

In this I have against thy love offended.
But in the brightness of fair days, in all

The careless gaiety of unruffled youth,
Smiling like others of thy sex, I loved thee;

Nor knew that thou wert also form'd to strive

With the braced firmness of unyielding virtue
In the dark storms of life—alike to flourish.

In sunshine or in shade.—Alas! alas!
It was the thoughts of seeing thee—but cease!

The die is cast; I'll speak of it no more:
The gleam which shews to me thy wondrous

excellence
Glares also on the dark and lowering path
That must our way divide.

"Eliz. O no! as are our hearts, our way is one,

And cannot be divided. Strong affection
Contents with all things, and o'ercometh all

things.
I will unto thee cling with strength so terrible,

That human hands the hold will ne'er unlock.

"Rayner. Alas, my love! these are thy words of woe,

And have no meaning but to speak thy woe:
Dark fate hangs o'er us, and we needs must

part.
The strong affection that o'ercometh all

things,
Shall fight for us indeed, and shall o'ercome:

But in a better world the vantage lies
Which it shall gain for us; here, from this

earth
We must take different roads and climb to it,
As in some pitiless storm two nighted travellers

Lose on a wild ring heath their tangled way,
And meet again.

"Eliz. Ay, but thy way, thy way, my gentle Rayner—

It is a terrible one.
Oh flesh and blood shrinks from the horrid

pass!
Death comes to thee, not as he visiteth

The sick man's bed, pillow'd with weeping friends :

O no ! nor yet as on the battle's field
He meets the blood-warm'd soldier in his mail,

Greeting him proudly.—Thou must bend thy neck,

This neck round which mine arms now circled close

Do feel the loving warmth of youthful life :
Thou must beneath the stroke—O horrid ! horrid !

“ *Rayner (supporting her from sinking to the ground).*

My dear Elizabeth, my most belov'd !
Thou art affrighted with a horrid picture
By thine own fancy trac'd ; look not upon it :
All is not dreadful in the actual proof
Which on the approach frowns darkly.

Rouse thy spirit ;
And be not unto me at this dark push
My heaviest let ; thou who should'st be my stay. *(She groans heavily.)*

What means that heavy groan ? I'll speak its meaning,

And say, that thou to nature's weakness hast
The tribute paid, and now wilt rouse thyself
To meet with noble firmness what perforce
Must be ; and to a torn and luckless man,
Who holds in this wide world but thou alone,
Prove a firm, gen'rous, and heart-buoyant mate,

In the dark hour. Do I not speak it rightly ?

“ *Eliz.* Thou dost, thou dost ! if nature's weakness in me

Would yield to the heart's will.”

It is indeed the great beauty of this piece, that it exhibits the play of a great variety of affections, beaming, as it were, from different points, and crossing one another in all directions. We must not pass by the animated contest between the earnest pleadings of ardent love, on the one hand, and the strong throes of maternal affection on the other, in the passage where Elizabeth presses the countess Zaterloo to save the life of Rayner, by persuading her son, who lies dangerously wounded, to confess himself the murderer.

“ *Countess Zaterloo.* Cease, cease ! unlock thy hold : embrace me not !

Has he for whom thou plead'st from out o' thyself

Receiv'd his being ? press'd with infant lips
Thy yearning bosom ? smiled upon thy knees,
And bless'd thine ear with his first voice of words ?

Away, away ! despair has made thee mad,
That thus thou hang'st upon me.

“ *Elizabeth.* O he for whom I plead is to my soul

Its soul : is to my fancy its bound world,
In which it lives and moves ; all else beyond
Darkness, annihilation. O have pity !

For well thou say'st, despair has made me mad.

“ *Count Zaterloo.* Let go, let go ! thou with a tigress striv'st,
Defending her bay'd whelp : I have no pity :
Heav'n will have pity on thee ! let me go ;
Unlock thy desp'rate hold.”

Rayner's soliloquy in prison has great merit : it suits a man who thinks and feels ; it is too long for transcription, but we will give the reflections of Hardibrand, on the first view of the prison ; reflections which a walk through any of our great towns might suggest.

“ *Hardibrand.* Gloomy enough, gloomy enough in faith !

Ah ! what a wond'rous mass of dreary walls,
Whose frowning sides are rest in narrow slips

As I have seen full oft some sea-worn cliff,
Pierc'd with the murky holes of savage birds.
Ah ! here the birds within are clipt o' wing,
And cannot fly away.”

It is not sufficiently clear, whether Rayner receives an acquittal or a pardon. In our country we believe he would have had occasion for the latter. This piece has, after the model of the old plays, an intermixture of comic scenes, which are given in prose. It has no relation to time or place, except that the scene is said to lie in Germany, near the frontiers of Poland and Silesia. On the whole, we consider it as both interesting and amusing, though not so high in the scale of merit as the next tragedy, entitled, *Constantine Palologus*.

The fall of a great empire must be allowed to be a noble subject for tragedy. The Greek empire, it is true, was narrowed almost to the walls of its capital before it was finally annihilated by the Turks ; still, all the splendid ideas which had belonged to the more prosperous periods of its history were indissolubly connected with what remained of it : and Constantinople itself, full of people, of wealth, of stately buildings, palaces, libraries, and churches, presented a prize worthy the contention of rival nations. The subject of this play, the author tells us, was strongly suggested to her mind on reading Gibbon's account of the resistance of Constantine and his faithful band of friends, who devoted themselves with him to almost inevitable death : the time is limited to the last days of the siege, and the tragedy keeps closely to the truth of history, except in the introduction of a few characters and incidents

necessary to give variety, and fill up the grand outline of the piece: this gives it an interest which fiction alone cannot communicate. It is full of beauties, both of description and sentiment; but the most shining part is the character of Constantine himself. In him the author has delineated a man, by nature amiable, domestic, and unambitious; by circumstances alone lifted into a hero; a prince brought up in the purple and the soft luxury of an eastern palace, rousing himself at the approach of danger, and fighting at the head of his faithful followers; not with the animating hope of victory, nor yet with the sullen desperate courage of despair, but with the steadiness of fixed principle. His magnanimity is mixed and tempered with christian meekness, and all the milder affections. His character is well supported throughout, and rendered truly original by that tone of sentiment, and those tender tints of feeling, which none knows so well how to give as Miss Baillie. The scene with his friends before receiving the sacrament, and that with his wife, where he communicates to her his apprehensions, are uncommonly beautiful and affecting. Valeria, the empress, a character introduced by the poet, (for though a marriage had been arranged for Constantine, it never took place, on account of the trouble he was involved in), is also drawn with great spirit, though with less of originality than her husband. In her character, which is dignified, high-spirited, and commanding, the poet has evidently had a view, as indeed she herself informs us, to the cast of talents of our best actress; and we regret that the public have not been gratified in seeing her in so noble a part. The next prominent character is that of Mahomet. It is somewhat more theatrical than that of Constantine; but they form an excellent contrast, and history justifies the representing him haughty, cruel, and tyrannical in the extreme. The author has infused a contempt of his own servile troops, and an esteem for those of his rival, with a sufficient sensibility to generous sentiments to feel mortification, in the midst of his success, for the want of that attachment which is shewn to the unfortunate emperor. "And Constantine is served by men like these," is his striking exclamation. His character, though savage, is irregularly streaked with greatness of mind. The other

characters are, *Rodrigo*, a Genoese naval commander, rough and frank, in love with the timid gentle Ella; other friends and partisans of Constantine, and two Greeks, agents of Mahomet. Of these, Justiniani is the only character taken from history; and we cannot help thinking it would be an advantage to the play if he were left out. His character is faintly and obscurely drawn, and produces no effect on the catastrophe of the play. To the subject of this tragedy some may perhaps make it an objection, that it does not admit of the change of fortune commonly deemed essential to the drama; the catastrophe is foreseen, and the incidents which fill up the piece, the mutiny, the conspiracy, &c. neither produce nor retard it; but this does not, in our opinion, prevent a strong interest from being excited. Those intricate plots and surprising turns, which exercise curiosity, are not necessary; are sometimes even unfriendly to sentiment, and the aspect of a great and terrible event seen afar off, gradually approaching, and at length bursting like a water-spout in inevitable ruin over the heads of its victims, has something in it more awfully sublime and affecting. To point out the beauties of this piece would be to transcribe the greatest part of it. The preparations of Mahomet, and the weakness of the city, are thus pointed out in the first opening of the piece.

"*Marthon*. Wert thou not there when
Mahomet's huge cannon
Open'd its brazen mouth and spoke to us?
How brook'd thine ears that deep tremendous
sound?
The coasts of Asia and th' Olympian heights,
Our land-begirded seas, and distant isles,
Spoke back to him again, in his own voice,
A deep and surly answer; but our city,
This last imperial seat of Roman greatness:
This head of the world, this superb suc-
cessor
Of the earth's mistress, where so many Cæ-
sars
In proud successive lines have held their
sway,
What answer sent she back?"

In the first act news is brought of a mutiny; Constantine, in preparing to expose himself to the danger, is withheld by Valeria, to whom he shows himself somewhat more uxorious than becomes his high station; but, just as he gives up the point, Valeria, in whom sentiments of honour are only second to her anxiety

for her husband, gives him up to his brave followers :

"There, there! O there! thou hast no other way."

In the second act, Valeria consults a conjuror on the issue of the siege, and the fate of her husband; he gives her a favourable, though ambiguous answer; her eagerness and agonizing suspense is affecting.

"Again thou pausest, yet more terribly,—
Hast thou no utterance for what thou seest?
O God! O God! thou look'st upon his death!"

And again,

"——— I've heard enough;
I would not look upon thine eyes again,
And in my fancy shape thine unseen sights,
For all that e'er—"

We want, however, for scenes of this kind, something of more dignified superstition; something that we believe, or have believed, or that was held sacred at the time. They should be grafted upon some mysterious faith. We cannot sufficiently sympathize in the terrors inspired by a mere conjuror. Far different is the case in the affecting scene between the emperor and the gentle Otho, where the human passions and infirmities are so simply and beautifully displayed.

"Wilt thou go also, Othus?"

"Othus. Not if your highness does command my stay.

"Constantine. Ah, gentle friend! I do no more command!

But this distresses thee. Well, gen'rous man, Thou art commanded. (*Pointing to a seat, and they both sit.*)

Here, by thy friendly side,
I'll give my heart a little breathing space;
For oh! the gen'rous love of these brave men,

Holding thus nobly to my sinking fate,
Presses it sorely.

From thee nor from myself can I conceal
The hopeless state in which I am beset.
No foreign prince a brother's hand extends
In this mine hour of need! no christian state

Sends forth its zealous armies to defend
This our begirded cross: within our walls,
Tho' with th' addition of our later friends,
I cannot number soldiers ev'n sufficient
To hold a petty town 'gainst such vast odds.
I needs must smile and wear a brow of hope,
But with thee, gentle Othus, I put off
All form and seeming; I am what I am,
A weak and heart-rent man.—Wilt thou forgive me?

For I in truth must weep."

In the same strain is the following, immediately before receiving the sacrament (an historical fact) in the church of Saint Sophia.

"Constantine. My friends, there greatly presses on my heart
Somewhat I've much desir'd to say to you,
If a full heart will grant me so much voice.

"Othus. Then speak it, royal sire, we all attend

With ears of love and most profound-respect.

"Constantine. Thus stationed on a dark and awful verge,

In company with you, my noble friends,
I have desired, in this solemn act,
To make my peace with God. But, on my soul,

If any unforgiven wrong to man
Yet rests, how shall I lift my hands to him
Who has made all men, and who cares for all,

As children of one grand and wondrous house,

Wherein the mightiest monarch of the earth
Holds but a little nook?

I have been one, plac'd on a giddy height
Of seeming greatness, therefore liable,
In nature's poor infirmity, to acts
Of blind and foolish pride. I have been one

In much real feebleness, upheld, defended,
By voluntary aid and gen'rous zeal
Of valiant strangers owing me no service,
And therefore liable, in the mind's weakness,
Its saddest weakness, to ungrateful thoughts
Tinctur'd with jealousy. If towards you,
My noble friends, I have contracted guilt,
I trust—I know—I beg—What shall I say?
Your gen'rous hearts to all your deeds of love

Will add a last forgiveness.

"Othus. O no, most royal Constantine!
to us

And to all men thou'st ever worthy been,
Noble and gracious; pardon at our hands
Thou needest none.

"Othus. O no, thou needest none!
As we to thee have faithful followers been,
Thou'st ever been to us a gen'rous lord.

"Constantine. Your love would make it so: would that, indeed,

A voice within me seal'd its fair report!
Alas! it doth not; therefore now indulge me.

If there be one amongst you, unto whom,
With dark forbidding brow, in a stern moment,

I've given ungen'rous pain; one whose kind service

I have with foolish and capricious humours
More irksome made; one whose frank openness,

Of manly love, offer'd to me as man,
In gen'rous confidence, with heartless pride
I coldly have repell'd; yea, if there be
One of you all that ever from my presence
I have with sadden'd heart unkindly sent,

I here, in meek repentance, of him crave
A brother's hand, in token of forgiveness.
And be it in true charity stretch'd forth,
As to a man of much infirmity.
Who has with many trials been beset,
Wounding oft-times in bitterness of soul
The love he would have honour'd.
What! is there none that will to me hold
out

The palm of charity?

Then I'll embrace ye all, and, with eas'd
heart,

Believe myself forgiven. (*Embracing them
all as they crowd affectionately to
him, and coming last to Rodrigo.*)

And thou, my bold Rodrigo, who' canst
brave

The tempests when they rage, and onward
bear,

With the opposed strength of towering navies
Black'ning before thee, com'st thou to my
breast

In soft forgiving love? I know thou dost.

"Rodrigo. Ay, in that love that would
forgive to thee

The sum of all thy sins, tho' multiplied
Ten thousand thousand fold.—

That would do in thy service—O cursed li-
mit!

That there should be what to man's sinew'd
strength,

In all the burning zeal of righteous boldness,
Impossible is. (*Clenching his hands vehem-
ently.*)

"Othus (to Rodrigo). Cease! dost thou
not respect these holy walls?

"Rodrigo. I do respect them, Othus; ne'er
a head,

Shorn to the scalp, doth bow itself more hum-
bly

Before heaven's throne than mine, albeit in
truth

My words unseemly are.

"Constantine. Come to my heart, my
friend? He reigns above

Who will forgive us both. (*Embraces Ro-
drigo, and then observing Heugho,
who has stood behind, not presuming
to approach him with the rest.*)

But there is one who stands from me aloof
With modest backwardness, unto whose cha-
rity

I must be debtor also. Worthy Heugho,
Since earliest youth I from thy friendly hand
Have daily kindly offices receiv'd,
Proffer'd with love, exceeding far all duty
Belonging to thy state; yet, ne'ertheless,
I once, in a most vile and fretful mood,
Vex'd with cross'd things, thine honour'd age
forgot.

"Heugho. Oh, say not so, my dear and
royal master.

It breaks my heart that you should still re-
member.

"Constantine. Well, well, be not thus
mov'd, my worthy Heugho,

I know I am forgiven; but lay thy hand,
Thine aged hand, upon thy master's head,

And give him a last blessing. Thou art now
Like to an ancient father with us grown,
And my heart says that it will do me good."

In the parting scene between the em-
peror and empress, the inability of the
latter to conceive it possible that any one
should become her lord and husband but
Constantine, and her answer, "Will he
wed the dead?" are fine touches of nature
and pathos.

"Valeria. Ay, but on surer words I rest
my faith!

For I did bid him onward cast his eye
Into time's reach, and say, who of this city,
After the course of twelve revolving moons,
Should be the sov'reign lord; and he replied,
In plain and simple words, thy lord and hus-
band.

"Constantine. And nam'd he Constantine?

"Valeria. What other name but that of
Constantine

Could to these appellations be conjoined?
Thou turnest from me with perturbed looks:
Thou shalt not turn away: tell me! O, tell
me!

What sudden thought is this that troubles
thee?

(*Catching hold of him eagerly as he
turns from her.*)

"Constantine. Ask not; O, do not ask! 'tis
passed already,
As shoots a glaring meteor 'thwart the night,
Frightful but hasty.

"Valeria. Thou must tell it me.

"Constantine. Distract me not.

"Valeria. Nay, nay, but thou must tell me.
What other name but that of Constantine
Could to my lord and husband joined be?

Constantine (*sinking down upon a chair
quite overcome, and covering his face
with his hands as he speaks with a
quick perturbed voice.*)

Mahomet! Mahomet!

(*Valeria steps back from him, holding up
her hands in amazement; then he,
after a pause, looking up to her with
a self-upbraiding eye.*)

I have offended in this very hour
When my press'd soul sigh'd for that loving
peace

Which in its earthly close the soul desires,
I have offended.

"Valeria. Yes, thou hast offended,
All the offences thou hast ever done me
Are in this fell and cruel stroke compris'd;
And any other stroke compar'd to this,
Had fall'n upon me lightly.

"Constantine. It was a thought that hasted
fast away,

And came unbidden. (*Going up to her peni-
tently.*)

"Valeria (*turning away in anger*).

There is no thought doth ever cross the
mind

Till some preceding kindred sentiment
Hath made a path-way for it,

"Constantine. Yes, my Valeria, thou indeed say'st true;
But turn not from me angrily. My mind,
Ere now, consider'd has the character,
The faith, the power of Mahomet.—Frown not.—

Valeria thou art fair.—Nay, do not frown!

"Valeria. What dost thou say? hast thou
until this moment

Reserv'd for me this base degrading ———
No:

Torn and defaced by every hated form
Of outward grace! it is our curse, our shame!

(*Tearing her hair violently.*)

"Constantine. O be not thus!—forgive a
hasty thought!

Think how a doating husband is distracted,
Who knows too well a lawless victor's power.

"Valeria. What is his pow'r? it nought
regardeth me.

"Constantine. Alas! the frowns of a de-
testing bride

Deter him not!

"Valeria (*smiling contemptuously*). But
will he wed the dead?"

In the fifth act the general assault is given; Constantine dies, bravely fighting in the midst of his friends, and Valeria, after lamenting with her attendants, stabs herself in an interview with Mahomet, having previously gained his permission to be buried in the same grave with her husband. Her part is supported throughout with great dignity; but perhaps her grief is too fluent for grief so deep, particularly in the speech where she repeats, *it was a noble head—it was a gentle head—it was a crowned head.* This language is too set, and has too much of point in it for the occasion. Indeed the dying scenes would bear shortening. There are many circumstances and incidents which we have not noticed. In the episode of Othoric, the Hungarian chief, the author has borrowed, with good effect, a stratagem said to have been made use of to escape the tortures of the Indian savages. Among particular passages of great beauty, we cannot pass by the following, where Mahomet is traversing the camp disguised the night before the assault, and hearing a confused, murmuring noise, and being told it is the mighty hum of the vast capital which is so near him, exclaims,

"Mahomet (*energetically*). And let me listen
too! I love the sound!

Like the last whispers of a dying enemy
It comes to my pleas'd ear. (*Listening.*)
Spent art thou, proud imperial queen of na-
tions,

And thy last accents are upon the wind.
Thou hast but one voice more to utter; one

Loud, frantic, terrible, and then art thou
Amongst the nations heard no more. List!
list!

I like it well! the lion hears afar
Th' approaching prey, and shakes his bristling
mane,

And lashes with his tail his tawny sides,
And so hear I the city's nightly sound."

The joy inspired by the love of life; the tenaciousness with which the citizens cling to it, when Mahomet gives orders to stop the slaughter, notwithstanding the horrors of their situation, is a perfectly original idea,

"Officer. Yes, maid, such sights of blood!
such sights of nature!

In expectation of their horrid fate,
Widows, and childless parents, and 'lorn
dames,

Sat by their unwept dead with fixed gaze,
In horrible stillness.

But when the voice of grace was heard aloud,
So strongly stirr'd within their roused souls
The love of life, that, even amidst those hor-
rors,

A joy was seen—joy hateful and unlovely.
I saw an aged man rise from an heap
Of grisly dead, whereon, new murder'd, lay
His sons and grandsons, yea, the very babe,
Whose cradle he had rock'd with palsied
hands,

And shake his grey locks at the sound of life
With animation wild and horrible.

I saw a mother with her murder'd infant
Still in her arms fast lock'd, spring from the
ground—

No, no! I saw it not! I saw it not!
It was a hideous fancy of my mind:
I have not seen it."

It is impossible to quit the play without remarking the exquisite beauties of the similes, which are very numerous and many quite new, as the following:

"Thou sweetest thing," Rodrigo says to Ella,
"That e'er did fix its lightly fibred sprays
To the rude rock, ah wouldst thou cling to
me?"

Or this, in giving the character of Constantine.

"One thou'lt see,
Whose manly faculties, beset with gifts
Of gentler grace, and soft domestic habits,
And kindest feelings, have within him
grown

Like a young forest-tree, beset and 'tangled,
And almost hid with sweet incumb'ring
shrubs;

That, till the rude blast rends this clust'ring
robe,

Its goodly hardy stem to the fair light
Discovers not."

We will only quote one more.

"Silent shall be the march : nor drum,
nor trump,
Nor clash of arms, shall to the watchful foe
Our near approach betray ; silent and soft,
As the pard's velvet foot on Libya's sands,
Slow stealing *with crouched shoulders* on her
prey."

Ridinger or Stubbs could not improve the picture. On the whole, we look on Constantine as one of the best plays with which Miss Baillie has yet obliged the public. Ethwald may dispute with it the palm of genius ; but that play, besides having in some parts too brown a shade of horrors, is, in its present state at least, little adapted to the stage ; whereas we do not see in Constantine any thing but the frivolity of our own taste, that forbids the representation ; but, as that representation is always, to an author, so uncertain, we would earnestly advise Miss Baillie never to sacrifice her own judgment to the prospect of it. We say this, because in her ingenuous preface she speaks of having *kept back what it would be now impossible to replace, and weakened the interest of her tragedy, by attending too much to magnificence and show*. This is the more to be lamented, as the "pride, pomp, and circumstance of glorious war" can never be adequately represented by the utmost efforts of the *fourberia della scena* : nor indeed should it be aimed at, except in pieces where the *spectacle*, as the French call it, is the chief object. We hope Miss Baillie will continue to furnish us with plays that will stand the test of closet reading ; and which, if they are not acted in one generation, may be brought out with undiminished lustre in the next. Nor can we help thinking it a

degradation in authors to write with a view to particular actors. It is, on the contrary, the business of actors to suit themselves to what people of genius write. The parts least entitled to praise are what belong to Marthon and Petronius ; their characters excite no interest, and their treachery produces no effect. Whether, instead of it, the author could have taken any notice of the religious factions which had so great a share in overturning the empire, we submit with deference to her judgment. The language of this play, as in all Miss Baillie's other tragedies, is highly rich, figurative, and poetic, but here and there sprinkled with words that are quaint or antiquated, or harsh with elisions, as the word *grumly* in the fine description of the swell of the river in Rayner, the phrase "good-boy rules," or as the following line,

"Did in the teeth o' th' enemy's fiercest fire."

These indeed are mere specks, and we only notice them from the desire of rendering perfect what is already excellent. In the descriptive parts, the cadence is not always equal to the richness of the poetry : sometimes it is, and then the effect is complete. The finest passages of Shakspeare, either of sentiment or description, will be found to owe much to cadence. Having mentioned our great dramatist, we take our leave of the present publication, knowing no name among the present or last generation of authors so worthy to keep company with his as that of Miss Baillie, in tragedy. Of the *comedy*, which is slid in between these two pieces, the author speaks very modestly ; and we, from respect to her, shall speak not at all.

CHAPTER XII.

MISCELLANIES.

THE works noticed in the present chapter are very various, both in their subjects and degrees of merit. One or two of them, indeed, might perhaps with greater propriety have been included in the preceding divisions of our volume: this is particularly the case with the pamphlet entitled *No Slaves no Sugar*, which, having been by accident overlooked till the chapter containing the political articles was printed, we have chosen to introduce here somewhat out of place, rather than omit altogether. The *Transactions of the Missionary Society*, like the *Lettres Edifiantes* of the Jesuits, are directed to so many interesting objects, besides the proper business of the mission, as scarcely to be ranked under the head of ecclesiastical history; we have therefore thought it better, on the whole, to remove them to their present situation. The *Celtic Researches* are highly creditable to the industry and ingenuity of their author; and if, from the obscurity and peculiar difficulties of his subject, he should fail to secure the perfect conviction of his readers, yet it must be allowed that he has dexterously obviated objections, and has produced a very curious and interesting work. Mr. Witherby is entitled to the praise of good intentions, in calling the public attention to the state of the Jews. Dr. Scott has published a respectable volume of essays; and Dr. Drake has furnished an elegant contribution to the literature of the year in the third part of his "*Literary Hours*."

ART. I. *An Attempt to remove Prejudices concerning the Jewish Nation, by way of Dialogue.* By THOMAS WITHERBY. Part I. 8vo. pp. 511.

IT is of more use to attack the prejudices of the magistrate than the prejudices of the people. Opinions descend progressively. Humanize the ruler, and the subjects will become tolerant. The long black catalogue of wrongs which the Jews have suffered, may almost wholly be traced back to the rapacity of the sovereign classes of society, who encouraged the mob to hoot while they plundered.

Richard Lion-heart was a robber of this kind. Being in want of money to fit out his crusade against Saladin, he sent about popular preachers, *roaming saints*, as they were called, who, while they gathered up recruits for the holy war, aroused the multitude against the Jews. Their houses were systematically rifled by the emissaries of the religious king: at Stamford fair, especially, a vast booty of money and goods was thus collected,

at the expence of the unfortunate and meritorious founders of our interior traffic.

Under Henry III. the Jews again suffered detestable oppressions: but this king seems to have been willing to sell them a costly toleration. The barons, on the contrary, encouraged a heinous outcry; and, when they entered London, in 1262, began with a massacre of seven hundred Jews at once, by the seizure of whose property they provided resources for their rebellious soldiery.

Edward I. in the year 1290, confiscated the real estates of the Jews, as well as their personal property, and procured from his parliament an edict of expulsion against them. About sixteen thousand persons were thus stripped of the fruits of their patient and useful industry, and were barbarously sent to starve upon the continent.

Saint Bernard of Burgundy is honourably distinguished among the preachers of crusades, for having disadvised and thwarted the then fashionable persecution, plunder, and proscription of the Jews.

We lament such proceedings very willingly now-a-days: but we take no steps towards atonement. Why have not the Jews the same political protection as other biblical sects? Why should he, whose canon of scripture does not reach below Malachi, be worse off, than he who admits also the Apocalypse? If, to receive the greatest number of books as canonical, be the criterion of merit, why not prefer the papist, who has no apocrypha at all?

The Jews have some usages which interfere with sociability, and which are necessarily an impediment to that neighbourly intercourse with christians, which would tend to efface reciprocal prejudices. Such are their notions about diet. In early and ignorant communities, it is expedient to teach the essential arts of life in the laws. Thus we have statutes which direct how to brew, and how to tan, and which render criminal a departure from the national recipe; we have also laws about fish and butcher's meat, which resist the sale and use of unwholesome food. The Jews have many such laws which divide animals into clean and unclean; or, as the words ought to be rendered, into wholesome and unwholesome. The huge red hog of the Euphrates is justly classed among the unwholesome animals. Jews and Christians are both commanded to abstain from meats offered to idols, from things strangled, and from blood. It does not appear, however, that the Jewish method of killing animals can more completely evacuate the blood than the Christian method. The Jews wish to keep their sabbath on the seventh day; but, since the alteration of the calendar, they in fact keep it wrong, on a fourth day, and might as well keep it on a Sunday. Most of these commandments are plainly limited to Jews resident within the promised land.

The Jews encourage, among their children, a predilection for some occupations, which are necessarily held in disrepute; such as pedlary, frippery, pawnbroking, and usury. A pedlar will always appear to be a cheat, because he must always charge higher than a stationary shopkeeper. In addition to the

regular profit of the retailer, he must be paid for the portorage of his wares from door to door, and for the time lost in fruitless applications. Not expecting to see the same customer twice, the pedlar has but a faint interest in the good opinion or good will of his chap; and of course is likely to make a rapacious bargain with the less compunction. Frippery will always be held somewhat offensive. The man, who sells his cast-off clothes instead of giving them away, is ashamed of the avarice or penury which that implies: he dislikes, therefore, to see his fripperer, which reminds him of his meanness. The man, who buys cast-off clothes instead of new ones, is also ashamed of the want of neatness, or of money, or of honest acquiescence in his condition, which this plan of dressing implies: he too dislikes the reminiscences excited by the presence of his fripperer. The fripperer, therefore, must skulk into alleys, and be disowned by his customers. Pawn-broking is regulated by law; it is often an honest and useful employment, and might be a most humane and generous occupation: but it can never be an honourable one. A sense of shame inevitably haunts the man who pledges his watch, or the woman who pawns her cloak, to relieve the necessities even of a sick child. A pawnbroker is grinned to, like a confessor or a family-surgeon, because he knows too much to make his enmity indifferent; but there is no counter-feeling of gratitude for a moral or corporeal cure. Usury is odious: not merely because the lawgiver has idly made it a crime; but because, in all cases of bankruptcy, those persons, who have received exorbitant interests for their advances, appear to be the only persons benefited; and that at the expence of numerous and more scrupulous creditors: so that usurers pass for the causes of rash adventures, which extend their mischief to the crowd. In all these branches of commerce, and other such might be enumerated, the nature of the employment tends to excite a feeling of disgust, which is improperly transferred to the Jewish people, because it happens that they frequently exercise such employments. The remedy lies with themselves—it is to prefer the respectable lines of business.

The universities of this country are not open to Jewish, or to any other dissenters. Subscription to the thirty-nine articles is necessary to obtain access to

the Bodleian library. A man must record himself a Bucerist to get an apartment in college, and the use of its implements of learning. But there are christian schools, where the admission is encumbered with no derogatory concession, with no breach of honour, with no claim of prevarication, with no conscientious scar, with no moral insult. Into those schools surely the Jews might freely send their sons, without the apprehension of their being reviled as deicides by the boys, or inveigled by the master into apostacy. Early habits of intercourse with other sects would speedily remove what there may be of unsocial in the present Jewish character. The medical profession is very open to this sect, and of yore owed to it much of its dignity: by educating in this line some young Jews at Edinburgh, some literary representatives of the sect would spring up, who could reason with their own people, as well as with the country, about the reformations desirable.

This book concerning the Jews is too thick, and too theological; but it contains many useful passages: such is the following fragment of dialogue the second.

"In like manner, every person in trade calculates his risk in the transaction, and affixes his profit in proportion; and, although the Jews, in ancient times especially, were branded as extortioners, I apprehend they were no more entitled to the reproach than the under-writer who requires fifty *per cent.* premium, when the risk of a total loss is equal to the chance of safety; and if any reproach is justly imputable, it should be imputed to those persons who made the risk so great. The Jews were not permitted to follow agriculture, or any of those employments which engage the great body of the people. Their religion, as well as the jealousy of government, prevented them: for who would employ a person who would be unable to work part of every Friday, and the whole of every Saturday; the law of the land preventing his making up the difference on Sunday? Merchandize, therefore, became as it were their natural employment; and, as they were a people remarkable for their abstinence and frugality, their gains of course accumulate, and they are enabled to deal in money. Now money, like every other commodity, has its fair market price, its true value, and this value fluctuates according to circumstances. If money is scarce, it is worth more, if plenty, less. The legal rate of interest is now five *per cent.* Not very many years ago it was six *per cent.* and now is six *per cent.* in the West Indies, and much more in the East. Such was the great scarcity of money in this land at the

period to which we refer, that great advantage was apparently made by the Jews of their money. It was called exorbitant interest, usury, and extortion; and, not being regulated by any statute for some time, was fluctuating and arbitrary: but why should the Jews be reproached for it? If they had COMPELLED any one to take their monies at a great interest, they might justly have merited reproach, but every one was free to take it on those terms, or to refuse it. We have no good ground to suppose that the Jews were the only persons who lent money at interest. Does it appear that Christians in those times were content with less interest than was required by the Jews? If they had, would any Christian have been such an idiot as to borrow of a Jew at a large interest, when he could be accommodated by his fellow-Christian at a smaller interest? You justly observed, that if you were to have reproached the under-writers for not insuring your ship, except at a very large premium, that you would have acted the part of a madman. Why should not the Jews have had the same privilege of estimating the risk they ran? The mere use of money was then very greatly more than it is at present, risk out of the question. If there were but 100 horses in London, could you expect to hire one for a day at the same price as if there were 6000? so it is with money, the risk of losing it out of the question; but how great must have been their risk of losing their money by the poverty of those to whom they lent it? this must not be forgotten in the account: you would not forget it if you made out the account. If you sell for ready money, do you not content yourself with less profit than if you trusted the buyer for twelve months?

"Sudden. Undoubtedly, and should put on a profit, not only equal to the twelve months' interest, but equal also to the risk I ran of the loss of the debt; this difference may be considered as the premium for insuring the payment of the debt at twelve months.

"Cautious. Just so. Now the scarcity of money being considered, in those times to which we refer, and the risk of loss of principal also taken into the account, together with the trouble of collecting, the same being generally lent in very small sums, I am of opinion, that by far the greatest part of the calumny against them is groundless, vexatious, and frivolous; and, taking the other risks they run into the account, I am persuaded there is not a banker in London, or an under-writer at Lloyd's, who would be content to run such risks as they did at a less premium."

Our author extends his notion of idolatry very far: idolatry evidently consists in attributing to images supernatural power, in endeavouring to propitiate the figure of the Virgin at Loretto, in preference to that at Perugia, or the Moses of Mi-

chelagnolo at Rome, rather than his statue elsewhere. To bow the knee at the name of Jesus, or at the sight of his picture, or his statue, is not idolatry: it matters not through what sense the idea of a venerated character is suggested; but it would be idolatry to transfer the worship of the heart from the ascended prophet to the impotent representation. Isaiah, though he embodies his vision no less vividly than a painter, (c. vi.) is not idolatrous; but, in the opinion of this most merciless Iconoclast, to bow the knee where there is no idol, image, or imitation whatever, to reverence by any external gesture a mere idea of the mind, is idolatry. Mr. Witherby thus writes:

“There are degrees in idolatry, as well as in all other crimes; and every thing which tends to convey the idea, that any creature, however exalted, partakes of those attributes, which can only be possessed by the one living and true God, tends to idolatry. It hath often raised my astonishment, (although it is required by no law), that it is customary on an impeachment or trial in the supreme court in this land, the house of peers, for the peers to make a reverent bow towards the throne, as they pass it in procession: the chair is empty. Is not this built upon the idea, that the king is ever present in his courts? and is not this an idolatrous supposition? There is but one being possessed of omnipotence, and any act which tends to convey the idea, that a sovereign possesses this attribute of God, tends to idolatry. I will speak plain, I do firmly believe it to be an act of idolatry, and I am astonished that it hath not been noticed, and forbidden. A king may delegate a portion of his honour, and his power, to his officers and servants, but he cannot delegate any part of his majesty to an image, a picture, or a chair.

“*Sudden.* In a neighbouring country we have had evidence that idolatry may be connected with politics, and resorted to for political, as well as religious purposes, and become more cruel, intolerant, and vindictive, than that idolatry which Nebuchadnezzar endeavoured to establish; and I am sorry to say, that I think you have too well established your opinion, that there are observable, at least, the SEEDS OF IDOLATRY in protestant countries.

“*Cautious.* All the power exercised by any of the judges, or officers of the king, is

exercised by HIS AUTHORITY DELEGATED TO THEM: if, therefore, these bows were made to the lord high steward, as the king's presiding officer, there would be no harm in it; but THE KINGLY DIGNITY, which is DIGNITY AND HONOUR DELEGATED TO HIM BY GOD, cannot be given to any inanimate matter, whether it be an image, a picture, or a chair, without idolatry being committed.

“*Sudden.* It certainly has not been seen in this light, but I think your observation is worthy serious consideration.

“*Cautious.* I admit that it has not been seen in this light, and if it were mentioned, I cannot entertain a doubt but it would be forbidden.”

There is great mischief in scattering these conscientious extravagances. The manufactures of the Mahometan countries could never thrive, because the second precept of the decalogue is there interpreted, as if it forbade the exercise of the arts of design, of engraving, of painting, and of sculpture. Fame, which is much assisted by these arts, loses in part its salutary influence, where they are neglected. So that general opulence, private convenience, and public morality, suffer from this theological scrupulosity.

The second part of this work is much more fanatical than the first, and ought in common prudence to have been withheld, until some progress was made, by the earlier dialogues, in preparing and conciliating the Jewish mind. It is fitter for our evangelical Christians than for Jews; it expounds and reveals, with all the confidence of inspiration, the most mystical of the mysteries, and announces (dialogue V.) a conversion of the christian world to judaism, a little before the ensuing coming of Christ.

As works of literary art, these dialogues are dull and undramatic: the talkers must have had a very voluminous pocket-library to turn so readily to the remarkable passages of the orthodox theologians; there is nothing characteristic or discriminate in the different speeches; Mr. Zealous often talks cautiously, and Mr. Cautious zealously; and Mr. Sudden is far more patient than he will find most of his readers.

ART. II. *Transactions of the Missionary Society.* 8vo.

HOWEVER the missions of this society may terminate, the history of their transactions will always be valuable; as the annual letters of the Jesuits are still consulted for information, respecting countries in which no trace of the com-

pany's labours is remaining; and with whatever feelings we may regard the religion of these associates, willingly, as men of letters, do we acknowledge ourselves indebted to their efforts.

The Otaheitean mission still continues, with little better prospect of success ; but with fewer alarms from without, and free from any internal dissensions. The brethren have at length succeeded in acquiring the language, and are enabled to make preaching excursions about the island. The natives willingly listen, and readily assent to all that they are told. When the missionaries tell them that the spirits, which, as they all say, come to them in the night, and ask for men, hogs, and their best property, are lying spirits, they allow it to be very likely. They appear also to credit the word, when told, that the heavens and the earth are the work of Jehovah alone, and are willing enough to admit that the depravity of their natures is the cause of all their transgressions. They have, however, an odd way of asking questions during the sermon, and likewise of answering any thing which the preacher puts in the questioning form ; as for instance, when brother Nott asks who is the true atonement for sins, they sometimes reply hogs and pearls. The doctrine of the atonement, indeed, is that which most surprises them, and they frequently say, they always thought hogs would do. We find it impossible, says the journalist, to make those we have to do with sensible of their soul's value, or indeed what their souls are ; for the generality of them seem to conceive, that it is something out of them rather than in them ; that it resides in the *Po*, or other world, and only comes to them at certain seasons, as when they dream, &c. When we endeavour to speak to them about the *hidden man of the heart*, its nature, qualities, defilements, exposure to God's wrath, and way how to escape the same : they seldom fail to laugh, and treat it as an idle tale. The missionaries have neglected to adapt their metaphor to the idiom of these islanders. An Otaheitean believes the immediate seat of life and sensation to be in the bowels ; all figurative language, therefore, which refers to the head, as the head-quarters of intellect, or the heart as the centre of the affections, becomes ridiculous to them. The prints in Law's translation of Jacob Behmen might be made good use of by an able missionary : he might there show the savage the whole spiritual anatomy of his heart, and frighten him by one superstition out of another.

It is certainly extraordinary that not the slightest effect has as yet been pro-

duced upon a single native. The brethren and their employers account for this very satisfactorily, and summarily, by the agency of the devil. The Mohammedans have been found unconvertible for this plain reason,—their religion is more reasonable than that of any of the Christians who have preached to them. The Hindoos are difficultly convertible, because their system of superstition is most artfully connected with all their forms of society, and with every act of life. The Japanese eagerly and zealously embraced christianity ; the Mexicans submitted to it without reluctance ; the pagan Africans have always been ready to believe whatever new faith was proposed to them. These Polynesians seem as unsusceptible of it as negroes are of the yellow fever. Is it because their own priests contrive to terrify them more effectually than the missionaries have done ? The tales they tell of the spirits who disturb them by night, calling for offerings, may very possibly be explained by priestcraft. Such stories have been found among all savages ; the Brasilians in particular suffered in this manner ; *in hac etiam vita miserè ab Cacodæmone torquentur*, says Lery ; De Bry has made this look like a lie, by representing the Cacodæmons flogging and clapper-clawing them, in shapes which would enrich Raphael's dream, or the temptations of St. Anthony ; but the fact admits of this probable explanation. Priestcraft is the same everywhere ; and the Catholics have been detected in such roguery. Their unbelief is not occasioned by a general indifference to religious impressions ; for they are a superstitious race, and, like all savages, attribute every calamity to the immediate agency of unseen powers. When Pomarre was suffering from an obstinate constipation, it was believed that the god had entered into his belly, and was tearing his inside to pieces. They say that our god is not good, which they argue from the shipwreck of one of our vessels, and from the disorders which the Europeans have introduced among them. One man, with a most savage aspect, says the journal, pointed at a deformed person, and protested that such things could not be the work of their own god *Oroo*, but of the evil god of England.

The missionaries feel the danger of their situation, and attribute their preservation to a particular providence : it may be allowable to believe this ; but it

is not allowable to trust to that belief, and neglect the human means of preservation. They, therefore, ask the society very sensibly to consider, whether it would not be expedient to fix such a body of missionaries on Otaheite, and to accommodate them with every necessary, as to be independent of the support of the chiefs, and not to stand or fall with them. The effectual means of christianizing these islands, is by colonizing them; which, if we do not, some other European power will. Let the society send settlers there, who may act as preachers, according as they feel a call, or not. Enough may be found among their sect, who would willingly settle in so fertile an island, and so healthy a climate, if no other duty was required from them than that of supporting and defending themselves. A hundred Englishmen, with a fort, and a sloop, would be the lords of the island. They might then authoritatively prohibit infanticide and human sacrifices, and the natives would not venture to offend them, nor be disposed to do it, while it was evident that the settlers neither wished nor attempted to injure them, having the power; for the inoffensive conduct of the missionaries is probably attributed to their weakness. It would be prudent to furnish them with defensive armour, such as the common soldiers wore in old times; greaves, corselet, and shield; the cost would be little, the inconvenience none, the advantage decisive. In a few generations the colonizers would become the majority. Captain Cook computed the natives at 200,000, probably very much over-rating their numbers. They are reduced to less than half the number at which Mr. W. Wilson calculated them in 1797. There are not 8000 left, probably not more than five. The depopulation continues by the prevalence of that dreadful disease which is the just punishment of their loathsome sensuality, by their accursed custom of child-murdering, and by the frequent wars, which will be rendered more destructive as the rascally American traders are supplying them with gun-powder. The missionaries will never be safe till they are strong enough to prevent this traffic by force. The difficulties of establishing such a settlement are nothing to a society possessing such zeal, such activity, and such means: there are no woods to clear, no pestilential diseases to encounter. The colonizers could immediately support

themselves: in a few years on they would open a trade with New South Wales, they would send out settlers to the neighbouring islands, and Polynesia would ultimately become English. The better and more teachable natives would connect themselves with their civilized neighbours, and their children be exalted into the higher race; the more obstinate would be cut off by spirituous liquors, their own vices and their own ferocity. This is the order of nature: beasts gives place to man; savages to civilized man. It is better that this should be done by the society than by the government, because they would do it more effectually and at less expence; their motive would produce steadier exertions, and the adventurers whom they would send out would be far more fitted for the purpose than convicts or recruits.

It is to be wished that the missionaries would send home their grammar and vocabulary, and also a specimen of the sacred language, for such a secret language they have. We wish also that they would collect from the natives all that they remember or believe of their own history and traditions. The society of the Areeoies, and the practice of infanticide, cannot have been long established, as the depopulation produced by these causes is so sensible. When or how did they arise?

....

The mission to South Africa has been far more successful, because it was wisely undertaken. It is, in itself, so interesting, and may become so important, that we shall give a full account of it. For this purpose it is necessary to revert to the former volume of these transactions.

The addresses circulated by the society, to excite the attention and prayers of the faithful throughout the continent, fell into the hands of Theodosius Vanderkemp, a native of Rotterdam, whom God, says the historian of the mission, by a series of singular occurrences, had been preparing for the work. After studying physic at Leyden, this very extraordinary man had entered the army, in which, during sixteen years service, he rose to be captain of horse, and lieutenant of the dragoon guards, and would have risen to the first rank had he pursued his profession, being as remarkable for courage, as for every other endow-

ment. His life was dissolute so long as he continued a soldier. Marriage however put an end to scandalous irregularities, and brought on some external reformation; he then left the service and went to Edinburgh, where he graduated in medicine, and published a Latin work on cosmology, entitled *Parmenides*.—After practising at Middleburgh with great repute, he retired into the country with his wife and only child. Vanderkemp had been, like the old Deists, a religious infidel. Christianity appeared to him inconsistent with reason; the Bible, a collection of incoherent opinions, tales, and prejudices. As to the person of Christ, says he, I looked at first upon him as a man of sense and learning, who, by his opposition to the established ecclesiastical and political maxims of the Jews, became the object of their hate, and the victim of his own system. I often celebrated the memory of his death by partaking of the Lord's supper; but some time after, reflecting that he termed himself the son of God, and pretended to do miracles, he lost all my former veneration. But even the deism of Vanderkemp was superstitious. Like Lord Herbert of Chirbury, he prayed for miracles. He used to beseech God to prepare him for happiness by punishing his sins, and to show him in every instance the crime for which he was punished, that he might know and avoid it, and under this belief he returned thanks for every misfortune. Finding however that misfortunes in this world were insufficient to purge him of moral evil, he began to hope that some kind of purgatory in the next might cleanse him; but this seemed confuted by the experience that what he had already suffered had produced no amendment. I concluded, says he, it was entirely out of the reach of my reason to discover the true road to virtue and happiness. I confessed this my impotence and blindness to God, and owned myself as a blind man who had lost his way, and waited in hope that some benevolent man would pass by and lead him into the right road. What follows is too curious to be given in any other words than his own.

“Such was the state of my mind, when on the 27th June 1791, sailing in a boat, with my wife and daughter, for amusement, suddenly a water-spout overtook us, and turning the boat in an instant upside down, we were sunk before we apprehended any

danger: both my dearest relations were drowned, and I was carried down by the stream above a mile, and must soon have infallibly been lost also, as from the violence of the storm no person could attempt to approach the wreck, and it was supposed we must all have perished together: but now the Lord stretched forth his hand to deliver me; a stronger vessel lying in the port of Dort, was by the storm rent from its moorings, and blown out of the port towards me, till the men on board thought they discovered a person floating on the side of the wreck, and rescued me from the jaws of death.

“I considered this terrible event as the severest punishment that could be inflicted on me; and saw the next day as clear as the light, that it had no more power to correct me than all the former providences, and hence concluded my state to be desperate, and that God abandoned me as incurable by correction. The next Sunday I went to the church, where the Lord's supper was to be administered, and though it seemed inconsistent with my principles to join in the praises of one, whom I still held to be an impostor, yet being ashamed to withdraw from the table, I placed myself among the communicants, but in order to divert my thoughts from the object of the solemnity, I directed them to God nearly in this kind of meditation: ‘My God I could not acquiesce in thy dealings with me, nor submit to thy will, but now I can. I chuse to be deprived of my wife and child because it is thy will, accept them from my hands: I trust entirely on thee.’

“At this moment these words were represented to my imagination, with an overruling authority, ‘Do not trust them to God, but to me.’ I started at the strange idea of not trusting to God, nor could I conceive the paradox. I felt myself, however, pressed by the irresistible force of the command to obey; and from this (if I recollect well) I looked upon the invisible and unknown speaker as a person, whose qualities far exceed every notion which I had hitherto entertained of my God, and it appeared clear to me, that it was the Lord Jesus who had thus addressed himself to me; to whom I replied ‘Jesus, my Lord, to thee I trust;’ when it was asked again, if I now was satisfied that they were safe, and in good hands; I expressed my full persuasion of it. To this a reply was subjoined, if I really spoke truth, I certainly should have committed myself, together with them, to his care. Sensible and ashamed of my neglect, I instantly offered up myself, and all that I had to him; and experienced, that the only religion acceptable to God was unreserved dependence upon Christ; here for a moment the matter rested, when I resumed in thought ‘Oh, my Jesus, if I trust only in thee, I must be obliged to adopt the christian doctrine, which I have many times examined, and seemed to find it a jargon of absurdities.’

To this he answered, 'Examine it once more, and you will judge otherwise of my doctrine; and I will be with thee, and teach thee, that the imputation of Adam's crime to his posterity, and the way by which I save my people is the same, but eat now this bread and remember thy new master.'

"I would not say, that the very words you read here, were literally spoken to me, but only that I can in no other way convey to you a more exact account of the ideas which rapidly passed through my mind, whilst sitting at the Lord's table, and which seemed rather to be suggested in an obscure whisper, than in an audible voice.

"Immediately after this I fell into a kind of stupor, from about ten o'clock till three in the afternoon, only on my way home from church I reflected for a moment on this wondrous event. Returning to my senses, which seemed for a while suspended, and recalling by degrees what had happened, I suspected the whole to be mere imagination; but recollecting the command to 'examine the christian doctrine once more, and I will teach thee,' I concluded, if the matter were not visionary, the truth of it would appear in the revision of the christian system. I immediately sat down to make the trial, not knowing how to begin, but I remembered that I was directed to the imputation of *Adam's transgression*, and I saw thence a long series of new truths, proceeding from that principle in the form of corollaries, and in a most easy course traced out the way, by which a sinner from being similar to the guilty and condemned Adam, is brought to the image of a righteous, holy, and glorified Redeemer, and so restored from sin and misery to virtue and happiness, without punishment, and as a child independent of reasoning. By free grace I learned how the justice of God is not only uninjured, but exalted, and placed in the strongest lustre, through justification by faith. I rose before had seen the end of the chain, and wrote down the most striking articles of what I had learned; assured that I had never before received any true notion of the doctrine of Jesus. The next morning, casting my eyes on the Bible, I concluded, that if this book was written by divine authority, perfect harmony ought to be found between its contents and the doctrine, of whose truth and divinity I was now convinced; I was at first fluctuant to put it to the trial, but considering that it must be done, I resolved to read the apostolic epistles attentively, and was astonished to find the striking harmony of the first chapters of the epistle to the Romans with my own notes. I soon observed, however, that the riches of the divine treasure, far exceeded the partial knowledge of Christ, which was communicated to me. I was, for instance, surprized that the doctrine of the Holy Ghost, of which Paul so explicitly treats, was wholly wanting in my elements. I revered now the Scriptures of the

ANN. REV. VOL. III.

everlasting God, and valued, as a gift of the highest importance, this source of all-saving knowledge.

"You will have observed, that when the Lord Jesus first revealed himself to me, he did not reason with me about truth or error, but attacked me like a warrior, and felled me to the ground by the force of his arm. He even displayed no more of the majesty of a benevolent king, than was necessary to compel me willingly to obey him. But as soon as I had submitted myself captive to my conqueror, he assumed the character of a prophet, and I then observed, that the chief object of his doctrine was to demonstrate the justice of God, both in condemning and saving the children of men. I was pleased to find it had been represented to Paul in the same light, when he admired and adored. Because therein the justice or righteousness of God is revealed from the word of faith so evidently, that it excites faith and conviction in the hearer; but at the same time, I learned from my own case, that faith in Christ may be produced without an explicit view of the christian system, only by representing Christ as the proper object of faith. Hence gospel preaching proves in the hand of the Spirit, the instrument of exciting faith as easily in the rudest barbarian, as in the most learned Greek."

Religious madness never took a happier direction: he was urged to enter into orders, but though desirous to preach the gospel of Christ, felt persuaded that it was not his will in that way. Obeying, therefore, the impulse of his own mind, he became director and superintendant of a military hospital near Rotterdam, where he served till the revolution, upon which event he thought it his duty to quit the service. In his retirement he devoted himself to completing a commentary on St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans, and to oriental literature, being an excellent linguist, having even studied the Gaelic. While thus employed, the address of the society, as circulated in Germany, was put into his hands by a Moravian. It was mentioned therein that the missionary sermons were about to be translated into German, and he procured a copy to publish in Dutch. As he perused them his mind was violently affected, and when he came to the text "*Curse ye Me-roz, said the angel of the Lord, curse ye bitterly the inhabitants thereof, because they came not to the help of the Lord;*" he fell on his knees and cried, '*here I am, Lord Jesus,*' offering himself to the work.

It was not possible to find a man more excellently qualified for the task: he was

S 2

not yet fifty, in vigorous health, of a strong constitution, hardened against all fatigues by deliberate abstinence. His offers were gladly accepted by the society;—he published an address in Holland, and established co-operating societies at Rotterdam and in Friesland; found an excellent associate in Mr. Kicherer, and set off with him and two English missionaries to the Cape.

The Dutch are a religious people. Dr. Vanderkemp published an address as soon as he landed, and a missionary society was instantly formed there also. The government sanctioned his views, indeed the English government at the Cape uniformly acted well and wisely, and in an evil hour for the colonists as well as for herself, did England abandon that most valuable possession. Private liberality seems to have been unbounded towards this institution. One lady subscribed fifteen thousand gilders; and when Kicherer set out to preach to the Boschemen, he had given him by the Dutch farmers, beside abundance of other stores, eleven oxen, seven cows, and one hundred and eighty sheep.

Vanderkemp meantime entered Caffraria, with one of the English brethren, who afterwards abandoned the work and removed to Calcutta. He himself found it expedient, at length, to settle within the boundaries of the colony; but during his stay he made a vocabulary of the language, and collected materials for an account of the natives, more ample and more interesting than has been published by any former traveller.

Those writers who have wished to invalidate the *Consensus Gentium Universalis*, as a proof of the existence of Deity, have uniformly alleged that the Caffres are an exception. If the fact were true, their deduction has been well answered by Burnet, in his treatise *De Mortuorum*. The passage is exceedingly beautiful. *Ac proinde iniquum esset, ab his hominibus metiri genus humanum; ab his facibus hominum, et ipsius barbariei, reliquorum omnium vires et virtutes æstimare. Si quis vellet alicujus herbæ vim nativam inquirere, non flaccidam et exsuccam colliget e solo sterili; sed qualis nascitur in agris non malignis, et rore cæli, solisque radiis vegetatur, secundum usum ordinemque naturæ; et quod huic herbæ competit, id ad suam speciem pertinere aut toti generi primum et naturale statuet. Vel si gemmæ matrem ac indolem scire velles, non*

tantum brutam, ut aiunt, inspicies, scabram et terræ sordibus, obductam, sed extersam et politam; et quid tum valeat, quam vibret lucem, aut virtutem emittat, id totum naturæ et viribus ipsius attribues, et exinde præcium lapidi constitues.

If by religion, says Vanderkemp, we understand reverence for God, or the external action by which that reverence is expressed, I never could perceive that they had any religion, nor any idea of the existence of a God. They have no word in their language to express the Deity; they who have learnt from their neighbours some notion of his existence, call him *Thiko*, a corruption of the Hottentot name *Thuikee*, literally signifying one who induces pain. Vaillant tells us that there can be no superstition where there is no religion; it, says the missionary, he had lived among this nation, he soon would have discovered that they are extremely superstitious without religion. Witchcraft is one of the crimes which they punish, yet the king himself often calls in sorcerers to discover secrets, or more especially guilty persons, and those whom they point out are punished without any farther examination. Their medical practice is chiefly magical: this is the case among all savages, without a single exception. The doctor, or rather juggler, pretends to extract stones, serpents, pieces of wood or bone, &c. out of the body of the patient; or he orders cattle to be slain, divided into pieces and laid in a river, as an expiation; or he drives the evil spirit out of the sick, and endeavours to catch him as he comes out, and kill him; the devil in general contrives to slip by, and away goes the conjurer in full cry after him, over hill and dale with his assagay in his hand; if he can bring back the blood of the spirit on the weapon, in proof that he has killed him, the patient, he says, is radically cured; but if he cannot overtake him, the devil returns, and the case becomes worse.—There is a heap of stones in one place to which every passer-by throws one, or a handful of grass, they know not why. An old anchor, also the remains of some shipwreck, serves them for an object of reverence; a Caffree who had been employed by one of their princes to cut a piece off it, died soon after. It was immediately concluded that the anchor possessed a power of punishing those who should treat it with disrespect, and that it had some dominion over the sea

from whence it came; it has therefore been honoured with a peculiar name, and when a Caffree passes by he salutes it.

Each kraal has a captain, whose power is hereditary; but if he leave no child or brother the people choose a successor, or at least confirm him. Cattle are their chief subsistence; he who is poor and has none, goes to the king or captain, who always gives him more than a sufficient quantity: they are driven every night into a large circular fold in the centre of the kraal, and milked; and after milking in the morning again driven afield by a few of the young people, for they have no slaves. In the middle of this beast-kraal each family has its own corn-pit, which is dug deep; the grain lies on the bare earth, covered first with straw, then with cow dung, lastly with mould. When their store is opened for the first time, the owner gives a basketful to every family in the kraal, and a somewhat larger portion to the captain. Round the beast-kraal, at about the distance of a hundred paces, their huts are placed, which are built by the women; they fix long poles in the ground, in a circle of from about eighteen to twenty-five feet diameter, leaving a door place; these they bend and join so as to form so many arches, crossing each other at the top, and thatch with straw, lining the thatch with clay and cow dung: the roof is propped; the fire-place is in the centre, and the smoke finds its way through the thatch; they form a kind of portal which prevents the fire from being seen from the entrance. Every kraal has its common garden, and many families private ones. A kind of millet, but which grows from seven to ten feet high, is their common grain; they either boil it, in which case it is more palatable than rice, or bruise it between stones, and make unleavened bread. They likewise malt it, after which it is boiled, and the decoction fermented. The women sow the grain; it is an easy operation; they scatter the seed on the grass, and then, with a kind of wooden spade, throw down the grass on it, which serves as manure. They cultivate tobacco in great quantities, and are even refined smokers, using a wooden pipe, which is inserted in a cow's horn half filled with water, the head of the pipe is placed vertically, and its stem running obliquely downwards, enters the horn below the surface of the water;

they close the mouth of the horn with the hand, leaving only a small aperture, through which they inhale the smoke as luxuriously as the Grand Turk himself, though with less apparatus. Their cookery is in a less improved state; they live upon beef-steaks, which they roll in cow-dung before they put them on the fire; the economy of the feast is suitable to the cookery, one of these long slices is thrown across a stick and handed to the master, who eats it with his assagay.

A Caffree willingly goes naked when it is not cold, but he always chooses to be fine; he will have a brass chain, or a string of coloured beads round his head, two or three buttons in his ears; ivory bracelets above the elbow, of which five are sold for a cow. Much mischief is occasioned by this foolish ornament; they who put them on while growing, often neglect to take them off in time, and Vanderkemp was several times obliged to file them off, to deliver the patient from the dreadful inflammation thus produced; they have also metal bracelets, beads or chains hanging from the neck down to the stomach, beads round the loins, a kind of garter of very small yellow glass beads, looking like gold lace, round the right leg, and a fillet just below the knee of the left, from which a piece of a cow's tail, about a foot long, hangs in front. On the crown of the head stands a bunch of jackall's hair, fastened into a handle of brass, and on the right arm just above the elbow they tie five or six teeth of a tyger, standing upright, and pointing backwards. Tattooing, the adornment of our Pictish ancestors, and of our friends in the South Seas, is not fine enough for the Caffree, it is not enough to inlay his body, he must have it beautified in bas relief; to effect this, a pointed iron is thrust in the skin, which is pulled forcibly up, so as to remain prominent above the surface of the flesh. Thus equipped, with rings on his fingers and great toes, and his face and body painted red, the Caffree is, as happy and as well pleased with himself as a fool in Bond-street, who has got the start of his fellows in a new fashion, and takes to himself the merit which is due to his taylor. The women wear few of these ornaments; this custom also of ornamenting the men instead of the women is common among all savages, and the American Indians give a good reason for it. They point

to their animated woods, says Kellet, and tell us they see not whence we have picked up a contrary practice; they themselves have learnt their lesson from whatever moves around them; from the birds and the beasts, whose males are lavishly adorned in denudation of their females; from the gay plumage of the turkey cock, to the ornament-loaded head of the stag.

The most singular fashion is that of the Matolas, a tribe of whom Dr. Vanderkemp heard among the Caffrees; they wear the hair very long, and form it into a kind of hollow cylinder, which serves them as a pocket.

The king of the Caffrees is an arbitrary monarch: he kills, robs his subjects, changes laws, rights, &c. according to his pleasure, and his people bear this with a filial submission; these are the very words of the missionary. This government is however tempered by the freedom with which the captains inform him of the sentiments of the people, and by a wise custom of secession. If admonition produces no effect, the people do not think it worth while to take up arms, but break up their kraal and leave him. This policy, which so distressed the patricians of Rome, and which at this day so perplexes the master shoemakers, and baffles the interference of the legislature in England, soon brought his Caffrarian majesty to reason. The breast of every beast that is killed belongs to the king; he is the executioner, and it is his exclusive privilege to be buried; all other bodies are thrown out to the wild beasts.

Like all the savages they are a cruel and unfeeling race. When their sick are thought incurable, they lay them out in the fields to die, or more probably to be devoured. They are however often mistaken in their prognosis, and the sick man returns to his house and recovers; if not, the consequence is a second and perhaps a third exportation, after which the last step is to lock him up in his house, with a little meat and drink, and then the whole kraal break up and leave him to die. Vanderkemp attributes this practice to fear; by his fancy, he says, that if they suffer the disease to go on it will bring on the whole society some great calamity; to prevent which they know no other means than to destroy the subject of the distemper, and so to make an end of it. This however does not, as might be supposed, spring from the re-

membrance of some pestilence. When a woman is taken in labour, every one runs from her, and she is left helpless; if they see a person in danger of being drowned they run away, or throw stones at him, rather than assist him. Perhaps they imagine that the evil spirit who produces pain, if he be disappointed of one victim will seize another.

In no part of their moral character do savages differ so widely as in their feelings toward strangers, nor is it easy to explain the causes of this difference. In general it might be imagined that hospitality would be found prevalent in proportion to the ease with which food was procured; but the Caffrees, who are a pastoral race, and therefore seldom or never exposed to dearth, are remarkably cruel toward such unhappy persons as are by misfortune cast among them. The history of the Portuguese ship-wrecks upon this coast, is of all narratives of human sufferings the most dreadful. A Dutch exile remonstrated with Gika, the present king, upon the barbarity of murdering three Englishmen, who had been cast ashore: the king was astonished that any body should perceive any impropriety in the thing; he said it was well done, for they being strangers had nothing to do in the country any more than the wolves. Yet Gika is of a nobler and better mind than the generality of his people. When he was dangerously ill and his conjurers had named four men and a woman, as having by their enchantments been the cause of his disease, he would not permit them to be put to death as is customary, but said, "if there are so many who wish to destroy me, it is better that I should die than live against the will of my people."

Dr. Vanderkemp calculates the number of inhabitants in Caffraria at about 38,000, supposing that the whole country is populated in the same proportion as the part which he had seen.

They conceived that the missionary possessed great influence with God, a dangerous opinion to which indeed he himself injudiciously contributed. When he was applied to, to deliver the Caffrees from an epidemic fever, by prayer, his answer to the king was, that he would pray earnestly, and that he should know that the christians have a God that they do not pray to in vain. There was a drought in the land; Gika's mother, who was the chief witch for procuring rain, informed Vanderkemp that she could not succeed,

because the hole from which it was procured was stopped by some malevolent people, and she requested him to do it; the king himself, six weeks afterwards, desired the same service, and sent him two milch cows with their calves. He replied that he could not give rain, for that depended entirely upon God's pleasure; but that he could and would pray for it. The more a fanatic deliberates, the stronger his fanaticism becomes.—Vanderkemp went out to walk, and reflecting on what he had said, he thought that the Lord certainly would give rain, if he could pray for it in the name of Christ, and he felt at the same time a desire for the glory of God; upon which he went back to Gika's messengers, and said to them, 'Jesus Christ the son of God, is Lord of Heaven. I will speak to him and he will give rain; I cannot.' The next day the rain came so violently as to wash away the king's kraal, and accompanied by so tremendous a thunder storm, that Gika earnestly desired him to entreat *Tbika* that he might hear no more such terrible thunder claps.

It is said to have been Tillotson's opinion, that a zealous missionary among the heathen would probably be endowed with the same miraculous powers now which were vouchsafed to the primitive church: but Tillotson lived before the publication of Middleton's *Free Inquiry*, a book from which the deductions are unanswerable. St. Domingo, who if the devil were to die would stand a better chance than any other soul in his dominions of being chosen to succeed him, once told a saint of equal eminence, that it was not prudent to calculate upon a miracle. This was the ruin of Richard Brothers; had he prorogued his promised earthquake *sine die*, he might at this day have been the living oracle of a numerous sect. If Dr. Vanderkemp's faith had been more rational he would not have hazarded these dangerous promises. The missionary should at all times display the power which he derives from knowledge, and his auditors in proportion as they perceive the connection, will be disposed to believe, in the hope of acquiring the same advantages. But when he ventures to promise health or sickness, rain or sunshine, in the name of the God whom he preaches, if the chance turn out against him, the ignorance of the savage who attributes the failure to a want of power in the deity, is not more deplorable than the

presumption of the missionary who dares invite the proof.

The dangers to which Vanderkemp was exposed never intimidated him, though 'Satan sometimes roared like a lion.' Whenever he changed his abode it was always with a view to the good of others, never from motives which respected himself. General Dundas, at length, who never should be mentioned without due praise for the goodness of his intentions and the wisdom of his conduct, fully appreciating the exertions of this excellent and extraordinary man, offered him ground in any part of the colony, for the establishment of a missionary settlement. The object in view was to civilize the Hottentots as well as to convert them. Vanderkemp proposed to employ them in agriculture and farming, and in mechanical arts and little manufactories, such as soap-boiling, candle-making, spinning of thread, manufacturing of paper, tanning, pottery, brick making, turnery, &c.; the workmen to be considered as journeymen in the service of the society, and paid weekly for their labour; and the produce, the property of the society, and devoted to the purpose of the mission. It was not meant to preclude any one who became capable from becoming a master and proprietor of his own business; for the main principle which he laid down, was that the Hottentots should be perfectly free, and in every respect upon an equal footing with the colonists. The settlement was to be put under the direction of two missionaries and a school-master; should it increase to a greater number than could be directed by three spiritual and two temporal teachers, it would be better to divide it into two distinct establishments in two different parts of the country. The settlers were to be divided into christians, catechumens, and hearers. Excommunication and expulsion the severest punishments which the missionaries should have power to inflict, and if they proceeded to this last step, they should acquaint the landdrost of the district with the case; offences against the law were of course to be under the cognizance of the laws. General Dundas immediately declared his approbation of this praiseworthy and benevolent undertaking; 'seeing, as he expressed himself, the necessity of endeavouring to ameliorate the spiritual and temporal condition of those unhappy people, whom, upon every principle of

humanity and justice, government is bound to protect; he also promised to furnish provisions to the Hottentots for a reasonable time, and send part of the materials necessary for the construction of the intended settlement. What a contrast to the cowardly and unchristian policy of the East India Company, who would not permit Carey and his associates to settle in their territories!

James Read, who, happily for himself and the society, was sent back from Otaheite, by the brethren, for 'betraying much of a cavilling and untoward spirit, and indulging a very insubordinate disposition,' had stopped at the Cape on his return, offered his services to the South African association, and was appointed fellow labourer with Vanderkemp, who has found him eminently useful. Botas Place, in the neighbourhood of Algoa Bay, was the situation chosen. Of this they took possession in March 1802, having then 160 Hottentots with them.

Mr. Barrow's truly valuable volumes have made the public acquainted with the internal disturbances of this colony. These commotions affected the settlement at Botas Place. The boors who were sent out against the insurgent Hottentots, attacked promiscuously all the free natives whom they met. Vanderkemp wrote to the governor and to the fiscal Van Ryneveld, saying that if the detachment proceeded in this manner they would occasion their own destruction and that of all the colony. The colonists on their part hated the institution, and complained that it served as a refuge for robbers and murderers, being connected with the insurgents. The truth was that they received into their settlement those who separated themselves from the insurgents, and were willing to conform to their rules. The government, to conciliate these boors, whom it would have been well if it could have exterminated, forbade this. By this order, says Vanderkemp, we were, to our great sorrow, forced to refuse many of these unfortunate people, principally women and children, who nevertheless rather chose to maintain themselves in the woods among the brutes, than to return to their tribes. General Dundas, however, though compelled in this instance to act against his own inclination, still as much as possible assisted the settlement, sending them food and seed, and implements for building and agriculture. When the time

approached for surrendering the colony, according to the miserable treaty of Amiens, the governor came to Fort Frederick, which was near the settlement, and as the garrison were about to be removed to the Cape previous to its evacuation, advised the missionaries to remove with all their people into the fort, regarding them as dead men if they did not accept the offer. They thought it however not advisable, because their people were more in fear of the boors than of their own countrymen. The general then urged them to sail with him to the Cape, and defer the instruction of the Hottentots in that region till a more favourable season. But Vanderkemp would not abandon his flock, even, he said, "if I knew that I could save my life by leaving them. I should not fear to offer it for the least child among them." Read was equally resolved to expose himself with his people; and the general, after a last and liberal present of stores, embarked with his troops, promising to recommend them sincerely to the Dutch governor.

Eight days after his departure the insurgents attacked the settlement: they were repulsed in three several assaults. The missionaries had always instructed their people that it was the duty of a christian rather to part with his possessions than to save them by killing another, and that he was not permitted to kill any body, but when the safety of his own life, or that of a third person, should render it absolutely necessary. But the Hottentots were disposed to fight for their property as well as their lives, and it was evident that they took pleasure in fighting. This frustrated Vanderkemp's hopes of influencing the enemy by a peaceable and inoffensive conduct, and he therefore found it necessary to return to the fort. The colonists came from the fortress to assist them in their removal, thinking that they would make a common cause against the revolters; but the missionaries told them their principle was never to use arms except for unavoidable self-defence, and to oppose the disorders of the savages only by christian admonitions and example, of which the effect might be seen in their Hottentots. The boors soon burnt their settlement to the ground, and they were therefore obliged to remain in the fort, and await the determination of the Dutch government concerning them. The Dutch gover-

nor at length stationed them at the Zwartkops river; he wished them to desist for the present from instructing the Hottentots in reading and writing; but I could not, says Vanderkemp, with all the regard due to his rank and character, consent to a proposal so contrary to the apparent interest of Christ's kingdom, and so unworthy of the rights of a free people, merely to stop the clamours of a number of ill-natured persons. In his last letter, dated February 29, 1804, he writes thus :

" Our labours, and present institution, have, from the first, been a stumbling block in the eyes of the unchristian inhabitants of this country, and an object of their hatred. After the restoration of government into the hands of the Batavian republic, the almost universal clamour was, that an institution, not only formed and administered by emissaries of the London society, but even now continuing under the influence and direction of a company of Englishmen, was, by its nature, too dangerous for the public tranquillity to be suffered any longer, was an *imperium in imperio*, &c. &c. It was an easy matter to convince the brave and philanthropic Governor Jansens of the futility of the objection, and to shew, that our undertaking was entirely separated from all national views and concerns, and that your direction being entirely restricted to spiritual purposes, did not, even in the least degree affect, much less relax the authority which government has a right to exercise over all its subjects, any more than the filial obedience due to a father or tutor, infringes the rights of a sovereign over a son, or pupil, residing in his dominions. But it was not so easy to eradicate the inveterate prejudices against our work among the heathen, out of the stony hearts of more barbarous inhabitants; and it was evident, that our relation to English benefactors, was only a pretext to give vent to a deeper rooted enmity against God, his Christ, and the extension of his kingdom of love and grace among the heathen.

" Some of our missionary brethren have received an order from government, to give up the instruction of christians or heathen, within the limits of the parishes in this colony, and to remove to a distance of three days journey from every established church. We have written a letter of thanks to the governor for this step, by which our brethren are effectually directed to the helpless heathen, who hitherto have been left without the means of grace. We have obtained that this prohibition be extended to all the missionaries in general; and that those parishes which are at present without a regular clergyman be excepted, and thus rendered accessible for missionaries. We had hereby chiefly in view the colony of Graaff Reinet,

where not only some heathen, but also three nominal christians were awakened by the labours of two of our Hottentot brethren, who have been rewarded for this labour of love, by the order of a boor, acting as laudroyst of that place, with imprisonment and stripes."

Under these circumstances Vanderkemp and Read remain at their settlement on the Zwartkops river, which they have named Bethelsdorp—Bethel Village.

Kicherer meantime had laboured with equal ability in a different part of the country. Just when he arrived at the Cape three Boschemen had come thither from Zak river, to beg that teachers might be sent among them, and this missionary, with the Englishman Edwards, offered themselves for the service. The place to which they were going was between four and five hundred miles north-east of the Cape; the people made wild as their wild beasts by oppression. Their dwellings, or hiding places, are among the rocks, where they dig a round den of about three feet deep, in which a whole family lie. This den is sometimes covered with a few reeds to shelter them from the wind and rain, but they are generally soaked through by the first shower. They mostly pass their time in sleeping except when hunger rouses them, then they go hunting, creeping behind bushes till a beast approaches within reach of their poisoned darts, of which the slightest scratch is mortal. The poison is taken from the jaw of a snake.

Excessive hunger is necessary to rouse the Boschemen to exertion, and they will continue several days without food rather than be at the pains to procure it: but when they are roused it seems as if nothing could fatigue them, they can run the whole day long, and continue it for days successively. Their dress is a sheep skin, with a fox skin round the waist. They adorn themselves with a sort of red oil which they grind out of the rocks, according to Kicherer, mix with horse grease and the soot of an iron pot, and then blacken their whole bodies; the women sometimes only blacken their face, or in a more fanciful taste, stripe the body, nose, and chin: their other ornaments are pearls. They never wash themselves.

Like the wretched natives of New Holland, they sometimes bury the infant alive with its dead mother. They have

no idea of a Supreme Being, consequently no kind of worship; but there is a little insect known by the name of the Creeping Leaf, for which they have a superstitious reverence, thinking that the sight of it indicates something fortunate, and to kill it would bring a curse upon the perpetrator. They also believe that pain and sickness are produced by an unseen power, and to counteract his evil purposes, their conjurers blow and make a humming noise over the sick, for hours together.

If you do not teach men that there is a God, they will find out a Devil for themselves.

To these people did the missionaries trust themselves, in a country where, as they travelled, they sometimes had only the chance of subsistence of wild onions, and ostrich's eggs, and where, as they very oddly express it, there is very little to entertain a stranger, excepting the wild beasts. 'Believe me, my brethren, says Kicherer, that something is required to be entirely separated from civilized society, and wander in a wilderness among savage people, who, if the Lord did not restrain, would long ago have murdered us. Moreover, to have left dear parents, brothers, sisters, and friends and relations, and also to have a feeling heart concerning the same; so that not only in parting, but until this moment there is an open wound, which instead of lessening, grows every day deeper and wider. But Jesus, and he alone, is he who continually cures this wound, and causes me not only to rest satisfied in this way, but also gives me privileges and signs to convince me to what a most salutary post he has called me.'

It is not possible that such a man as this should live among any barbarians, how barbarous soever, whose language he understood, without in some degree winning their affections. Never let us depreciate the virtue and the heroism of such men, because it is accompanied with fanaticism! There are certain defects and diseases of the system which are found to heighten our bodily or mental powers. The madman's muscular strength is tremendously increased by his frenzy: the blind man's touch is exquisite; the consumptive are usually remarkable for quickness of intellect; while they, on the contrary, who by repeated fits have lost the little sense with which they were originally endowed, live on to a useless and troublesome old

age. Perhaps even our virtues never attain their full perfection without some deviation from the ordinary standard of physical or intellectual health: wounded fruit is always the sweetest, and unless the fig is pierced it will not ripen.

Wild as the Boschemen were, they were not insensible to the goodness of the man who had abandoned all for the sake of instructing them. Here was too what the missionaries call a stirring among the dry bones, which had made these savages to request that teachers might be sent among them. The fact itself is a valuable proof of what he has before advanced, that the desire of obtaining an increase of comforts by means of increased knowledge induces savages willingly to listen to missionaries from a more powerful and enlightened nation. A treaty has been made between the backsettlers and the Boschemen, and at the ratification of the contract, some of the settlers who were religious men, offered up a prayer in the presence of the savages, who inquired what it meant. They were informed that it was done with a view of imploring the blessing of Almighty God who is the cause of every good, and they were also told that their ignorance and neglect of the Divine Being was the complete cause of their wretchedness. Upon this the Boschemen expressed their earnest desire that proper persons would come and reside among them, and afford them those valuable instructions which would enable them to become as rich and happy as their neighbours; and so much in earnest were they that they sent ambassadors to the Cape for this purpose. At another time two natives of another nation came a journey of eight or ten days to the missionaries, because, they said, they would be likely to hear something concerning one whose name was Jesus, which would do them good.

They flocked to the missionaries in considerable numbers, led by curiosity and the love of tobacco. A quarter of a pipe-full was the reward of those who attended service—the true principle of producing conformity exemplified at a cheap rate. It was a rude congregation: to distinguish one from another Kicherer chalked their names on their backs, and when one of them approached him, the first thing he did was to shew his shoulders. The first method which he attempted was that of reasoning; to endeavour to convince their understand-

ings, but they continually raised objections and difficulties, and nothing was to be done this way. The preachers then changed their ground; they addressed the feelings and the imagination, insisted on the dying love of Christ, represented him as the all-sufficient friend of lost and helpless sinners, invited them to come to him and be saved, and intreated them to give the fair trial of experience to the doctrine, by praying to Jesus. Hell torments too were not forgotten. The effect was surprising. The savages would retire into the wilderness, quit their hunting parties, and even rise at night to pray. One of them says in a letter to the society, "How good is that dear Lord to us to send his children and let them tell us that we shall go to hell if the dear Lord Jesus do not save us! All the bushes in the field are not so numerous as my sins. As I lay down to sleep, I grow so frightened, that I must get up at once and pray to my dear Lord Jesus!" Another says, "Oh that I might be so happy as to know the Lord Jesus!" And when asked the cause, he replied—"Why should I not when I am so afraid of the Great Fire! for if I put my finger in the ashes only I feel such great pain, what must it be then in everlasting burnings?" Their dreams of course became affected. This the missionaries attributed to the Spirit. It is common, says Vanderkemp, with serious persons to dream of Jesus Christ: what is more curious, he discovered in one convert that the immediate object of her experience seemed to be the Holy Ghost more than the person of Christ! Alas, God himself is never in this mythology the object of love! Wholly unaccustomed to have their feelings thus addressed, and their imagination thus excited, they were overpowered; some were in tears, others sat in agony till they lost their senses; and so distressing is the place at times, says Kicherer, that it is impossible to proceed in the service. "What I am about to relate," he says in another report, "will probably appear to some readers perfectly ridiculous, but it is a fact, that we were always obliged to have a bottle of vinegar on the table, for the relief of those who actually fainted under alarms of conscience and powerful convictions!" But the influence which the missionaries had thus obtained was directed to the best

end, humanizing their manners, and teaching them to procure the comforts by performing the labours of civilized life.

The government of the Cape offered this able and excellent missionary church preferment, which might have tempted a mind less resolute, but having put his hand to the plough he did not look back. He has since been in Europe, and brought with him three of his converts to London, who excited considerable attention there. A reinforcement of missionaries were to accompany him on his return, and that all jealousy on the part of the Dutch government might be removed, the direction of the mission in South Africa was to be left entirely to the society in Rotterdam.

Sundry other missions have been established in the colony upon the same views, and every where with the same success; from every quarter we hear that the savages were learning the alphabet, that some could spell, and others were beginning to read and learn the catechism. No missionaries ever laboured among a more docile race, and no people ever were instructed by more able or virtuous missionaries. A distinct society for the furtherance of this most important duty has been established at Stellenbosch about twenty miles from Cape Town, which co-operates with the Dutch and English societies; and the Society *Pro Fide et Christianismo* at Stockholm has opened a correspondence with them, professing its wishes to establish with them a brotherly unity. If these measures be continued as they have begun, the natives of South Africa will in a few generations become a christian and a civilized people.

To these objects and such as these let the English Societies confine themselves. The village preaching of the baptists had better be left alone: we have Moses and the prophets. The missions to the catholics of Canada will also be of little avail. The teachers whom they send out are little fitted to propagate the reformed religion, which, to use the words of Hooker, 'though in itself most true, is in your defence, notwithstanding, weak, because the matter wherein ye think that ye see, and imagine that your ways are sincere, is of far deeper consideration than any one amongst five hundred of you conceiveth. Let the vulgar sort among you know, that there

is not the least branch of the cause wherein they are so resolute, but to the trial of it a great deal more appertaineth than their conceit doth reach unto.'

They talk of a mission to Madagascar, and Vanderkemp and Read offer themselves for the service if no other adventurers be found: the experiment should be tried, but we should be sorry to see them removed from a situation wherein they are so eminently useful. They also mean to try at Ceylon. It is their intention also to translate the Bible into Chinese and print it. What we should most advise is a mission to St. Domingo, if the emperor of Hayti's permission could be obtained, and adventurers found for so perilous a destination. Negroes would be the best fitted, because they would not be endangered by the climate, nor suspected of any political connection with the slave merchants of Europe.—The church of England has a society for the propagation of the gospel in foreign parts. What has it done, and how is it employed?

We must not conclude this article without noticing some curious circumstances relative to natural history. Vanderkemp says that the thunder storms in Caffraria, which are more frequent and tremendous than in Europe, exhibit this remarkable appearance. The flash of lightning, instead of diffusing a dazzling light, which confuses the eye and disappears in a moment, consists of a stream of distinct sparks, drawn by the earth from the clouds, or from the earth by the clouds, or from one cloud by another: this stream is commonly double or triple, and sometimes lasts two seconds and a half; this has of course, he says, a greater force as it is attended by

less light. He saw snails of which the shell was three inches and a half long, and two inches in diameter; he saw also a species of serpent with four legs, which the Caffrees call T'Kabee. The *Euphorbia antiquum verum* grows there in vast quantities and to the height of thirty feet. "I have seen a tree of this kind, says Vanderkemp, sixteen inches in diameter. The juice of one having accidentally sprinkled into my right eye occasioned a violent inflammation, which spread to the left, and did not abate till the third day: however I then found with great astonishment, that some dark spots which appeared before my eyes within the last two years, and which I took to be the beginning of a cataract, as they increased from time to time, totally vanished away, but returned to the left eye in a few days, though in a less degree; the right eye however remains perfectly clear." Vanderkemp was surprised that in all his journies he had never seen the skeleton or teeth of the elephants who die a natural death. "I am now," he adds, "led to suspect that they bury or hide their dead, from the following fact: One of our company killed an elephant, and went the next day unarmed with some of our women to take out its teeth. They found between 15 and 20 elephants at work to take up the dead body with their tusks!" What credit may be due to this relation, we will not pretend to say, as the missionary himself was not an eye witness: it is however evident that he believed it himself, nor should we be surprised at any act of rationality in the elephant. Our readers will have remarked its singular resemblance to a very sublime incident in the tale of Sindbad the Sailor.

ART. III. *Celtic Researches, on the Origin, Traditions, and Language of the ancient Britons, with some introductory Sketches on primitive Society.* By EDWARD DAVIES, Curate of Olveston, in Gloucestershire. 8vo. pp. 561.

A CATALOGUE of the books and disquisitions which the Book of Genesis has occasioned, would itself fill a volume larger than the Pentateuch, or perhaps than the Bible itself, and it would include the noblest productions of human genius, and the most despicable abortions of human folly. Catholic mystics have produced the wood of the true cross from the tree of life; infidels have cut their straightest arrows from the tree of good and evil, and from this tree Augustine and Calvin distilled

their deadly poison. Divines, astronomers, poets, painters, and puppet-showmen, all have found employment from Genesis. Having named Milton, it is needless to mention the other poets, who

"— on honey-dew have fed,
And drank the milk of Paradise."

Painters of every class have drawn their subjects from it—once, from the dauber of Adam and Eve for an alehouse sign in England, to the Poussins who have

evinced that pure and first-rate genius can be produced even in France. The old dragon and all his spawn came from hence. Here Hutchinson most unphilosophically looked for philosophy; here Mr. Parks the lecturer finds arguments to controvert the Newtonian system; here Paramo sees the first establishment of the inquisition; here Paracelsus discovers the philosopher's stone; here the Liverpool merchants seek scriptural authority for buying and selling human flesh. From Genesis the Moors of the farthest east get their circumcision; from Genesis we get our tithes. From the deluge Burnet formed the most beautiful theory that ever was invented by the imagination of a poet; Dutch ship-builders have followed the proportions of the ark, and toy-makers represent it in miniature for the amusement of our children. A set of religious madmen have appeared in other countries, who went stark naked in imitation of Adam; and a set of political renegades have been found in our own, who, like Esau, were content to sell their birth-right for a mess of pottage.

But wild work as theologians, canonists and philosophers have made with the Book of Genesis, still wilder have the historians and antiquarians, or antiquitarians as they may more properly be called in Milton's contemptuous diminutive. Some few centuries ago it was the fashion to begin all history with Adam, or at least with Noah; and it must be allowed that Annius and his followers had the merit of making their romances connected and amusing. But when we come to the modern swarm, to the Noachidae, and the Arkites, and the Ammonians, when all history is to be fitted to the tenth chapter of Genesis, and all language explained by certain cabalistical particles; we are indeed compelled to believe one miracle of that book, and feel that the confusion of tongues is a curse which has extended beyond the city of Nimrod.

We entered upon the examination of this volume with no favourable expectations, perceiving where the author purposed to begin, and who were the writers whom he commended. It was with real pleasure that we found Mr. Davies himself to be a very different writer, as learned, as laborious, with a sound intellect, that patiently investigates its stores, makes its deductions fairly, and exhibits

them in a clear and methodical arrangement. He thus states his subject:

"A regularity of structure, discernible in the ancient, and pure languages, demonstrates, that such an art, as that of writing, and speaking those languages, could not be indebted for its birth, to chance;—that it must have been formed by inferences of reasoning from objects of nature; formed with simplicity, and calculated for precision.

"This volume attempts, not only to investigate those principles, but, in some degree, to ascertain the means by which they unfolded themselves into language, and supplied hints for their own visible shapes,—in other words, for the invention of speech, as analyzed into a system."

"I was treating of arts, which are traced from the earliest ages of man. It was unavoidable, to make some reflections on the character of society in those periods of the world. Perhaps there is no topic upon which the moderns have shewn less of their accustomed liberality, or candour.

"They have taken their sketch of primitive man, as they found him, at the dawn of profane history, in the middle ages of the world; that is, when the little states of Greece, of Italy, and of the adjacent regions, began to want elbow-room;—when ambition had violated the good faith of prior establishment, or compact; yet, before the palm of the victor had enabled governments to controul their subjects, and before the law of nations had rooted their principles of mutual forbearance between the rights of the belligerent parties, at the end of their conflict. These were, consequently, times of confusion, which degraded the human character into a pestilent, and brutal spirit of rapine. But earlier, and sacred history of the same noble creature, man, proves, to the most incredulous, that savage life is the child of accident, and has no filial marks of nature, as her parent."

In these researches therefore it was necessary to proceed from the beginning. Mr. Davies infers from the Bible, that the antediluvian ages were ages of application, as well as of genius, and that as men then retained the vigorous use of their faculties, for the space of six or seven centuries, they carried their inventions to a high degree of perfection. The essential truths of religion had been revealed, though the primitive world seem not to have possessed just or fixed conceptions of the nature and attributes of the Divine Being. They understood the great points of the moral law; marriage, sacrifices, tithes and the sabbath had been instituted. Agriculture and pasturage must have been

well understood. Noah must have been eminently skilled in building, as well as in the arts which were subservient to it. Metallurgy and music had been discovered and far advanced. From the manner by which beasts were distinguished as clean and unclean, it is inferred that the antediluvians had their Linneæ and their Buffons; and it is proved very ingeniously, and upon the data very convincingly, that the stated return of the seasons, and the true annual period have remained the same from the creation; and were ascertained by the first generations of mankind. The deluge, Mr. Davies argues, was directed against the inhabitants of the earth, not the earth itself; even the trees were not wholly eradicated, nor even their vegetative power destroyed. It is therefore not improbable that many ruins of the works of men may have survived the flood. The main purport of this part of the disquisition is, that the knowledge of the old world did not perish, but was preserved by Noah.

Mr. Davies believes every part of the Book of Genesis in its literal and fullest sense. He admits however, and even recapitulates proofs, that, like other historical parts of the scripture, it consists in a great measure of compilations from more early documents. We wish he had been acquainted with the works of the later German theologians. The accounts of the creation, of the deluge, and of the building of the Tower of Babel, on which so much of his deductions depend, appear to be Babylonian documents, learnt during the captivity; and the tenth chapter of Genesis, which is here literally understood, has been proved to be geography in the form* of genealogy.

Jacob Bryant deduces all that was valuable among the ancient nations, from the scattered confederates of Nimrod. The system of the present writer is directly in opposition, and his arguments very ingenious.

"This righteous man, Job, chapter xxx. delineates the condition of the fathers of a race of men who were his contemporaries.—He alludes to some great and well-known event in early history. All the circumstances of description can surely apply to nothing else than the exiles and wanderers from Babel.

—“Now they that are younger than I have me in derision—whose fathers I would

have disclaimed to set with the dogs of my flock. Yea whereunto might the strength of their hands [gigantic force] profit me, in whom old age [the wisdom of the ancients] was perished! For want and famine they were solitary; “fleeing into the wilderness, in former times desolate and waste.” Who cut up mallows by the bushes, and juniper roots for their meat. They were driven forth from among men (they cried after them as after a thief) to dwell in cliffs of the ravines, in caves of the earth and in the rocks. Among the bushes they braved, under the nettles they were gathered together. They were children of fools [impious sinners] yea, children of base men; they were viler than the earth.” [Unworthy of the land.]

“Here we have a complete picture of savage life, and the true history of its origin, “amongst the children of fools, who were driven out from men, to dwell in the wilderness, in cliffs, in caves, and amongst the rocks; who, instead of speaking like human beings, only brayed like asses, and could boast of no desirable quality, but superior strength of hand.” They are not described as comprehending the whole, but a contemptible part of the human race. Their language had been debased in a manner in which the language of other men had not: for in comparison with this, their words resembled only the vociferations of a brute. Though the fathers, or first exiles, had fled to the wilderness, or hid themselves in caves, and amongst the rocks and woods, yet their posterity, in the time of Job, had begun to assume some confidence, and to associate with mankind; but they were all still regarded as objects of scorn and detestation.

“The fathers were undoubtedly the rebellious and vanquished giants, whose features are exactly recognized in the poetry of the Greeks and Romans, and in the tales and traditions of all primitive nations, amongst whom they were scattered abroad, as universal monuments of the punishment of pride and disobedience. To such hordes of savages, whether they continued to wander in the deserts, or were gathered together in little bands, and spotted the face of the earth with their cities and their kingdoms, we surely cannot ascribe the primitive traditions, the learning and the knowledge of the nations. Had the tale been told by themselves, they would not have told it, in every country, so much to their own disadvantage. They were not then the depositories nor the recorders of useful knowledge.”

“The old poets and historians, upon almost every occasion, show a propensity to espouse the opposite party. The poems of the Greeks, their poetic histories, the sagas of the Goths, and the legends of Persia and India, the traditions of the Britons, and even

* See our last volume, page 224.

the tales of the Greenlanders describe these giants so much alike, that it is evident they all drew from one original, and that their strokes are copied from nature.

"This remarkable concurrence of evidence, from times and places so remote from each other, carries all the force of truth. Universal tradition must be referred to some universal circumstance or event. And the traditions of the deluge are not more uniform or more general, than those which regard the giants. All ancient nations acknowledge their acquaintance with such a race. They intruded into the recesses of their country, they lurked among their caves, their forests, their rocks and their desolate places, practising sorcery and diabolical arts, exercising all manner of violence, and so fierce and savage, that it was a matter of indifference to them whether they feasted upon a sheep or a man. But I know of no nation which boasts of them as its ancestors.

"This is a general feature in ancient tradition, and worthy of remark. All people claim the family that was preserved at the deluge as their own peculiar ancestors, and the founders of their nation; but the giants are always detested strangers, with whom they never chose to have any connection. Some Greek writer makes Orpheus the Thracian call them *Ἡμετέρας ἀποργονίας πατέρας*, but it is probable the Thracian himself would have been more shy of his ancestors.

"The Greeks, in like manner, compliment the Celts with their descent from the giants; but the Celts themselves, while they acknowledge that such a race dwelt amongst them, strenuously maintain that they were distinct from the real founders of their nation.

"Were not these giants a people which were scattered into all lauds, whether desolate, or occupied by a more orderly race of inhabitants? In the former situation, their peculiar traits became permanent; in the latter they were lost by admixture.

"There is scarcely a trait in their character which either sacred or profane history, or popular tradition, vouchsafes to record, but their pride, their impiety, their violence, their barbarity, their total overthrow, their dispersion, and their final extinction.

"Yes, their great size, and consequently their superior strength, are additional traits which generally enter into the picture; and these perhaps may be agreeable to nature and to truth.

"It cannot indeed be supposed, that the associates of Nimrod were originally either larger or stronger than the generality of men in that age. But in a society which regarded the prevalence of force as the supreme law, a superior degree of bodily strength would create a distinction of rank, and must therefore have been a desirable object. He that was possessed of that qualification, would, of course, be constituted the leader of a band. The most ready means of perpetuating such

a distinction, amongst his children, must have been to select for his consort, the stoutest and most robust of the females.—Such a choice frequently repeated could not fail of producing, in the human race, the same effect which experience ascertains in the brute creation. It would gradually enlarge and strengthen the breed.

"What we read of the ancient Germans sufficiently proves, that the art of personal aggrandizement is not chimerical.

"The hero may indeed have had motives, to determine him in his choice, nearer home, than regard to his posterity. The brave exertions of the heroine would be of great weight to maintain his cause in the courts of violence.

"In societies thus constituted, the more fertile of each sex would be discarded as the dregs of the people. No choice would be left them, but to intermarry with their equals.—Hence perhaps the race of dwarfs, which tradition constantly places amongst the dwellings of the giants."

How then is the idolatry of the gentiles to be accounted for? by the gradual intermixture of the offspring of the giants with the inhabitants of certain countries, and by the gradual corruptions of the primitive religion, as of the christian, in the Greek and Roman churches.

Mr. Davies next inquires whether the Hebrew be the primitive language. He proves that it was formed and fixed when Abraham first went into the land of Canaan: that at that time it was not the language of the Canaanites only, but also of other families or tribes in and about Palestine, and that its general character must have been patriarchal, because whatever these different tribes possessed in common must have been derived from the parent stock. The gentile names of those tribes which were established during the second century after the deluge are either terms of the Hebrew, or of certain kindred dialects; yet they were the names by which the several nations distinguished themselves, for they are generally recognised by the old geographers. The several nations then originally carried with them dialects, not greatly differing from the Hebrew. Hence it undeniably follows that the fundamental principles and general character of the patriarchal language of Noah must be preserved in the Hebrew and its kindred dialects. We know what the Hebrew was 3300 years ago, and can make out its claims to a still higher antiquity. Though it cannot safely be pronounced to have been the primitive language, it must be received as a dialect

of that language, and as a most respectable scale to appreciate the character of every dialect whatever.

The essay concludes with a section concerning the general stores which the nations carried to their respective settlements. Societies, he says, planted and formed according to the regular division described in Genesis,

"must have carried with them the primitive history, the primitive religion, the institutions, customs, habits, opinions, arts and sciences of the patriarchal age, and the primitive language, with only such gradual variations as might be occasioned by local circumstances.

"The founders of these societies had been trained up to the habits and comforts of social and civilized life. It must then have been ordered, that they should repair to their respective estates, with all those provisions by which such comforts were to be secured. Amongst other things they must have taken with them their stock of sheep and cattle and other domestic animals. Their removal, though uninterrupted, must have been gradual.

"On the other hand, their unworthy brethren, the rebellious giants who, some time afterwards, were struck with astonishment at the sudden infliction of divine vengeance, *were driven forth from among men*, and scattered into all lands, to the east, and north, and south, as well as to the west, must have fled in disorder and confusion. Their flocks and their herds could not have accompanied the tumultuous retreat of the *wandering exiles*. Their consequent indigence must have introduced all the wretched irregularities of savage life, and fitted them only for the occupation of hunters and robbers."

After having established this hypothesis, Mr. Davies proceeds, in the next essay, to examine the origin of the Celts, their institution of druidism, and their pretensions to the knowledge of letters.

It is certain that the Celts were the principal Europeans known to the Greeks, exclusive of their own families. Josephus declares that those whom the Greeks called Galatæ or Celtæ were descended from Gomer; a people named from him would be called Gomerim or Gomeri. The hard g easily becomes k, for which we with wilful ignorance so often substitute c and wholly change its sound. Gymri, or Kimmerii, may then be nothing more than Gomerii; but to which branch of Gomer's family are they to be traced, to Ashkenaz, Riphath, or Togarmah? The Cynetæ are derived with no unusual violence of etymology from the former, and Taliesin calls his

countrymen Cyn-wys. To condense the whole of these speculations within such a compass as our limits admit, is impossible. This is the main result: the detail must be sought in the work itself.

The resemblance between the magi, the brachmans, the orphic priesthood, and the druids has been remarked by other authors, many of whom have supposed that the institutions of the east were imported into the west. Mr. Davies answers this by a happy illustration. "The distant branches of a spreading oak, notwithstanding the diversity of shape which they acquire from their exposure to different winds, have still a mutual resemblance in their texture, their foliage and their fruit, which they derive, not from each other, but from the parent acorn."

The name druid seems to have belonged exclusively to the British order, and to have extended only where that order was acknowledged. The primitive inhabitants of this island, it is here asserted, at some remote period of antiquity, revised their national institutions, and divided the sacred office of their priest or instructor, who had been till then simply named Cwyz or Gwydd, retaining this name for the subordinate rank, and for the higher inventing the term of Der-wydd-druid. This requires proof, for the mere use of the former term by Taliesin proves nothing, as the rank of Ovydd is known to have existed in his time. Another name for the lower rank was Syw. Both are noticed by the Greeks and Latins, and may be recognised in the *Kos* of Hesychius and the *Suos* of Servius. When the Romans invaded Britain the druids had retired to the interior parts of the island from the Belgæ. The voyage of Ulysses to the land of the Cimmerii, the descent of Æneas, the branch of missestoe which is his talisman, the doctrine of metempsychosis which is explained to him, and the allegory involved in the tale of Orpheus and Eurydice, are some of the reasons which induce Mr. Davies to think that the druids had been the wise men of the west, ever since that continent was first peopled.

We need not here explain the druidical system, as a very able account, extracted from Mr. Turner's *Vindication of the ancient British Bards* may be found in our second volume.

The Cymry are next identified with the hyperboreans. In these researches Mr. Davies discovers more ingenuity

than is usually displayed by his fellow labourers in antiquity ; but his account of Stonehenge is contradicted by all the Welsh traditions, which is surely of more weight than the single opinion of any writer, how able soever. In explaining the errands of Hercules to the west, as expeditions to acquire knowledge from the druids, the author quotes a passage from an old bard (he should have mentioned of what age), alluding, he says, perhaps to this enterprise of Hercules, whom according to the doctrine of the metempsychosis he supposes to have appeared in the person of Alexander.

"I wonder it is not perceived, that heaven had promised the earth, a mighty chief, Alexander the Great, the Macedonian.

"*Herys*, the iron genius, the renowned warrior, descended into the deep.—Into the deep he went, to search for the mystery, (*Kela-yddydd*). In quest of science, let his mind be importunate, let him proceed on his way, in the open air, between two griffins, to catch a view. No view he obtained.—To grant such a present would not be meet. He saw the wonders of the superior race, in the fishy seas.—He obtained that portion of the world, which his mind had coveted, and, in the end, mercy from the god."

Mr. Davies is mistaken in supposing that the bard means Hercules. The story of Alexander's descent in a diving-bell of glass, and of his ascent between two griffins, is related by one of the oldest German, and also by one of the oldest Spanish poets. We were not a little surprised to meet with it here in Welsh ! The manufactures of England do not extend more universally now, than the fictions of Romance seem to have done in the darkest ages.

A wild conjecture is hazarded that Mengw the son of Teirgwaedd, one of the three masters of the mysterious and secret science, of the island of Britain, is the Menu of the Hindoos ! This is easily made out by dropping the *g* in his name, and translating Teirgwaedd, which the Triad gives as his father's name, the three Veds. Nothing can be plainer than that here we have the author of the Vedas ! The conjecture, says Mr. Davies, seems to have much verisimilitude, and may be extended perhaps to Minos king of *Kent*, which in the old Cottian Celtic is *the earth*. That Menu and Minos were the same person is hinted by sir William Jones, who indulged himself too often in such vague speculations.

But the age of the Welsh Mengw is ascertained by the Triad, which has preserved his name, and which expressly states that he taught the secret to Uthyr Pendragon. In the same wild way the author converts Semiramis into Shem Oir Amud, a possible name by which the Tower of Babel may have been called. Such specimens of etymology are only worthy of the Irish Collectanea. We are told presently to look for the Hindoo Pitris, the progenitors of the human race, in the sacred islands of the west, by which lieutenant Wilford, the general Vallancey of Hindostan, says the British islands are meant. Now, sir William Jones says that these Pitris inhabit the moon ; and there we think they may be looked for with more success. If Dr. Herschel cannot discover them, some lunatic antiquarians may ; every body knows that there is a man there, and he is as likely to be a Pitri as any thing else.

The next section treats of the Coranied, the first invaders of Britain ; for the tribes who preceded them were peaceably admitted into the country. This is a learned and curious dissertation. Mr. Davies identifies them with the Belgæ, and by their evidence proves that they were a second wave of the Cimmerian emigrants. It is sufficient to give the sum of his proofs.

"The Celtic nation, at large, may be regarded as comprising a race, of two different characters, though sprung from the same family.

"The one sort, were those who took peaceable possession of a country, which had not been previously inhabited, where they supported the character ascribed, in history, to the ancient Hyperboreans, establishing a national religion, the best calculated for securing peace amongst themselves ; but which, till it was gradually changed by political necessities, rendered its votaries incompetent for the defence of their country, or the support of their national independence.

"The other sort, were a people, who had less of scruple in their principles, but who, having been inured habitually to arms, before they approached the west, and, confiding in their native prowess, forced their way into many possessions of their unresisting brethren.

"In the Welsh,—the Armoricans,—and the Cornish,—undisputed votaries of druidism,—we recognise the former of these two branches, and the latter, in the Irish, or in the Highlanders. It is not at all necessary to suppose, that, where those people established themselves, the others were either exter-

pated, or entirely removed. They seem, in several parts, to have amicably incorporated."

We now come to the subject of language, the most curious part of the volume. Mr. Davies informs us that the druids possessed a general system of tokens, or symbols, which they not only used in their divinations by lot, but applied also to the purpose of communicating ideas and thoughts. That system appears to him to have been formed upon the following principle :

" Discriminative characters, or properties, had been preserved in particular species of trees, and plants. These were not of a kind, which demanded the eye of an expert naturalist, alone, to discover them ; but which presented themselves, obviously, to popular notice and remark : such as, the expanding boughs, and leaves of the oak,—the length and uprightness of the fir,—the quivering motion of the aspen leaf,—or the hollowness of the reed.

" These obvious peculiarities, had suggested, naturally enough, to a simple race, distinct, though general ideas, of the respective trees or plants, and had given them a natural hint of comparison, between other objects, and those plants, whenever the same general idea should present itself.

" Thus, of a man, who possessed an expanded mind, it would be said,—in perfect agreement with the language of poetry, at this day,—“ He is an oak ;”—of another, who was liable to be intimidated, was irresolute, and wavering, “ He is an aspen leaf ;”—or, of a third, who was hollow, and deceitful, “ He is a reed.”

" Men, in progress of time, had proceeded so far, as to convey these general ideas, from one place to another, by means of a leaf, or sprig, of the characteristic tree, or by several of them, artificially combined. From such rude, and simple openings, evidently, arose that system of general symbols, which had been retained by our druids, and which, at last, grew into a science of such importance, and of such comprehension, that our bards of druidism, vaunted themselves, not a little, upon their complete acquaintance with it,—emphatically denouncing the application of its principles, *rhin*, or *run*, the secret, or mystery.

" This profound secret, they guarded, from the knowledge of the vulgar, with peculiar jealousy, and circumspection : the information, therefore, which they have left us, upon the subject,—though it ascertains the fact, that unquestionably, they possessed that system, is not adequate, of itself, to the task, of developing its practical application."

This theory is supported by many

quotations from the elder bards : their authenticity, which Mr. Pinkerton questions more in the spirit of his *Letters on Literature* than of his latter works, has been fully established by the masterly vindication of Mr. Turner, and they must be admitted as unexceptionable evidence. The theory certainly gives a connected and explicit meaning to these passages, which are else utterly incomprehensible. The difficulty is to show how symbols like these could represent the simple elements of speech in a manner so distinct as to constitute the rudiments of an alphabet.

" The radicals of this language are of the simplest nature imaginable. They consist either of single vowels, or of single consonants, connected with a vocal power.

" Before the birth of compounds, and of derivatives, the vocabulary of such a language, must, of course, have been circumscribed within the narrowest limits, and, perhaps, it comprised no terms that were properly synonymous. Whenever the mind, therefore, discriminated an idea, the term, by which it was to be expressed, was limited and certain.

" The Celts regarded each of their elementary sounds, articulate or vocal, as having a natural affinity, or correspondence, to some general image, or perception : and it was their opinion, that the name of the respective ideas could not be so properly expressed by other sounds. Hence, the continual effort of their bards, to cherish, and perpetuate, the characteristic sounds, in their descriptions of strength, weakness, velocity, slowness, weight, smoothness, levity, asperity, &c. which the laws of their metre sometimes rendered a very arduous task.

" Of the extreme simplicity, which characterized the primitive Celtic, I may offer an example, in the message which I have supposed—

" He proceeds, out of his place," *E 46 f 1c.*

" Let us only imagine, that a language of the people, whoever they were, by whom the system of general symbols was first improved into alphabetical writing, retained these, or the like properties, and then we shall bring this most curious invention within reach of human abilities.

" If the descriptive term, and the idea described, had a natural connexion between each other, and were mutually suggested, the symbol of the one would, of course, become the symbol of the other.

" If primitive terms were so simple, as to consist of elementary sounds, the symbols of those terms would, at the same time, have typified the simple elements of language : and, consequently the invention of hiero-

glyphics, or of letters, whilst men spoke one simple language, must have been one and the same thing."

Taliesin is again quoted to prove that the druids possessed a kind of alphabet, which, according to their tradition and their doctrine, was formed upon the system of their symbolical sprigs, or hieroglyphics, cut or delineated in simple figures, and adapted so as to represent the first principles, or the elementary sounds, of their language. If Mr. Davies translates fairly, and it would be unfair in the highest degree to suggest the slightest suspicion, he has proved his point. The Bardic alphabet is now given; it evidently may be explained upon this system: "Each of the radicals (except *n*, perhaps) is the obvious representation of a cutting of some *sprig*; and each of the derivatives is regularly formed, from its appropriate radical, by the addition of a *bud* or *shoot*, or the junction of a piece of *reed*." This alphabet is so strikingly like the Etruscan, that, if the one has not been copied from the other, both must indisputably have proceeded from one common origin.

By farther quotations from Taliesin it is shown, that the Druids did not claim as their own the invention of the system, or alphabet; they say that it had been preserved among the stores of the deluge, as the greatest of the three mental exertions.

All this is very extraordinary; but the author has clearly made out his case. In his next section he says, that the sin of Adam must have suggested the hint of this dendrological system!!! Indeed, all the comments upon these passages of scripture, wherein rods and trees are mentioned, serve to weaken his preceding reasonings, rather than to support them; the metaphor is in general so obvious, that the question is forced upon us, whether in the Celtic documents also he has not been deceived, by literally interpreting metaphorical language. He proceeds to show the general analogies between this system, considered as a method of writing, and the similar practice of other nations, and to prove that all letters have proceeded from one original invention. In the whole inquiry Mr. Davies displays great learning and great ingenuity.

The third and last part of the volume is an essay on the Celtic language, in which its radical principles are appreciated and compared with primitives and

simple terms in Hebrew, Greek, and Latin; having proved the existence, and developed the system of the oldest alphabet, he applies the discovery to illustrate the opinion of Wallis and des Brosses, *that each of the elementary sounds in language naturally describes a distinct image or perception of the mind, and that language was originally formed by following nature as the guide in adapting sounds like these to their several and respective occasions.*

"The various terms, by which the different languages express the same thing, may be partly solved, by the different modes of inflection, of composition, or of contraction; which custom has introduced into local dialects, and by which the same radical word has been so diversified, that its identity cannot be immediately recognised. I shall give an instance of this, in the term for *my mother's son*.

"Lat. frater; Ital. fratello; French, frere; Eng. brother; Germ. bruder; Gueld. bruyr; Belg. broeder; Goth. brothar; Dan. brodre; Swed. broder; Welsh, brawd; Corn. breddar; Armor. breur; Irish, brathair; Manks, brevr; Russ. brate; Slav. and Pol. brat; Dalmat. brath; Lusat. bradt; Bohem. bradr.

"This term undergoes twenty changes, corresponding to the genius of the several dialects; yet it preserves, throughout, evident vestiges of some one original word. Not presuming to determine what that word is, or was, I shall only observe, that in more than one Celtic dialect, *bru* signifies a womb; ad,—iteration, repetition of the same; and *ur*,—a man. *Brud*, then, is an offspring, or produce of the same womb; and *brudaur*, a man, produced by the same womb.

"But, according to my conception of the subject, a more fruitful source of the diversity in terms, must be explored in the original nature of all terms, which is relative, or descriptive,—not fixed, or absolute. And, for this reason it is, that not only a difference of dialects, but one, and the same, dialect, may have great variety of names for the same thing; when it may be viewed under a variety of relative characters. Thus, a son, in Irish, is called *mac*, which is a nursling, from the word *macam*, I sustain, or support. This is equivalent, in its meaning, to the Latin *alumnus*: bar, a shoot, or offspring; *propago*: orc, a germ, or seed; *progenies*: luan, a small one, from *lu*, small; *parvulus*: nion, an image, or likeness, &c.

"Had five distinct families been separated from the Irish nation,—had they colonised as many desert islands, in which their posterity retained only one of these terms, and applied it in the same absolute manner as we do the word son,—it is evident, that, in this instance, the new inhabitants would no longer be able to recognise the relative, or descrip-

tive, nature of these words,—or the original identity of their several dialects.

"This example is not singular. In the same language, there are ~~ten~~ words for a boy; upwards of twenty, for a hill, or mountain;—and as great a variety, for almost every object, which an unrefined people were likely to have contemplated; but each of them describes a distinct relation, or character, of that which it names.

"We cannot, therefore, adduce the diversity of terms as an argument against the first principle of natural expression, and the original identity of languages,—till we have considered these terms, in the relative, and the descriptive capacity, not in the fixed, and the absolute."

This main argument against the system is ably refuted. Till we have recourse to this principle, says the author, etymology will rest upon nothing. We may unravel compounds or derivatives, till we arrive at certain terms which are enigmatical, and whose precise or primary import cannot be satisfactorily explained. But let us once admit *natural expression*, etymology will then, like every other legitimate science, rest upon a solid ground. We shall be guided through all the various inflections of language back to nature itself; to that primordial impression made by the hand of the FIRST MOVER, and, consequently, as far as true philosophy durst advance. The very curious question of the formation of language is now examined, and the author points out the fallacy of all other hypotheses. We come again to the book of Genesis, from which so much false philosophy and false religion have been extracted. Adam named all the beasts before a helpmeet for him had been found: there could not consequently have been a *tacit compact* in the first rudiments of speech. It is pre-supposed that he had a disposition to try and exercise his oral powers, for the creatures were not brought to him to see *whether he would name them or not*, but to see *what he would call them*; he had then a disposition to call them by some names, and it follows also that such names had not been communicated to him previously. His Maker had implanted principles in him which the occasion called forth into action. But now the difficulty begins. What kind of names could have been given by a man who was not previously furnished with any language at all? Mere combinations of random sounds they could not be; for he could not then have remembered them, without a mi-

racle. Scientific they could not be; unless language and zoology had been miraculously taught him. They therefore must have been simply descriptive terms for obvious and general ideas, excited immediately, and suited naturally to the inexperience of the nomenclator. This hypothesis is oddly, but ingeniously, exemplified.

"Let us put the case, that Adam the first man would inform his new-created bride, of the elephant. The character which he had already described in this animal, in the act of naming him, was, probably, his enormous bulk. This description he is now to repeat. Being an inept orator, he would not trust entirely, and exclusively, to the powers of his voice. His arms would be elevated, and spread abroad,—in order to intimate the comprehension of gigantic space.

"This descriptive gesture would be aided by an immediate, and spontaneous inflation of his cheeks, till his breath would find a passage through his nostrils. This natural description of a huge bulk would produce the sound B,—M; and that sound, rendered articulate by the intervention of a vowel, would describe bulkiness, and might be appropriated most happily, to the elephant, or great beast.

"He would speak next of the horse, whom he had, perhaps, named, by describing his quick, and his energetic motion. The idea might be painted by a rapid movement of the hand, and a sudden hissing effusion of his breath, like an impetuous utterance of the syllable soos. This being the Hebrew name of the horse, appears to be intended as a description of his velocity;—for it is applied also to the swallow, and to a kind of night-moth, which is said to be agility itself.

"Our great progenitor might add an account of some animals, by imitating their voices, calling the cow, Moo, and the sheep, or lambs, Ba. He may have described the dove, by fluttering his hand, so as to intimate the act of the wing in flight, and by repeating the syllable, Toor, toor.

"He now walks forth, accompanied by the mother of mankind. The elephant presents his enormous bulk;—the horse flies over the field; the benn and the soos are soon and readily distinguished. They are saluted by the cow, the sheep, and the dove; the Moo, the Ba, and the Toor, are immediately recognised. How great must have been their joy to find themselves in possession of a social language!"

Thus the term, generated by the effort it meant to describe, pointed out the particular thing and its mode of existence, and nouns and verbs were produced at a birth. The primitive language would naturally become rich and comprehen-

sive, and would branch its various dialects before the deluge. After that event the same process would be renewed, as the families of the earth separated; languages acquired their discriminative character, but still they were nothing more than dialects of the mother tongue. These were *local* modes of oral delivery, terms of expression, combinations and applications of terms; but the fundamental principles were *universal*. Each colony had planted its own slip of the parent tree in its new patrimony.

The roots of the Chinese, the Welsh, and Irish, and the Hebrew, are all monosyllabic. The prefixes and terminations which abound in many languages, are, in many instances, evident remains or corruptions of distinct and significant words. Are we not warranted in concluding, the author asks, that the parent of those languages, which retain the characters here described, was founded in a few simple terms, descriptive either of leading ideas, or obvious perceptions, and so constructed as to serve the purposes equally of nouns and verbs? That it made no variation of its nouns and verbs by the help of unmeaning augmentations, but by the application of other terms, which had their known and obvious import? And that if it formed compound words, it must have preserved their several parts entire and perfectly distinct?

The several names of the bardic letters are now considered, as exemplifying this hypothesis, and the force of their several elementary sounds examined.

The remainder of the volume is filled with the developement of this system, and the author thus sums up the whole.

"I have shewn that Hebrews, and Greeks, the old inhabitants of Italy, and the Celtic nations, were peculiarly careful to distinguish each of their elementary sounds by a descriptive name, or to represent it by some natural, and characteristic object, evidently pointed at the same image, in all these languages.

"From thence I inferred, that an age, however distant from ours, once existed, in which the ancestors of all these nations had a distinct perception of the force denoted by each of their primitive sounds, and when they regarded that import as marked by nature itself.

"As the peculiar correspondence, or the natural affinity between certain sounds, and certain ideas, was admitted so generally by ages thus remote, I made a further induction, that primitive man acted upon the general principle of natural expression, in assigning to each of the elementary sounds, its

peculiar province in the formation of language.

"I applied myself to the task of discovering what antiquity had taught upon the subject, and I developed the habitual, or practical application of this principle. I had not bestowed much labour upon this field, before I observed the operation of a removing, and privative power, in the body of primitive, and simple terms.

"This discovery enabled me to assign the reason, why Ab and Eb, Ac and Ec, &c. present contrary ideas; and why Ar and Ea may import similar meanings; the former being positively firm, the other negatively weak and relaxed. This induced me to inquire minutely into the import of the several vowels, in order to mark their most frequent mutations.

"I have now pursued the investigation so far as to explain the import of simple sounds, and first combinations, or to arrive at the formation of such primitive terms, as constitute the basis of the Hebrew, Greek, Latin, and Celtic languages, (links, which had been missed between etymology, and principles of nature), and I have shewn, that all these languages actually arose from the same principles.

"The subject might be carried further, and so as to advance nearer to perfection; but I am anxious to learn the fate of that which I have already written:—I, therefore, with ingenuous diffidence, resign these humble essays to the judgment of the public,—but I take my leave of the reader with a general reflection.

"The identity of fundamental principles, which pervade the general mass of the language, demonstrates, that all of them sprung from one parent,—and that mankind are, what scripture declares them to be—the children of one family. May the conviction of this affinity between us all, dispose the human race to mutual offices of charity and forbearance!"

Whatever biblical critics may determine concerning the scriptural data which Mr. Davies has assumed, his Celtic researches will remain unaffected; his etymological inquiries must be estimated solely by their probability; and his hypothesis concerning the bardic alphabet by the evidence adduced. The work is certainly most curious, and we trust that the piety and learning of the author will meet with their due and appropriate reward. So numerous and so respectable a list of subscribers perhaps never appeared to any other volume: but patronage should not stop here. He complains of, or rather he mentions as circumstances which have increased the difficulties of the present undertaking, his laborious duties, numberless adversities, habitual

infirmities of constitution, and, most of all, a defect in the organs of sight. We hope that the bishops, all of whom, to their honour, appear as subscribers to the work, will remove one cause of ad-

versity, and raise him above the necessity of any laborious duty, which may otherwise prevent him from illustrating farther these very curious topics.

ART. IV. *Addressed to the serious Consideration of the Peers. No Slaves, No Sugar: containing new and irresistible Arguments in favour of the African Trade. By a LIVERPOOL MERCHANT. 8vo. pp. 64.*

THIS pamphlet is an ironical defence of the slave trade, in which the author, by stating in plain and naked language the arguments of its advocates, exposes the folly, the impudence, and the impiety of the reasoning, and the hard-heartedness of the reasoners. It may be worth while to follow him through this anticipation of the logic of general Tarleton, Mr. Dent, and the duke of Clarence.

Admitting that the slavery of the negroes is an evil, he asks, whether any attempt to remedy it would not be considered as a work of supererogation on our part, opposing the ordinations of that Deity which has condemned them to slavery, as a punishment for the crime of their ancestor, and has destined us to be the executioners of the doom? whether it be not repugnant to the true principles of perfect christianity, as an officious interference with the dispensations of that Providence, which for the best and wisest purposes alloweth evil? These arguments are accommodated to the prejudices of those weak people who believe their Bible,—for braver spirits, for philosophical politicians, he has another argument. Lord Kaimes, and many other eminent philosophers, are of opinion that the negroes are not of the same family with ourselves: indeed how can they be, when they are black and ugly, and stupid? for, granting that the sun could produce the black colour, how could it possibly make a flat nose or thick lips? The thing is impossible. We may just as well believe that we are connected with the oran outangs, as that the negro savages are of the same race with ourselves.

“Reasoning thus philosophically, of what avail are all those tender sympathies, those eloquent appeals to justice and humanity, which give colour to the picture of African bondage? Sounding epithets, and splendid superlatives, moral sentiments, and pathetic lamentations, may be bestowed on any object; but when they are lavished on improper ones, they become ridiculous. Those tender philanthropists, therefore, who feel so much for every brother negro, ought equally

to feel for every brother horse that toils along the road, or every sister calf that is butchered in the slaughter-house.”

This fundamental argument, which entirely precludes the question of the slave trade, has not heretofore been dwelt upon by the defenders of that system; because it has been considered as too philosophical for the doctrine of our holy religion, which inculcates the belief of their being our brothers, though brothers blasted by the displeasure of God: but as it is the argument which the planters themselves use, it is but fit that their friends in England should know upon what ground the enlightened Creoles prove, that it is no murder to kill a negro.

The wickedness of trading in human flesh has been the burden of the philanthropic song. As if there were no such trade in our country; as if pimps and procurers were not regular agents in the sale of *human flesh*; as if the mode of levying our troops was any thing but a mere trade in *flesh and blood*! What is the raising a new regiment, or recruiting an old one, but a mere job and contract, in which colonels, crimps, and corporals are the *traders*, and simple young lads the *article of traffic*; seduced from the loom, the anvil, or the quarry, decoyed from the peaceful habitations of their parents, and purchased by an insignificant bounty, to serve for their whole *natural lives*?

Again,—the abolitionists declaim against the impositions practised on our part, upon the ignorance and credulity of the country dealers, and the wickedness of supplying them with commodities which promote a corruption of their morals, and a sinful destruction of their lives. It is scandalous, they say, to make these poor wretches believe that a glass bead, or a brass button, is equivalent to the value of a man. This argument proceeds from their consummate ignorance of the principles of commerce, and the Liverpool merchant proceeds to set them right. Things are valuable

they are useful, or agreeable, and as they are scarce. Now brass buttons are very scarce in Africa, and the Africans are very fond of them; but, on the other hand, there are men in abundance, whose value is exceedingly insignificant. Negroes are of less value in their own country, than brass buttons are with us; according, therefore, to the relative nature of things, the price is a just one; and when the expence of sending over the buttons, and bringing away the animals received in exchange for them, be considered, the trade manifestly appears to be conducted upon the principles of fair and honourable commerce. The arguments against supplying them with spirits, and guns, and gunpowder, are even more futile. Our object, says the Liverpool merchant, speaking for himself and his brethren, is to remedy the inequalities of situation and civilization; to awaken savage man from the lethargy in which he lies; to supply him with the means of defending life, as well as with the conveniences which render that life desirable; and, by a fair, open, and liberal commerce, to facilitate the intercourse of the most distant nations, and make common to all those peculiar advantages with which nature has gifted particular regions of the globe! Yes, gentle reader, it is this cosmopolitan benevolence, this enlarged philanthropy, which induces the Liverpool merchants to exchange brass buttons and *bad guns* for negro slaves.

“Is it necessary to prove the justice and propriety of such endeavours?”

‘*Communiter bona profundere Dei est.*’

“If it is unjust to make war with fire-arms on naked savages, as Cortes did upon the Mexicans, who are unacquainted with the use of gunpowder, and fly at its approach, is it not just to supply them with those arms by which they may protect their friends, and be on an equality with their enemies? If it is true (as is asserted) that, in their traffic with the negroes, the African traders employ fraud and treachery, force and rapine, to decoy them, or to drag them into slavery, is it not merciful, is it not disinterested in the extreme, to supply them with those very instruments by which they may secure their persons, protect their property, and punish their enemies for the wrongs they have done them? Or if, in the last place, it be true, that such unheard-of miseries attend the poor negro’s doom; that, worn with suffering, and drowned in sorrow, he only looks forward to death for consolation; is it not charitable, is it not humane, to mix one drop of honey with his

cup of gall, and to minister the friendly potion, which, by intoxicating his senses, enables him to escape from sorrow, and snatch a moment’s requiem, from an age of permanent distress? How inconsistent, then, are the censures which are thrown upon the African trade! It is blamed for making havoc and destruction among defenceless and unarmed tribes; yet, in the same breath, it is reprobated for furnishing those tribes with fire-arms and ammunition, and for affording them the means of defending themselves from all injustice and oppression. It is accused of promoting misery and unhappiness, yet, at the same time, is overwhelmed with obloquy for furnishing to the negro the means by which alone he can escape his sufferings, and “steep his senses in forgetfulness.”

As for the manner in which the slaves are originally procured, that, says the ironical reasoner, is quite another consideration; though the abolitionists, by a curious species of reasoning, have thrown the whole wickedness upon the shoulders of honest London and Liverpool merchants, who have never seen Africa, and many of whom could not even point out the quarter where it lies. By the same ingenious species of syllogism, the murders, miseries, and expences which attend every long and bloody war, may be laid to the account of the minister who caused it; and if so, God have mercy on the present chancellor of the exchequer! But, in fact, the slave trade has produced an amelioration of African manners:—here the force of the irony consists in boldly asserting a downright falsehood. The evidence of Norris and Dalzel is referred to; gentlemen who made so respectable a figure upon their cross-examination by Mr. Clarkson, the intrepid and excellent man who first laid open the whole iniquity of this infamous and accursed trade. It is only in the writings of Mr. Park that any thing like a picture of domestic happiness can be found, as existing among the negroes; but Mr. Park is a professed enemy to the abolition; how, therefore, can we allow ourselves to be persuaded to an opposite opinion, by the whining effusions of sentimental philanthropists, who know nothing of Africa but the name? This irony will not be understood by the reader, unless he knows that the deductions in Mr. Park’s book, which are so completely opposite to those which every reader unavoidably forms upon the facts so faithfully stated,—were written by Bryan Edwards.

We cry out against kidnapping the slaves, says this Liverpool merchant : we, in England, who kidnap our seamen ! " The cases are precisely similar :—the darkness of the night is generally the time fixed on for action in both ; and the negro leader and his followers, like the regulating captain and his press-gang, completely armed, beset the dwellings of the defenceless and unsuspecting inhabitants, and tearing them from the bosom of their families and from their useful occupations, hurry them by main force, in the one case to the slave depot, in the other to the armed tender." The only difference between African and European kidnapping is, " that the former is the most merciful, as in it whole families are carried off together, and only for the peaceful purpose of cultivating the land."

" The *criminal jurisprudence* of Africa is the next source of domestic slavery, and who can deny that it is a just one ? In England, our laws condemn alike to death the needy wretch who has stolen a morsel for his subsistence, and the midnight assassin who has murdered his fellow creature ! but in the *criminal code* of Africa the disproportion is on the side of mercy ; adultery and witchcraft are the crimes punished by slavery, and the only objection that can be started against the punishment is, that it is too lenient." In removing these criminals, we render precisely the same services to Africa, which " any nation should render to us who should be at the sole trouble and expence of transporting our convicts for us to Botany Bay." The third source of slavery is the right which the creditor has of selling his debtor, an excellent means of ensuring to the creditor full repayment, as he is always sure of this personal security, and, the author infers, infinitely more merciful than the rigorous laws of England. Famine is the last source : who can doubt that the negroes would eat one another were it not for the slave trade ?

We now come to the treatment experienced by the slaves, to those ships, where, in the words of Mr. Coleridge,

"—hideous Trade,

Loud laughing packs his bales of human anguish."

The horrible manner in which they were crowded together, so that the continual perspiration of their bodies rotted the very wood they lay on, is passed over by

the Liverpool merchant with a pun,—it was *contracting*, he says, rather than *extending*, the sphere of human woe. But since the slave carrying act has been passed, they are wafted with comfort and cleanliness, nay, with a degree of luxury, to the polished society of the West India islands.

" They are repeatedly refreshed in the course of the day, by streams of air poured in from ventilators on all sides of the vessel ; their nostrils are relieved from any disagreeable odour, by frequent fumigations of frankincense and nitrous gas ; their appetites are excited, and more than satiated, by abundance of wholesome and nutritious food, prepared with no small degree of culinary skill, and seasoned with the most delicate spices of the islands ; to indulge their passion for gambling, different games are instituted ; to soften their tempers, and to sooth their minds, the charms of music and melody are employed ; and so ardently is it desired to see them all happy and joyful, that the sulky and obstinate are frequently forced to be so. Their wishes, nay, humours, are attended to ; the good relieved, the bad corrected ; and, on the whole, if any one was desired to choose a vessel in which he should prefer to circumnavigate the globe, he could not fix upon a more convenient one than a Guinea trader."

The last question to be examined is the treatment of the slaves in the islands. They are flogged, it is true ; but exactly on the same principle which justifies the application of the lash to young dogs, and boys at school, in order to break them into obedience. There is no cruelty in the driver, if he continues to flog unmercifully a stubborn slave. Every one who loved the slave would say, " flog on !" in the same manner as every tender parent who loved his child, would whip his stubborn disposition out of him. Besides, it is absurd to estimate a negroe's feelings by our own. They are used to it, as the woman said of the eels when she was skinning them alive. To Africans, the natural texture of whose skin is coarse and strong, the sensibility of whose nerves is blunted by the constant repetition of torture and chastisement, it cannot surely be considered as cruel to allot a far greater proportion of stripes, than could possibly be borne by a thin skinned European. But are not our soldiers and sailors flogged also ? have we no compassion for them because the lash is laid on by a drummer instead of a driver ? When governor Wall was condemned, he suffered, not for having flogged three

men to death simply, but for an informality in the mode of doing it.

The trade then is just, honourable, and humane; its abolition would excite a general insurrection of the negroes, and ruin the commercial consequence and political glory of Great Britain. The author flags toward the last, and does not enlarge upon these final topics, presuming that the utter absurdity of the assertions must immediately be felt. He addresses his pamphlet to the serious consideration of the peers, who, "elevated in knowledge, as in rank and dignity, disregard the motives of common minds." By that august assembly the abolition has till now been prevented; and whether this, he adds, may be attributed to the greater influence of charitable and christian spirit which, from the admixture of churchmen in that venerable body, must necessarily exist there; or whether it may be referred to superior sagacity alone, it will certainly long be recorded as an exemplary instance of both.

Though the irony in this pamphlet is too long continued, and sometimes not sufficiently obvious to those who are not well acquainted with the history of the subject, the author has nevertheless succeeded in his object: by such sneers, such obstinacy of ignorance, such impudent assertions, and such dangerous statements of the comparative happiness of the negro slaves and the English poor, this traffic in human flesh has been, and will be, defended.

The origin of the slave trade is curious. It is well known that the benevolent Las Casas introduced negroes into the Spanish settlements, in the hope of saving the original inhabitants; but it has not been explained how he himself was induced to follow the principle of robbing Peter to pay Paul. In the middle ages every prisoner taken in war became the property of his captor. Among christians their common religion, more than their common interest, first mitigated, and at length abolished the custom; but between the christians and the mohammedans it continues to this day in its full rigour. After the Portuguese had expelled the Moors from their country, they crossed over to Africa, and attacked them there. When they began their discoveries, the natives along the coast, as being Moors, were considered and treated as enemies; when they advanced as far as Negroland they pursued

the same system. It was soon discovered that the negroes were not moslem; but this discovery supplied the adventurers with another motive for enslaving them: they became objects of commiseration, as well as avarice, and when the Portuguese carried off the young for sale, they took the old and infirm also, solely for the purpose of saving their souls. The propriety of selling them was never questioned, as they came from the land of the Moors. Las Casas felt the iniquity of enslaving the red men, because there was no precedent for it, but, like all his countrymen, he thought it was highly desirable to make the Moors slaves, and as the blacks were Africans also, extended to them the same law of hostility.

We had long engaged in the trade before any scruples concerning it were felt. Perhaps Mrs. Behn's story of Oroonoko first excited some feeling of indignation, which was rendered more general by Southerne. A few travellers also, in the early part of the last century, regarded it with just abhorrence. Those advocates for the traffic, who say that the many dreadful facts which have been laid before the public by the abolitionists, are mere tales invented to serve their purpose, are silenced by these indisputable evidences. Let the reader take a specimen from the voyage of John Atkins, surgeon in the royal navy. It shall be given in his own words.

"Once on looking over some of old Cracker's slaves, I could not help taking notice of one fellow among the rest, of a tall strong make, and a bold stern aspect. As he imagined we were viewing them with a design to buy, he seemed to disdain his fellow slaves for their readiness to be examined, and as it were scorned looking at us, refusing to rise or stretch out his limbs as the master commanded; which got him an unmerciful whipping from Cracker's own hand, with a cutting manatea strap, (a thong made of the sea cow's skin), and he had certainly killed him but for the loss he himself must sustain by it, all which the negro bore with magnanimity, shrinking very little, and shedding a tear or two, which he endeavoured to hide as though ashamed of. All the company grew curious at his courage, and wanted to know of Cracker how he came by him; who told us that this same fellow, called captain Tomba, was a leader of some country villages that opposed them and their trade, at the river Nunes, killing our friends there, and firing their cottages. The sufferers this way, by the help of my men, says Cracker, surprised and bound him in the night about a

month ago, he having killed two in his defence before they could secure him, and from thence he was brought hither and made my property.

"Sometime afterwards; at Jaque a Jaques, we met the Robert of Bristol, captain Harding, who sailed from Sierra Leone before us, having purchased thirty slaves, whereof captain Tomba was one: he gave us the following melancholy story. That this Tomba, about a week before, had combined with three or four of the stoutest of his countrymen to kill the ship's company, and attempt their escapes, while they had a shore to fly to; and had near effected it by means of a woman slave, who, being more at large, was to watch the proper opportunity. She brought him word one night that there were no more than five white men upon the deck, and they asleep; bringing him a hammer at the same time (all the weapons that she could find), to execute the treachery. He encouraged his accomplices what he could with the prospect of liberty, but could, now at the push, engage only one more and the woman to follow him upon deck. He found three sailors sleeping on the fore-castle, two of whom he presently dispatched with single strokes upon the temples; the other, rousing with the noise, his companions seized, Tomba coming soon to their assistance, and murdering him in the same manner. Going after to finish the work, they found, very luckily for the rest of the company, that the other two of the watch were with the confusion already made awake, and upon their guard; and their defence soon awakened the master underneath them, who running up, and finding his men contending for their lives, took a handspike, the first thing he met with in the surprize, and redoubling his strokes home upon Tomba, laid him at length flat upon the deck, securing them all in irons."

The reader may be curious to know their punishment: why, captain Harding, weighing the stoutness and worth of the two slaves, did, as in other countries they do by rogues of dignity, whip and scarify them only; while three others, abettors, but not actors, of strength for it, he sentenced to cruel deaths, making them first eat the heart and liver of one of the killed. The woman he hoisted up by the thumbs, whipped and slashed her with knives before the other slaves till she died.

These circumstances took place in the year 1721: *A de tel forfait celui qui détourne ses regards: est un lâche, un deserteur de la justice: la véritable humanité les envoi-*

age, pour les connoître, pour les juger, pour les détester.

Slow as the progress of knowledge has been, the progress of morals has been even slower. Many arts were understood, and considerably advanced, in the time of Homer, yet he uniformly represents deceit as wisdom, and more than once inculcates as a maxim that it is right to do wrong. All barbarians are cruel, and civilized nations long retain the cruelty of their rude progenitors. Hanging, drawing, and quartering was practised to the full extent of cruelty in the last reign; and the common punishment in France, till the revolution, was breaking on the wheel. Even when wisdom and virtue have succeeded in humanizing such laws, bad men are found to restore them. The principle of the torture was resorted to in Ireland, and justified in England, to the eternal infamy of those who sanctioned a principle so detestable. The French republicans punished by the guillotine, that death might be as speedy as possible;—it has been said that Bonaparte put the widow of Toussaint to the torture, and there is every reason to believe that Pichegru actually died under it. Still, however, the progress of humanity is certain. Only a few quakers had regarded the slave trade as sinful, till Mr. Clarkson called the public attention to its atrocity. The people of England redeemed themselves by the feeling which they immediately discovered,—but the sin still remains. The speedy assent of the legislature to the abolition is now become of less interest to the moralist, and more to the politician, since the triumph of the negroes in Hayti.

The Romans, in their greatest power, durst not suffer their slaves to wear a badge, lest the oppressed should count their own numbers: the Creoles cannot imitate them in this; they can neither keep their slaves ignorant of their strength, nor conceal themselves from their fury when the day of retribution arrives. If they prevent it not by acting according to religion, and common humanity, and common wisdom, that day inevitably will arrive, and their blood be upon their own heads!

ART. V. *Selections from the Works of Taylor, Hooker, Hall, and Lord Bacon ; with an Analysis of the Advancement of Learning.* By BASIL MONTAGU, Esq. A. M. 12mo. pp. 368.

THE voluminous writers commonly abound with repetitions. Jeremy Taylor, Voltaire, Priestley, Wieland, are continually reproducing the same radical ideas. It is sometimes with learning, sometimes with wit, sometimes with argumentation, and sometimes with fancy, that they dilute their doses; but they administer the decoction rather than the essence. The arts of amplification and illustration they cultivate in various manners; but they are still wire-drawers. The bit of gold is very measurable; while the length of thread, the breadth of leaf, or the surface of plating, astonishes the gazer and the computer. All such literary tautologists are proper objects of epitomization. One may admire the echo of the Simonetta for repeating fourscore times the same syllable; but there is no talking all one's life with it. The apartments of the memory disdain to receive half a dozen copies of the same copper-plate: all but the proof must be thrown away. He does a great service to literature, who picks out in an author's works the proof-impressions of his ideas, and throws by the trite trash, the re-chizellings, and after-etchings. He saves the labour of future students.

The works of Jeremy Taylor are of a kind peculiarly fitted for compression. The curd is excellent, but there is plenty of whey; it will supply parmesan, if we squeeze but hard and empty three-fourths into the swill-tub. We wish that the taste of Mr. Montagu would have the patience to read Jeremy Taylor through, and to re-publish all his beauties in one separate selection.

But surely this art of literary distillation, this exhalation of a phial of alcohol from a cask of must, is very inapplicable to the opposite class of writers. Lord Bacon is at the head of the condensers. He converts whole gardens of idea into a drop of otto, and exhibits it in a single sentence. If Jeremy Taylor's ink is mist, Bacon's is mercury. In topic he is exhaustless as Cicero, but concise as Tacitus. His every expression is an allusion which cannot be spared. His illustrations are recondite, and appear pedantic to those who understand them not; but they display that far-darting might of mind, which, like the radiance

of Hyperion, stretches in every direction and penetrates and illuminates every where: nay, he has this above the sun, that he pervades not only the present but the past. His mass of original inference transcends his whole vast stock of acquirement: one studies him still for unnoticed discoveries. Of such writers there can be no abridgment, and there should be no suppression. They form excellent books of topics for preachers and popular essayists to dilate: they are too instructive to instruct the crowd. What the Book of Wisdom has been to christianity, Bacon's Essays have been to the British moralizers.

Of Hooker we were surprised to see the name announced, as a source of fresh pailfuls. Men of taste have left off drinking there. What is there of good in Hooker? Mr. Godwin has very properly and justly exposed his wretched style in the *Enquirer*, p. 384, &c.; and his matter is surely of very little value even to his sect. Let us take Mr. Montagu's first extract, and expound the nonsense of it to the public.

“ 1. He that goeth about to persuade a multitude that they are not so well governed as they ought to be, shall never want attentive and favourable hearers; because they know the manifold defects whereunto every kind of regiment is subject. 2. But the secret lets and difficulties, which in public proceedings are innumerable and inevitable, they have not ordinarily the judgment to consider. 3. And because such as openly reprove supposed disorders of state, are taken for principal friends to the common benefit of all, and for men that carry singular freedom of mind; under this fair and plausible colour, whatsoever they utter passeth for good and current. 4. That which wanteth in the weight of their speech, is supplied by the aptness of men's minds to accept and believe it. 5. Whereas, on the other side, if we maintain things that are established, we have not only to strive with a number of heavy prejudices deeply rooted in the hearts of men, who think that herein we serve the time and speak in favour of the present state, because thereby we either hold or seek preferment; but also to bear such exceptions, as minds so averted before-hand usually take against that which they are loth should be poured into them.

“ 6. The stateliness of houses, the goodness of trees, when we behold them, delight the eye: but that foundation which

bearth up the one, that root which minis-
treth unto the other nourishment and life, is
in the bosom of the earth concealed; and if
there be occasion at any time to search into
it, such labour is then more necessary than
pleasant, both to them which undertake it,
and for the lookers on. 7. In like manner,
the use and benefit of good laws, all that live
under them may enjoy with delight and com-
fort, albeit the grounds and first original
causes from whence they have sprung, be un-
known, as to the greatest part of men they
are.

"8. Since the time that God did first proclaim
the edicts of his law upon the world, heaven
and earth have hearkened unto his voice, and
their labour hath been to do his will. 9. *He
made a law for the rain*; he gave his *decree
unto the sea, that the waters should not pass his
commandment*. 10. Now, if nature should
intermit her course, and leave altogether,
though it were for a while, the observation
of her own laws; if those principal and
mother elements of the world, whereof all
things in this lower world are made, should
lose the qualities which now they have; if
the frame of that heavenly arch erected over
our heads, should loosen and dissolve itself;
if celestial spheres should forget their wonted
motions, and by irregular volubility turn
themselves any way as it might happen; if
the prince of the lights of heaven, which now,
as a giant, doth run his unwearied course,
should, as it were through a languishing faint-
ness, begin to stand, and to rest himself; if
the moon should wander from her beaten
way, the times and seasons of the year blend
themselves by disordered and confused mix-
ture, the winds breathe out their last gasp,
the clouds yield to rain, the earth be defeated
of heavenly influence, the fruits of the earth
pine away, as children at the withered breasts
of their mother, no longer able to yield them
relief; what would become of man himself,
whom these things do now all serve? 11. See
we not plainly, that obedience of creatures
unto the law of nature is the stay of the
whole world?

"12. Of law there can be no less acknow-
ledged than that her seat is the bosom of
God; her voice the harmony of the world:
all things in heaven and earth do her homage;
the very least as feeling her care, and the
greatest as not exempted from her power.
13. Both angels and men, and creatures of
what condition soever, though each in dif-
ferent sort and manner, yet all with uniform
consent, admiring her as the mother of their
peace and joy."

1. The first sentence asserts that men
who preach sedition will never want
hearers, because their hearers know al-
ready what they have to say. Is this a
reason for listening? 2. The *secret* dif-
ficulties of public proceedings the multi-
tude have not the *judgment* to consider.

It is not the province of judgment but
of penetration or sagacity to detect secret
difficulties. The useless, timid qualifica-
tion *ordinarily* is characteristic of Hooker,
who always eats back half his words:
he forgets that he is speaking of the mul-
titude only, and that he might have said
always as fitly as *ordinarily*; he ought
therefore to have said neither. 3. The
next assertion is that those who openly
reprove *supposed* disorders of state pass
for friends to the commonwealth: where-
as, if the disorders be fictitious, this is
quite improbable. 4. *Want of weight* is
supplied by *aptness*; a mixt metaphor,
intelligible perhaps, but indefensible.
5. It is said that those who maintain
things that are established have to strive
with *prejudices*—now prejudices can only
be formed in favour of the established.

In the second paragraph the incipient
simile is good, but idly worded: What
childish tautology to say that the good-
liness of trees when we behold them, de-
lighteth the eye; as if they could de-
light the eye, when we do not behold
them! The seventh sentence, although
the thoughts be arranged in anti-climax,
is one of the best.

The third paragraph begins with a
mystical assertion, which must be called
poetical, or acknowledged untrue. 9.
Metaphorical quotations are employed
in proof of the literal truth of the pre-
vious rhapsody. 10. *To leave altogether*
is the reverse of *leaving for a while*, but
here they are used as consistent suppo-
sitions: the heavenly arch is spoken of
both as a solid, which can loosen itself,
and as a fluid, which can dissolve itself
into vapour; the cosmology might be
either Ptolemaic or Copernican, but not
both: *wonted* is ungrammatical, the ob-
solete infinitive being to *wone*, *wont* is
already a participle, and can receive no
further augment. The prince of the
lights of heaven is compared to a giant,
because he runs his course unwearied;
as if giants were less subject to weariness
than dwarfs: he is supposed *as it were* to
begin to stand and to rest, which is soften-
ing the pause to an almost unperceivable
graduality, whereas the oratorical senti-
ment requires the most marked and sud-
den extinction. The way of the moon is
described as *beaten*; now the moon is re-
markable for change of path, and for
returning but once in nineteen years to
her course. And at length what a lame
and impotent conclusion! if systems of
worlds should break asunder, the sun

extinguish, and the apples shrivel, what would become of us? such is exactly the order and purpose of idea in this ropy sentence. 11. An inference is drawn from the preceding rhapsody, as if any thing was proved by it.

The fourth paragraph has been so often quoted that it can hardly be very obnoxious to criticism, yet it is far from correct. 12. Law in the body politic answers to volition in the body natural; its seat, therefore, should be that of the will; the brain, not the bosom of God. To say that *no less* can be acknowledged than this divine origin of law, is imprecise. That the voice of law is the harmony of the world, is true and beautifully expressed; but, of that spoken or written law, which is the harmony of the world, of which the least feel the care, and the greatest are not exempted from the power, it is not true that all things in heaven do her homage: there, the word law is used metaphorically, not for the emanation of legislative bodies, but for order in general. 13. Angels, and men, and dumb creatures are made to concur in the worship of law, the metaphorical and proper applications of the term, which are in this whole paragraph often confused, being here blended in hypostatical union.

Bishop Hall is a far superior writer to Hooker; he understands himself; he has none of that evasive, jesuitic, qualificatory extenuation, which softens every proposition into indistinctness; he is copious with thought, not merely with word. He is, however, a very equal writer: those who care enough for his topics to read him at all, will gladly read him entire: it ought not to be supposed that any anthologist can strip this garden of its flowers. His characters are his master-pieces. He is a picturesque writer, and habits his ideas in distinct sensible imagery; he avoids abstract terms, and seems to think, as the Mexicans wrote, in delineations. In style he is a great artist, studied and full of dexterities, various and euphonous. He seems to have written for the pleasure of composition; as there is little drift in his declamations: but his resources for prolonging agreeably his talk on any topic are marvellous. The first of Theophrastus's characters is inferior to the hypocrite of bishop Hall.

"An hypocrite is the worst kind of plaiër, by so much as he acts the better part; which hath always two faces, oft times two hearts:

that can compose his forehead to sadness and gravitie, while he bids his heart be wanton and careless within, and (in the mean time) laughs within himself to think how smoothly he hath couzened the beholder. In whose silent face are written the characters of religion, which his tongue and gestures pronounce, but his hands recant. That hath a clean face and garment, with a foule soul, whose mouth belies his heart, and his fingers belie his mouth. Walking early up into the citie he turns into the great church, and salutes one of the pillars on one knee, worshipping that God which at home he cares not for, while his eye is fixed on some window or some passenger, and his heart knows not whither his lips go. He rises, and, looking about with admiration, complains on our frozen charity, commends the antient. At church he will ever sit where he may be scene best, and in the midst of the sermon pulls out his tables in haste, as if he feared to loose that note, when he writes either his forgotten errand, or nothing. Then he turns his bible with a noise, to seek an omitted quotation, and folds the leaf as if he had found it, and asks aloud the name of the preacher, and repeats it, whom he publicly salutes, thanks, praises in an honest mouth. He can command tears when he speaks of his youth, indeed, because it is past, not because it was sinfull: himself is now better, but the times are worse. All other sins he reckons up with detestation, while he loves and hides his darling in his bosom: all his speech returns to himself, and every occurrent draws in a storie to his own praise. When he should give, he looks about him, and saies, *Who sees me?* No almes, no prayers fall from him without a witness; belike lest God should denie that he hath received them: and when he hath done (lest the world should not know it) his own mouth is his trumpet to proclaim it. With the superfluitie of his usury he builds an hospitall, and harbours them whom his extortion hath spoiled; so, while he makes many beggars, he keeps some. He turneth all gnats into camels, and cares not to undo the world for a circumstance. Flesh on a Friday is more abominable to him than his neighbour's bed: he abhorres more not to uncover at the name of Jesus than to swear by the name of God. When a rimer reads his poeme to him, he begs a copie, and persuades the presse. There is nothing that he dislikes in presence, that in absence he censures not. He comes to the sick bed of his step-mother, and weeps, when he secretly fears her recovery. He greets his friend in the street with a cleer countenance, so fast a closure, that the other thinks he reads his heart in his face; and shakes hands with an indefinite invitation of *When will you come?* and when his back is turned, joys that he is so well rid of a guest: yet if that guest visit him unfear'd, he counterfits a smiling welcome, and excuses his cheere, when closely he frowns on his wife for too much. He shewes well, and saies well, and himselfe is

the worst thing he hath. In brief, he is the strangers' saint, the neighbours' disease, the blot of goodness, a rotten stick in a dark night, a poppie in a corn-field, an ill-tempered candle with a great snuffe, that in going out smells ill; and an angel abroad, a devil at home; and worse when an angel, than when a devil."

Mr. Montagu's preface is executed with elegance; but it should have contained, we think, the four biographies or none. His Analysis of the Advancement of Learning displays a methodized taste.

ART. VI. *Dissertations, Essays, and Parallels.* By JOHN ROBERT SCOTT, D. D. 8vo. pp. 382.

OF these dissertations, several obtained the composition-prize awarded by the university of Dublin, having been composed while the author studied there: a few have resulted, not from the competitions of youthful emulation, but from the maturer zeal of literary ambition.

The first dissertation respects the influence of religion on civil society. It has been observed that in all countries which enjoy an entire religious toleration, about one-tenth of the community, especially of the elderly women and of the middle classes, usually separate into puritanic associations, under the banner of some priest, affect an extraordinary sanctity of demeanour, and endeavour, by exemplary manners and patronised exhortations, to attract the imitation of the world. It has also been observed that about one-tenth of the community, especially of the younger men and of the two extreme classes, usually engage in libertine associations and opinions, under the banner of some philosopher, treat the doctrine of a future state as a vain fear, and set the example of a spirited profligacy more conducive to the pleasures of the earlier than of the later stages of life. The remaining four-fifths of the community are observed to receive the religion of the magistrate, or of their fathers, with feelings vibrating between indifference and satisfaction, and to conform with docility, if not with confidence, to the external professions required by authority or usage.

Professor Fischer, in his "Peeps be-

yond the Grave," has contended that if the conduct of those be examined, who have more than the average quantity of religion, it will commonly be found that their lives are led on too long-sighted a principle; that they in youth forego enjoyments very compatible with health, reputation, prudent expenditure and advancement in life, and that they make a sacrifice of agreeableness, of amenity, of happiness and of experience, for which in later life they commonly feel an unavailing remorse and a poignant regret. The professor observes, on the other hand, that if the conduct of those be examined, who have less than the average quantity of religion, it will commonly be found that their lives are led on too short-sighted a principle; that they in youth squander health, character, fortune, and attainment rashly; and that the triumphant approbation of conscience, the interior satisfaction which obviously accompanies such men, and which Horace* so well describes, is no sufficient indemnity for the pains of body, the privation of affluence, and the lack of acquaintance which their old age incurs. Hence the professor infers that uncertainty and scepticism about the hereafter are more expedient for mankind than a firm confidence in a future life, or a firm disbelief of it; and that those who disturb the natural and wholesome hesitation of society about such questions, by endeavouring to put in a demonstrative or peculiarly impressive form the arguments *for* or the arguments *against* the reality

* Ode xxix. book iii.

Ille potens sui
Lætusque degit, cui licet in diem
Dixisse, vixi.

In Dryden's fine paraphrase the passage runs thus:

Happy the man, and happy he alone,
He who can call to-day his own;
He who, secure within, can say
To-morrow do thy worst, for I have lived to-day.
Be fair or foul, or rain or shine,
The joys I have possess'd, in spite of fate are mine:
Not Heaven itself upon the past has power;
But what has been, has been, and I have had my hour.

of an after life, are not eventually benefactors to their species.

Our judicious author differs decidedly from professor Fischer. He thinks it useful that men should be industriously induced to examine and to receive the doctrine of a second life. Grounds more forcible might have been adduced for his sentiment. One of his strongest argumentative paragraphs is the following:

"Indeed when the human mind is once thoroughly impressed with a due sense of religion, or of the existence, attributes, and providence of the Eternal, sentiments of duty supersede the necessity of civil sanctions, and the virtues of the citizen arise from the character of the man. From his belief of an over-ruling Providence, he feels himself obliged to the duties of (what moralists call) imperfect obligation, those duties so essential to the comfort of life; whilst the actions which laws can neither reach, nor sufficiently enforce, are performed with promptitude and alacrity, having it indelibly impressed on his mind that the law was not made for a man of conscience. As he is convinced that no crimes can be hidden from him to whom the secrets of all hearts are known, hypocrisy, fraud, and deceit, are banished from his conduct, and his most private not less than his most public actions, conformed to the rules of infinite wisdom, purity, and goodness. Called on to take a part in the busy scenes of active life, the dignity of his virtue sheds a lustre on the most exalted station, whilst his conscientious discharge of its functions scatters blessings over the happy land; and in the calmer scenes of sequestered retirement their milder radiance spreads around them a glory which illumines even the obscurity of his retreat."

Are all these assertions supported by observation and experience? Are hypocrisy, fraud, and deceit, more rare among religionists than among mortalists?—Surely the virtues, which flourish most in the religious world, are rather frugality, continence, forgiveness, and almsgiving. But these are the bases of internal order and prosperity.

The second dissertation treats of the expulsion of the Moors from Spain, and of other similar paroxysms of intolerance. It is difficult in this country to obtain historical particulars of the controversies which prepared, and of the jealousies which occasioned, the expulsion of the Moors. There is little room for believing that a numerous sect of Mahometans could still exist in Spain, under Philip III. But Servetus had written; and other unitarians. The charges made by the inquisition were, that those

Moors, with the exterior of Christians, agreed in opinion with the Mahometans, and carried on a treasonable correspondence with the barbarians of Africa. To what does this point but to a Socinian sect? The reformation had preceded by a long interval this protestantism of the Moors, who were expelled only in 1610. The tasteless asceticism of the Calvinists was ill-adapted to flourish in a climate so inviting to dissoluteness, in a nation so accustomed to the fine arts, and in a period of so much literary culture. These Moors, so nicknamed to intercept pity, might include Jews and Mahometans born, but they probably consisted principally of Christians converted by the same writings which in Poland and Transylvania left such lasting traces; which had many favourers in Italy near the source of papal authority; and which may be considered as containing the Catholic plan for reforming the church from within, in contradistinction to the savage, mystical, all-deforming innovations of the Protestants. In the xxiid period of Priestley's History of the Christian Church, one might have hoped for some research about an event so interesting to his sect. Dr. Scott says (p. 59) that an uniformity of religious tenets, an unanimity in religious persuasion, are highly desirable. Why so? The different classes of society will for ever differ in their degrees of culture: it is natural and fit they should also differ in the refinement of their creeds. A taste for uniformity is classed, by the great author of the Spirit of Laws, among the marks of a vulgar mind; it may certainly be classed among the provocatives of persecution, and the causes of tyranny.

The third dissertation respects the first peopling of America, and supports the usual doctrine of a colony from north-eastern Asia. It is nearly certain that America, at the time of its being visited by Columbus, had received inhabitants from four different quarters. There were black men in the Brazils, akin to the Africans. There were Malays in Peru; for the names of the Incas are Malay words, *Mango-capac* signifying a man with an axe, and *Oello* a serpent, in the Malay language. There were nations akin to the Greenlanders in Labrador; as the Eskimos. There were nations akin to the Kamschatkans, near Nootka. Yet, beside all these, the proper red men of America, who composed

the mass of American population, remain to be traced : and no progenitors of the same colour and physical characteristics have been found on the old continent any where.

The fourth dissertation respects the progress of the fine arts. On this subject Dr. Scott observes :

“ The progress of the arts in the ancient world, with the astonishing excellence to which they were carried, was also much aided by the manners and customs there prevailing, and in constant and daily practice. To games and vigorous exercises the ancients were remarkably addicted, regarding them both as liberal amusements and as a preparatory discipline for the active occupations of war, in which each freeman of the state knew himself obliged to engage at a certain period of his life, and which he could not avoid without being damned to never-ceasing infamy. Now all these were performed *naked*, as well on account of the warmth of the atmosphere as to preclude all unequal advantages, and to habituate the mind fearlessly to expose the person to the assaults of incumbent danger. Hence the human figure was hourly exhibited to the inspecting view of the attentive beholder, whether sculptor or painter, in all its various forms of grace and elegance, of strength and force, or of agony and torture : and these not the assumed appearances of fictitious feeling, but the vivid effects of actual endurance, and glowing from the mint of present impression. These were not to be sought in schools and academies, they were not the lifeless colourings of mercenary hirelings, but the energies of men emulous of fame, and conscious that their characters with their countrymen would be materially influenced by their performances in these favourite contests.—Contests which, as amusements, were the delight of all ; which, as exercises, were the duty of multitudes ; which hoary age beheld with rapture, as recalling the remembrance of the days of their prime ; and which unpledged youth gazed on with transport, as picturing those deeds whereby they panted soon to be distinguished. Thus nothing but the most careless inattention could avoid noting the distinctive marks of the various passions and affections, which nature writes in very legible characters : and as all, from repeated observation, were equally well acquainted with them, in their representation by the artist nothing short of the most exact and accurate likeness could hope for tolerance, much less for approbation.

“ Their scientific knowledge of anatomy, as applicable and subservient to medical purposes, was perhaps inferior to ours, for they appear not to have enjoyed the advantage in their principal cities of such men as the Hunters and Cleghorn : but that inferiority proved not injurious to the artist, who, chiefly engaged in imitating the prominent features of

the human frame when thrown into action, amply compensated for his ignorance of the theory of muscular motion, of the nervous system, and of osteology, by the effects of observation incessantly repeated on the most striking objects, and it may be, the more impressive from coming unsought, uninculcated. In fact they could scarcely avoid making this observation ; it was prest on them from every quarter ; it was urged on them by every incident. If they attended their morning exercises it was excited there ; if they resorted to their evening amusements, it was roused there also. In the retirement of the country it was not allowed to sleep ; in the bustle of the city it was awakened to all its vivacity. From private enjoyment, from public security ; from the recreations of peace, from the toils of war ; from the vacuities of idleness, and from the labours of industry, it alike received nurture, support, and alimient. Thus reiteratedly enforced, its effects became, like those of a second nature, interwoven with the habitudes of the mind, and called forth into action, when the occasion required, with readiness and facility, without effort and without premeditation. Hence the wonders that we are told of the astonishing power of their paintings, limited as we know they were in the number of their colours ; of which though we are deprived of the sight by the lapse of time, yet are they rendered credible, nay, fully verified, to us by the matchless remains of their statues ; whose transcendent merit we have ocular demonstration that neither prejudice had praised nor ignorance had extolled beyond their real deserts. Hence the truth of nature in the Laocoon, where the expression of suffering is not confined to the agitated visage, but is forcibly marked in the agonized foot as in the distorted countenance. Hence every muscle moves, every sinew is stretched, every atom of the figure conspires to the general effect in the Borghese combatant : and hence each particular part of the Farnesian Hercules represents, as forcibly as the entire statue, that character of superior manly strength and resistless might, which ancient tales have taught us to connect with the idea of the person of that fabled hero.

“ It cannot be inferred from what has been here said that there is intended any unqualified approbation of the custom of appearing naked, which so generally prevailed among the antients, and more especially among the Greeks. Surely not : for its indecency is obvious ; it smoothed the path to many immoralities, and, doubtless, tended in no slight degree to inflame, if not kindle, some notorious vices to which they were eminently addicted. But it has been merely considered with respect to its subserviency to promote the arts of painting and sculpture : and its powerful and salutary influence on them seems so apparent as to be nearly uncontested. It co-operated with other causes, yet to be mentioned, to give them that superior

excellence which, through a long succession of centuries, has excited uniform admiration; and which yet, superlative as it was, fell short of the ideas of it entertained and cherished by the artist."

There is much truth in these observations. Skill in art, practical or contemplative, is often accompanied with a dangerous looseness of imagination, which forbids the hope of frequent proficiency and diffusive patronage, without some sacrifice of that puritanism of opinion and of conduct, to which several sects and several countries, for reasons of eternal importance, attribute merit. The distribution of swimming-prizes would not shock our habits. There is, however, a more efficient assistant of artistical superiority, than the tolerance of licentious exhibitions—a great demand for art. But this can never occur without the association of the fine arts with the established religion. Unless every parish of the empire aspires to place in its temple, some fine production of the pencil or the chisel, the sale for works of the painter and the sculptor will rarely suffice to employ a considerable number of artists. In proportion to the whole number of regular professed artists will always be that of the excellent, whose works descend from age to age. Of a hundred authors but one bequeaths to his country an everlasting possession: so of painters and of sculptors. To encourage effectually the fine arts it would be necessary to diminish the number and enlarge the boundaries of our parishes; so that church-rates adequate to the purchase of important monuments of the arts might not be felt as burdens to the people. Our nobility and our clergy should assist, by their subscriptions, the first introduction of pictures and statues to our halls of worship. Wherever decays the mould of genius, wherever rest the bones of valour, the statuary should be invited by public contribution also to pile *his* trophy, and to compete for immortality with the instructor or the saviour of his country. At first we should have plenty of tombs to despise, and of altar-pieces to displace; but we should learn by blundering to discriminate, and by comparison to prefer; and we should deliver to the rising generation a stock of merit, and a zeal for excellence, capable of realising that perfection which renders every ruin of the reign of Hadrian, after the lapse of a

millenium and a half, the object of studious measurement, of classical enthusiasm, and of despairing emulation. In the saloons of the sons of opulence let native art supersede foreign. Give your models to the model-room; but place your boast in possessing what illustrates your country. From *her* poets and historians, from *her* scenery and children, let the subjects of representation be chosen; and let *her* painters talk along your walls. Leave the Parisians to exhibit their lumber-rooms of plunder, and to worship creations which they cannot rival; become it ours to produce what they have only learnt to rob. The Belvedere Apollo is no result of Greek art. It is of Carrara, that is of Italian, marble, and it existed not yet in Pliny's time, or he would have described it: it was found and restored by Montorsoli, the pupil of Michelagnolo, and the additions approach in merit the original mass. Canova trembles not at placing his Perseus in the nich whence the Apollo was dislodged: what should forbid that which has been done once from being done again?

Were a society to be formed for the encouragement of fine art, it would not be impossible to collect, by subscription, twenty thousand pounds, or more, and to fund that amount; subjecting the employment of the interest to the discretion of a committee. If a thousand pounds annually were to be expended in premiums, allowing three hundred pounds for the best marble statue not smaller than life; two hundred pounds for the second best; one hundred pounds for the third, and fifty pounds for the fourth; our artists would be sure of a sufficient indemnity to undertake work on speculation. Some regulation, resisting for four years the renewed competition of the winner, would be necessary to prevent the regular recurrence of the same adjudication. The prize-statues would find purchasers, now that it begins to be fashionable to place in front of every pier-glass a marble guardian: Florimels of snow would decorate the drawing-room, and Comus be himself chained in alabaster on the side-board.

This inquiry is one of the best; but at p. 156 mention occurs of the Jupiter by Phidias, who is described as transforming the rude *block* into the likeness of the father of gods and men.—Does the author forget that the statue in ques-

tion was a hollow colossus overlaid with ivory and gilding?

The fifth dissertation concerns national population. The antiquities of this subject have been admirably discussed by Hume and Wallace: its theory by Dr. Franklin, in his *Remarks on the Increase of Mankind*, and by Mr. Malthus in his instructive essay. Nothing is here added to the already circulating knowledge.

An essay on writing history occurs in the sixth place. It expresses undue contempt for several moderns who have excelled in this department of composition. It adds little to the theoretical remarks of Dionysius, Cicero, and Lucian; or of Hobbes, Voltaire, and Mably.

The seventh inquiry is entitled:—"Was eloquence beneficial to Athens?" The question is left undecided. No doubt, wise statesmanship may exist in a man without eloquence. No doubt, eloquence may be employed to popularise unwise advice. But in a polished community it is a necessary instrument of obedience: and despotism itself is obliged to institute some public bodies and formal assemblages, in which the reasons and motives for the national conduct are given aloud to the people. It always illustrates a state; it commonly influences decision, little; and execution, much.

The eighth dissertation endeavours to prove taste unfavourable to morals. What does this author mean by morals? To certain moral qualities, such as generosity, sympathy, beneficence, the love of order, of justice, of liberty, it is surely conducive. To other moral qualities, such as courage, chastity, frugality, loyalty, it seems to have disinclined the communities in which it has prevailed. Like every other human excellence, it has its good and its bad tendencies; and should be cultivated by a sect, and not by a nation.

A comparison between Henry IV. of France and William III. of England contains nothing remarkable. A comparison between cardinal Ximenes and cardinal Richelieu has more novelty: Ximenes attained his ends by carrying the ecclesiastical character to its highest pitch; Richelieu, as a layman would have done. Augustus and Louis XIV. are also contrasted: and, lastly, Sully and the great Pitt. An extract will be interesting.

"Such ministers, then, as the exigencies

required, these nations found in Sully and Pitt: the French duke, though of a different religion from that prevailing in the state, acting with such tempered prudence as to satisfy all parties, and even quiet the most turbulent; recovering the anticipations of the revenue, and extending without oppression its produce; cherishing commerce and manufactures; and so managing the military force and the political connexions of the state, as to enable it, in the space of a few years, to exhibit an awful, even a menacing front to its most powerful antagonists. The British commoner, all the features of whose character were on a great scale, his genius vast and comprehensive, his perception clear and defined, his decision prompt and resolute, his spirit lofty and soaring, soon taught the nation to throw off its panic terror, first filled it with hope, then inspired it with confidence: above fear himself, he gave courage to all around him, and to almost all employed by him; above the mean regards of personal profit, and with a soul scorning the peculation of public plunder, he forced the venal, if they could not be virtuous, at least to endeavour to conceal their vices; without bias, and without partiality to any part of the empire, he sought for, and called forth into action to serve the community, naval and military talents of every species; and he embalmed the memory of the fallen hero with the incense of his well-earned praise. His country, raised from a state of abject depression by his animating spirit, for four triumphant years saw victory constantly attending his efforts for the public service, and daily crowning him with fresh laurels; as 'during his administration Divine Providence exalted Great Britain to an height of prosperity and glory unknown to any former age.'

"It is true that he has often been charged with inconsistency and versatility for having, during his administration, vigorously supported continental measures and connexions, which for years antecedent he had warmly and ably reprobated and condemned. But that is not inconsistency which supports its own measures when adopted by government, and such a puerile phantom of reproach vanishes before the earliest dawn of truth and reason: nor is that versatility which, from a change of circumstances, acts agreeably to the spirit, though perhaps not the words, of its former declarations. For what were the continental measures and connexions which he condemned? futile and nugatory treaties; subsidiary contracts, alike expensive and inefficient; the pomp and parade of military preparation without the effectual benefit of martial service; together with other despicable subterfuges of a weak, a temporising, and a coward policy. Whereas he, by ably distracting the power of France on the continent of Europe, and so weakening her force as to prevent her from more powerfully co-tending with us on the spot for the dominion

of North America, the real object of the war, ensured the success of the British arms there, and so (to use his own phrase) "*conquered America in Germany*." By treaties, which he knew how to render operative, and by subsidies, large indeed but well applied, he enabled a German elector to withstand and to humble the combined powers of Austria, Russia, and France; and the plains of Minden testify with what energy the British army, when employed by him on the continent, maintained the national character and its own glory. So that by the brilliant exertions of his capacious mind, and by the powers of his comprehensive genius, though the morn of George the Second's day had been cloudy, and its noon tempestuous, yet was its eve adorned with all the effulgent radiance of the setting sun.

"Their degrees of influence with their respective sovereigns were indeed very different; for Sully, the private and intimate friend of Henry IVth, possessed uniformly with him a commanding superiority of interest, with which nothing ever interfered save the predominant private pleasures by which that great monarch was unfortunately enslaved; and Sully's suggestions ever guiding his public conduct, that minister's counsels bad with him little less than the authority of commands, which no court intrigues could counteract, nor any mean arts diminish. Whereas Mr. Pitt, when first introduced into the ministry, was so personally obnoxious to George II. (from the base misrepresentations of vile and interested men) that all public business was obliged to be transacted between them by the intervention of a third person; a situation so awkward as soon deprived him of his ministerial station. But in a few short months the universal voice of the people calling him again to office was not to be resisted, and he returned forming an administration wherein he was truly first minister; and his spirit, his manly openness, and his uniform success, in time won the confidence of the king, which he enjoyed undiminished till that monarch's death. And well it was deserved, for it was invariably directed to promote the prosperity of the nation, not to serve private interest or connexions, or to advance low party schemes.

"In respect to their personal characters, their integrity, their disinterestedness, their contempt of all mean emoluments of office, were, it may be, equal. The moderation of Sully, and his total want of ambition, were almost proverbially remarkable; inasmuch that all his high offices and titles were the gratuitous marks of his generous master's favour, not the fruits of solicitation or request. Mr. Pitt has been, more than once, charged with ambition, and the charge has been made certainly not without foundation; but his ambition was of that noble and elevated species that is directed to the exaltation of a country, not to the aggrandizement of

an individual or a private family. And the consequence was, that, after having for some years directed the affairs of Great Britain with unexampled success, he retired from office without any other title or emolument than what the spontaneous bounty of his gracious sovereign forced on him as testimonies of his high approbation of his services. Although of two different religious persuasions, and each sincerely attached to his own, they were both equally and eminently distinguished by their rational piety, and by their unfeigned reverence and veneration for the supreme first cause of all things, the great Author of the universe. This is a merit "above all Greek and Roman fame," justly deserving not only the humble eulogy of man, but what it will surely receive, the celebration of the highest order of arch-angels: and of their possessing it in an exalted degree the most convincing testimonies are to be found in various parts of Sully's Memoirs, and in lord Chatham's letters to his nephew Thomas Pitt, esq. afterwards, lord Camelford.

"Certainly in one eminent quality, that whereby man is, it may be, more distinguished from the brute creation than by any other, that is eloquence, the great commoner (an appellation by which Mr. Pitt was long and honourably known) was not only much superior to the French duke, but, perhaps, to any man that has existed since the death of Cicero. His eloquence, indeed, forms an era in the British art of speaking; confessedly far transcending all that had appeared before his time, and holding forth a noble model of imitation to posterity. That it was not faultless is true, for it was sometimes deficient in purity of style; as he seldom hesitated to use a foreign term, if strong and forcible, when one purely English did not immediately occur to him: and this is admitted to have been a defect; but it was its only defect. His voice was sonorous, perfectly well toned, and commandingly powerful; and it was always managed with the justest care not to injure its excellences, whilst the grace of his action captivated the eye, and the dignity of his character impressed his words with irresistible force on the hearts of his auditors. His speeches were not a choice selection of studied sentences ostentatiously produced on a gaudy day as a weapon of parade, but the efficient engine of a man of sense, information, and genius, instructing, animating, and delighting his hearers. As the occasion required, diffuse or close, argumentative or didactic, simple or pathetic; but always manly, forcible, and impressive. Familiarly expressing gigantic ideas (as they have been called), he led on his hearers to the object he had in view with unaffected simplicity, neither distorting it by puerile exaggerations, nor diminishing its real magnitude by a false perspective. Pure in his intentions, he honestly said what he thought; his candour winning the hearts, as

his arguments convinced the heads of his auditors. But his eyes flashed lightning on the slaves of corruption, whilst his tongue rolled the thunder of indignant liberty on its betrayers or its foes. Never were the "words that burn" of the poet more justly applicable to any person's language than to Mr. Pitt's, for they inflamed the mind to a degree not easy to be conceived by any but those who have heard them; and he united, in no small degree, in his admirable harangues, the strength, the force, the impetuosity of Demosthenes, with the beauty, the splendour, the magnificence of Cicero: either captivating by elegance, or astonishing by sublimity, as best suited the emergency of the occasion. Sully, though by no means

deficient in the powers of speech, can bear no comparison with such a competitor; for *his* were of the gentle, cool, unimpassioned species, more adapted to common business and to the usual details of life, than to appal the daring, to rouse the languid, to vivify the torpid."

This volume may be read or may be skipped without regret: the academical disquisitions are rather promises than performances of merit: the subsequent writings display a marked improvement in the art of arrangement, and in the resources of diction; less in compass of erudition, or in profundity of thought.

ART. VII. *Indian Recreations. By the Rev. W. TENNANT. 2 vols. 8vo.*

DURING all the early part of the last century, little or nothing was added to our knowledge of the east. The revolutions in Persia, and the decay and fall of the Mogul empire, rendered it neither profitable nor safe for merchant adventurers to visit the courts of the native princes. The Dutch, mean time, had subverted the Portuguese dominion, and stopt the progress of the Catholic missionaries. While they continued an adventurous people, so long also did they possess the spirit of literary exertion; but adventure and exertion are little congenial to the Dutch character; the hard-hearted heavy-headed race soon relapsed into their money-getting system, and directed all their attention to their cinnamon and ginger, nutmegs and cloves.

Of the two French writers upon Asiatic antiquities the reputation has been ill proportioned to the merits. Sonnerat has added little to the stock of information: whatever his volumes contain was to be found elsewhere; but he has methodized the information, and given to the mass of Hindoo fable something like a systematic form. This is his merit, and this is all his merit. Like Volney, instead of relating what he saw, and how he saw it, his aim has been to give the sum of what he had seen: a meagre and miserable way of writing, of which we had a successful example in our own country in the letters of major Jardine, from which it was difficult to learn much, and a more complete one in the work of walking Stewart, from which it was impossible to learn any thing. This literary quackery proceeds partly from vanity, partly from indolence; still more from a barrenness of imagination. But

it is with our minds as with our bodies; give them food, and let them concoct chyle for themselves. Sonnerat, however, has acquired a higher reputation than his countryman Anquetil du Peron, a man of better claims, to whose heroic love of literature, well-directed enterprise, and successful research, posterity will do justice. For the honour of sir William Jones, we would willingly forget the illiberal tone of his criticisms upon this adventurous Frenchman, whose labours he studiously depreciated, because he was himself travelling in the same path: such jealousy was the infirmity of his nature.

The English, during the short period of their Asiatic empire, have as honourably distinguished themselves in literature as in arms. Whatever may have been the merits of Mr. Hastings's political character, he will be recorded as the active and powerful patron of learning in Hindostan; and the good which he has thus produced will be permanent, let the revolutions of empire be what they may. We will not say that sir William Jones has been praised too much; but it cannot be denied that he has been praised too exclusively: some of his honours, as the promoter of letters, are due to Mr. Hastings; some, as a man of letters, have been, not very honourably, subtracted from the fair claims of Mr. Wilkins. *Le monde n'a point de longues injustices*, says Madame de Sevigné; and it is consoling to see how surely all its erroneous decisions are rectified by Time.

But while the abstruser learning of the east has been successfully cultivated, little attention has been paid to the lighter and more accessible parts of

knowledge. Every march of an officer in Hindostan, every journey of an individual, if faithfully and fully narrated, might convey information which the European reader would gladly and thankfully receive. We wish there were a little more diffidence in those who believe themselves capable of amusing the public, and a little less in those who really are qualified to instruct it. Criticism never intimidates those who ought to stand in awe, but their folly and presumption provokes a severity which is sometimes exerted beyond its proper limits, and which has materially injured literature by deterring plain men from relating a plain tale. Since the influence of reviews has been so considerable, we have no longer such writers as Atkyns, Wafer, and Dampier. The journal of a seaman must be vamped and varnished in the newest style before it can venture to meet the public eye. The fashion of the article has been considered as of more value than the materials: hence, instead of the straight-forward language of our excellent navigators, descriptions taken on the spot, and feelings fresh from the circumstance, we have a tale at second hand, rounded off in the smooth periods of a fashionable essayist: hence too in our own days, to a most valuable account of the interior of Africa, the opinions of a West Indian planter have been appended, opinions totally at variance with all that the traveller himself had seen and heard, and which none but a planter could have deduced from such documents.

As yet the canons of criticism have only been framed in irony: but he who could legislate for the critic, as Aristotle has for the epic and dramatic poets, would render a most essential service to the cause of learning. The great division would be between works of amusement and of instruction: in those of the latter class the method should always be considered as of less consequence than the matter. Under this head the present work would be arranged: "the result of personal observations, and of inquiries made upon the spot, during a residence of several years in different parts of India." "The progress," says Dr. Tennant, "of the army to which I was attached, presented to my examination, during that period, a large extent of country, in a line of march of more than three thousand miles. The duties of my profession obliged me, besides,

to undertake many journeys in different directions, where the army did not penetrate; and curiosity often prompted me to make shorter excursions wherever information might be procured." What then would be the method of examination which the true laws of criticism would prescribe for a work composed under such circumstances? Where the writer compiles from books, or reasons from known facts, the critic would, or ought to be, competent as his judge; he would also be qualified to say whether the materials of the work were well arranged, and if the opinions which it contained were legitimately inferred from the facts, for the main part his duty would be to learn and be thankful; and for verbal errors or defects of style, if not very numerous, or very glaring, he would judge them too unimportant to be noticed.

Dr. Tennant introduces his essays by a brief description of Hindostan, and a statement of the importance of our possessions there.

"The territories obtained by the British in this part of the world, though later in their acquisition, in extent and importance far surpass what has ever fallen to the lot of any other nation. With a circumscribed territory at home, they have reached a very high degree of eminence among the nations of Europe, while their dominion in Hindostan, and their commercial intercourse with the rest of Asia, confers upon them a greater influence on the happiness of mankind than the most extensive empire of China can boast. Time alone can discover whether their connexion with the Hindoos shall be more effectual in meliorating their condition than that of the various nations who have reduced them under their subjection.

"If this effect shall follow, so deeply interesting to a large portion of our fellow-creatures, it must be the result of an enlarged knowledge of their interests as connected with our own. The immense resources of England, which, in all our wars, have astonished the nations of Europe, are created and supplied by our commerce; and of this, the trade of India is the most considerable branch. The fate of the one country is involved in that of the other: with her possessions in Asia Great Britain must stand or fall."

With her possession in Asia Great Britain must stand or fall. This opinion is too absurd to deserve contradiction, if it had not been foolishly propagated both at home and abroad. One of the wisest of the heathens warned us for our happiness not to rely upon *terra incognita*.

men, the things which are not of ourselves; and the same maxim of individual conduct, as it occurs in the ordinances of Menu, has been thought so important by sir William Jones, that he has distinguished it above the whole body of the law by larger characters. "Whatever act depends on another man, that act let him carefully shun; but whatever depends on himself, to that let him studiously attend: ALL THAT DEPENDS ON ANOTHER GIVES PAIN; AND ALL THAT DEPENDS ON HIMSELF GIVES PLEASURE." Against these oriental politics a text of Hindoo scripture may well be quoted, for the principle is as true in politics as in morals. If it were possible that England could receive a mortal wound in India, that the old fable of Achilles were to prove typical at last, and we are vulnerable in the heel instead of the body, the folly of acquiring possessions so dangerous would be the most egregious that ever was committed by any nation at any period. What would our Edwards and our Henrys, what would Elizabeth and Cromwell, what would Blake and Marlborough reply to a proposition so extravagant and so pusillanimous? We had not a foot of ground in India when we twice conquered France, when we defied and defeated the strength of the great Spanish monarchy, when Richelieu dared not offend our commonwealth, when the name of an Englishman was as respectable as ever that of a Roman had been, when the liberties of Europe were saved by England. The present revenues of government do indeed depend upon the commercial system; but woe to us if any thing more than the revenue depends upon it! if that system may not gradually decline as it has gradually arisen; if the wen, which must eventually prove mortal should it continue to increase, cannot be removed without occasioning immediate death. That England may be conquered in India was an assertion invented to amuse the French army in Egypt, just as they amuse the army at Boulogne by telling them that India is to be conquered in London. In reprobating this opinion it is not our intention to undervalue the importance of our territorial possessions in India, nor to express the slightest apprehension for their security: what we have conquered we can maintain.

Dr. Tennant wishes that means should be taken to procure a statistical account

of India, upon the plan pursued by the board of agriculture. A set of printed queries sent to every commercial resident, factor, or other officer in each district, would, he observes, in the course of a few years, determine how fully such a measure was practicable; and when such information had been obtained, a thousand means of at once improving the revenue and the condition of the people would occur, which at present are either concealed, or left to vague conjecture.

Little arrangement has been attempted in these essays; they are neither classed according to their subjects, nor in the order of time in which they were written. Hence some confusion has arisen, and some needless repetitions: even the trite grammar quotation, *ingenuas didicisse fideliter artes*, &c. is twice repeated. They might conveniently have been divided into chapters concerning the Hindoos, the Mahommedan inhabitants, the European settlers, agriculture, and the author's travels.

The Hindoos are in these volumes appreciated with unusual fairness. No people have been more unduly extolled, by writers who had a system to support by extolling and exaggerating their virtues and their knowledge, and by our English East Indians, who delight in praising their exemplary obedience and humility. The diet prescribed by their religion necessarily compels them to temperance, and thus conduces to industry, by removing one temptation to idleness; their ablutions also are as favourable to health as to cleanliness. These individual advantages are produced by their superstition, and in a political view their vegetable diet must be considered beneficial, since it enables a larger population to subsist upon a given surface. But having stated these advantages, nothing more can be said in favour of the Hindoo system: a mythology more puerile, a ritual more burthensome, a form of civil polity more hostile to all improvement, never disgraced the history or impeded the progress of mankind. It is well observed here of the system of casts, that it not only precludes a man from the profession to which nature or inclination may have bent his talents, but it also in a great measure robs him of every motive of honest ambition to excel in that sphere where his birth has fixed him; because, even there eminence in his profession can confer no additional

rank, and but little distinction : the degree of perfection to which the people have carried certain branches of art has been ascribed to the superstition which makes every man follow the trade of his forefathers. It is true that the distribution of trades must early have advanced the arts to a certain degree, but it is equally true that it has prevented, and continues to prevent, them from advancing beyond that degree. The only class who are capable of instructing the people are interested in perpetuating their delusion.

"The higher orders of the Brahmins, whose duty it is to undertake this work, and who are perhaps alone able to effect it, are the least likely to make any such attempt. While their own minds are comparatively enlightened by a pure system of natural religion, and all those precepts of duty which cultivated reason teaches, they "detrain the truth in unrighteousness," and commit the people to be guided by grosser systems of superstition and error. As if warned by the conduct of European nations, that the dissemination of truth would tend to diminish their own importance and wealth, they seem to labour for the preservation of superstition and ignorance with the same anxiety which, if more honest men, they would discover for its destruction. With an interested foresight they seem to have anticipated the alternative, and have determined to reign among uninformed dependants, rather than associate on more equal terms with respectable men.

"Hence the steady countenance they give in public to doctrines in which they surely disbelieve; and hence the gravity with which they preside at ceremonies which they inwardly despise. All that has been alleged by Mr. Gibbon against the sincerity of Cæsar or Cicero, when, as priests, they, officiated at the absurd formalities of their superstition before the Roman multitude, is less than the truth if applied to the Brahmins. To them, the wild fictions of their theological system appear all equally false; while, on the part of the people, they are all embraced with the most implicit belief."

In other countries it is the aim of legislation to proportion punishment to crimes; here they deal it out according to the rank, rather than the demerit, of offenders. But this is not, as Dr. Tennant would imply, peculiar to Hindostan: even in our own country such a difference is established by law. The benefit of clergy, which nearly resembled this part of the Brahminical privilege, has been so far modified as no longer to be any ways injurious to society. When the duchess of Kingston was convicted of bigamy, she pleaded

her peerage, and escaped all punishment, except what was inflicted by public opinion. Such cases can occur so seldom, that they are productive of no evil consequences; but they prove that the principle which is here supposed peculiar to the Hindoo system is admitted in English law. The simple truth is, that they who make laws always favour themselves.

If during famine a Hindoo has been fed by another, and his life by that means preserved, he becomes the property of his preserver. Such a law can only have been necessary among a people whose hearts were hardened by their own sufferings. Another class of slaves consists of those who, from their attachment to a slave girl, give up their liberty for the purpose of cohabiting with her: such slaves recover their liberty on renouncing the woman. If a man having no legitimate child, should have a son by a slave, the child and his mother become free: our West Indian laws are less decent; many a planter has sold his own child. On the subject of slavery Dr. Tennant reasons very weakly: because it is attended with less harshness, cruelty, or exhausting labour in Hindostan than in other countries; therefore he thinks himself justified in sneering at the abolitionists! There are many persons, he says, whose intellects may not be sufficiently cultivated to guide their conduct in a state of perfect freedom. True; but if men were to be condemned to slavery because their intellects are uncultivated, and because they know not how to behave themselves, neither complexion nor rank would be safe. No prohibition of slavery appears in the New Testament, says this divine. To look for a specific prohibition of every crime in the gospel is introducing a sort of *Hutchinsonianism* in morals, which would be as absurd in morals as in physics. Whatever violates the fundamental principles of Christian morality is assuredly forbidden by Christ Jesus.

On the antiquity of the Hindoo scriptures no light is thrown by this writer. He ridicules fairly enough Mr. Halhed's former disposition to credit any scriptures rather than his own; but to sport with the present infirmity of that gentleman, which would entitle him to pity even if he had no claims to respect, is surely ungenerous. One essay is upon the resemblance between the Jewish and Hindoo rites: the resemblance is very

trifling. Between tribes and casts there is little similarity, as none of the Jewish tribes was thought worthier than another. The doctrine of transmigration, or pre-existence, is probably patriarchal, and certainly makes a part of all the oldest systems of religion and philosophy. In the other circumstances which are here noticed, such as the custom of purchasing wives, the reproach attached to barrenness, the preference given to the first born, the notions of defilement, &c. there is nothing peculiar either to the Hindoos or the Jews. If the Jewish ritual mentions the consecration of the priests, the clothes of service, and the holy garments, such things were attended to in the ritual of every nation upon earth. The only remarkable coincidence is in the duty of raising up seed to a dead brother, which is enjoined by both laws.

When Dr. Tennant consoles himself by reflecting that in the Hindoo system there is so little subversive of society, and that human victims are now seldom sacrificed, he forgets that widow-burning is strictly a human sacrifice, that infants are cast into the Ganges as an offering to the river, and that the horrible manner in which the death of the sick is accelerated is also a religious ceremony.

The Mohammedans in Hindostan are rudely estimated as being a tenth of the whole inhabitants: they seem to be a far worse race than the Hindoos, being more dissolute, more vindictive, and less faithful; by far the greater part of the prostitutes, who are very numerous, are Mohammedans.

"These two races of men, after living so many centuries under the same government, and in the same society, gradually approximate in many of their opinions, and in some points acquire a similarity of manners. The musselmans in the service of Europeans are nearly equally fastidious and averse to any work which they conceive out of their routine of duty, under pretence of its being incompatible with his cast. The man who dresses hair will feel himself degraded by taking charge of clothes; and he who engages for the latter object will for no consideration condescend to sweep the floor. The servants who attend the table are conceived to move in a sphere far too high for carrying an umbrella or a lamp before their master. This fastidious behaviour gratifies at once their pride and their indolence. Too ignorant to conceive that there can be no turpitude in actions not immoral, or to be convinced that real worth and dignity must arise from carefully performing the duties of their

station, they prove, as servants, equally fastidious, and less useful than the Hindoos themselves. The scrupulosities of rank and cast give an air of consequence to that ignorant people, and the Mahommedans readily adopt a foible so gratifying as these to their pride and indolence. This circumstance obliges Europeans, even of moderate rank, to keep up an establishment of domestics superior in number to that of a nobleman in Europe; and after this trouble and expence has been incurred, he is much worse served than he would there find himself by two or three domestics.

"Another melancholy point of coincidence in the situation of these people is the small influence which the religion of both has upon moral conduct. There is hardly any instance in which the faith of either operates to direct him in the practice of justice and mercy; and in the case of the musselman, there are a thousand examples of his religion being made the pretext for violating their dictates. The Mahommedan superstition has a more feeble hold over its votaries, even in urging them to a compliance with its own rites, than the Indian system, either because its neglect is not followed by such dreadful consequences, or because the system is less mature, and its professors removed at a greater distance from Mecca, the centre of its power, and the place where its full vigour is perhaps unimpaired. From whatever cause, the musselman is certainly less a slave to his superstition than the Hindoo. Though enjoined sobriety, he is frequently drunk; believing honesty to be a duty, he is often a cheat; and convinced of the expediency of marriage, he lives frequently in the habit of promiscuous debauchery."

Dr. Tennant has committed a strange error in his chapter on the cruelty of the Mohammedans in India: he speaks of Attila as imitating Timur. The number of these people is decreasing daily. In our sepoy battalions a musselman has of late become so rare that the policy of having a proportion to balance any enterprise or combination of the Hindoos can no longer be pursued. We wish the author had explained the causes of this diminution. The Mohammedan power in Hindostan is in less danger from the natives than it was half a century ago, for the power of the Mah-rattas has been broken, and they are not a people to renounce their religion.

The rural economy of Hindostan seems to have been the object which most particularly occupied Dr. Tennant's attention: the agriculture is far less perfect than might at first be expected in a country of so excellent a climate, and a soil so fertile, and which

was civilized at so very early a period. The causes of this imperfection may all be found in that miserable degradation to which the cultivators are by their own laws condemned, and in the perpetual oppressions which they have suffered under every government, whether Gentile or Mohammedan.

Property is equally divided among the male heirs: hence it is split into portions just large enough to maintain the possessors in idle indigence. The great impediment to improved husbandry in India has ever been the want of secure leases, and of a permanent interest in their possessions. The nature and variety of the different tenures, says Dr. Tennant, has been intricate and complex,

“ ——— almost beyond conception; and the consequence has been, that hardly any lease has been specific or secure. In India the revenue of the state is, in fact, the land rent; hence the management of finances has a more immediate influence on agriculture here than any other part of the administration. The tenant who had nothing to protect him against a whole army sent to collect the revenue but the doubtful clauses of an obscure lease, was perfectly defenceless, and often plundered. This precarious situation, without an ascertained interest for a sufficient time, has fully demonstrated that no spirited agriculture can ever be expected in similar circumstances.”

We wish the author had entered more minutely into this very important part of his subject: the essay which professes to treat upon it communicates very little information. Among the other obstacles to an improved agriculture he remarks, that from want of hands, industry, and capital, the rice is sometimes sown in the dry instead of the rainy season. Little or no attention is paid to the best varieties of grain, nor to green crops for house feeding, though in the dry months the stock are barely kept alive.

“ The universal use, and vast consumption of vegetable oils, must be regarded as in some respects prejudicial to agriculture. Much labour, and a great proportion of the cultivated land is occupied in the produce of this article, which might partly be saved by the use of animal food: oil is necessary to season and enrich their food, where deprived of that article of diet. In anointing the body, and in supplying their lamps, immense quantities are consumed. Hence the extensive cultivation of linseed, palma christi, sesamum, and many other articles that trench deeply upon the productive grounds for human sustenance: this must be highly disad-

vantageous, if it be true, as some have alleged, that all crops are scourgers, in proportion to the oil they contain.”

The olive is believed to enrich the land whereon it grows: it is evident, therefore, that this opinion cannot be well founded. It is certain also that a greater proportion of land is on the whole necessary for providing animal than vegetable food; that portion, therefore, which is employed in producing vegetable oils, though it might be saved by the use of animal food, cannot be regarded as a loss.

The implements of husbandry are bad; the plough wants a contrivance for turning the earth, and the share has neither width nor depth to stir a new soil; and the reaping hook is universally used instead of the scythe. The succession of crops is not understood. Dung is collected for fuel, and cannot be spared for manure. The want of inclosures is a serious evil. Irrigation, so indispensable in such a climate, is clumsily performed; to facilitate this operation great national works are wanting, but the extensive canals which were dug in the neighbourhood of Delhi and in the Panjab are not in use, and reservoirs, water-courses, and dykes, are more generally in a progress of decay than of improvement. The want of roads also is a serious impediment; those which the company have constructed being too partial to afford any relief to the country. One essay bears for its title this text: “ the fanaticism of the Mohammedans and Hindoos a bar to improvement in agriculture.” This may be very true; but in the whole essay there is not a single word upon the subject. It contains an account of Acber's conduct towards the Christians, and of his pretensions to inspiration; and a curious anecdote of Aurengzebe and the Fakeers, which we will transcribe.

“ During the reign of Aurengzebe, while that monarch was marching into the Decan, his baggage was attacked and plundered by a number of these banditti almost in the face of the whole army. In the time also of this most powerful of all the Mogul emperors, the Fakeers, instigated by a rich old woman, named Bistemia, actually raised a rebellion. This old woman was followed chiefly on account of her high reputation in the arts of magic and sorcery. Her enchanted pot was the skull of an enemy, in which owls, bats, snakes, and human flesh formed a broth for her frantic followers. No less than twenty thousand of these fanatics, led by Bistemia, were opposed by a general of Aurengzebe, who

was instructed to resist her by spells put into his hand by that emperor. This artifice prevailed; for a battle ensued, in which Bistemia and her whole army were cut off. Aurengzebe met his general after this exploit, and laughed with him at the success of his spells."

The sugar-cane, it appears by incontestable proofs, may be cultivated more advantageously in Hindostan than in the West Indies; a fact of infinite importance to humanity, when we recollect the slave-trade and the yellow fever, and not less important in a political point of view. The potatoe has been introduced with tolerable success; the Hindoos willingly use it when it is to be procured; and, when it shall be more generally planted, there can be no doubt but that it will prevent the dreadful effects of famine, which now uniformly follow the failure of the rice crops. Some individuals have also introduced the bread-fruit tree on the Coromandel coast; Dr. Tennant allows them due honour for their benevolent intentions, but he undervalues the probable good effects. The planting of a tree, he says, and the care of its preservation, till it become productive, there is reason to believe, is beyond the usual effort of foresight possessed by this improvident race. He had forgotten the care with which they plant their *topes* or mango groves, as a religious duty.

Indigo, it is well known, has of late years been cultivated with considerable success, and attempts are now making to rear the cochineal insect, which, if they be not prematurely abandoned, must eventually prove successful. These facts sufficiently prove, if proof were necessary, that the Hindoos, like all other people, will adopt any novelty which is not in direct violation of their system, if it be their interest so to do; nor could the system itself resist the obvious interests of the people, if any means were taken to make them comprehend it.

The account of Calcutta forms an amusing and interesting part of the work. The rapid growth of this splendid city, the capital of British India, can only be paralleled by that of Liverpool. This is the seat of the supreme court of judicature, concerning which we find the following just and liberal remarks,

"The policy of this establishment has been much controverted by the civil and military servants on the Bengal establishment; and it

still seems to be regarded as an unpopular measure. The objections, however, urged against it, as far as I have been able to weigh them, are highly to its honour, and that of its projectors. It is contended that a very considerable discretionary power over the natives ought to be left in the hands of Europeans, to preserve subordination and obedience. A greater degree of insolence, and a more independent spirit, it is said, is daily gaining ground among that class of men: that they are litigious to a proverb; and, on every occasion, put themselves on that footing of equality with Europeans, which they find from experience to be countenanced by the supreme court. They foresee in its continuance, and in the establishment of similar jurisdictions at Bombay and Madras, the total emancipation of the British subjects in India.

"These charges, and these fears, proceed rather from the misconduct of individuals than their patriotism, or the rigour of the supreme court. The dissipation of Europeans here is far more conspicuous than the insolence of the natives. Both the military and civil servants are too often in the habit of incurring debt; sometimes by borrowing money from the people of colour, but oftener by want of punctuality in the payment of wages and accounts. In every case a native is a rigid creditor, and is gratified, rather than hurt, by seeing himself in a situation in which he can command the personal liberty of an European by imprisonment. But the man who demands the payment of a just debt may be rigid, but is not insolent. An honest man has nothing to fear from such demands; to him they will always appear more reasonable, than that every person who has the facility to part with his money, or want his wages, should contribute to debauchery, or suffer for the extravagance and folly of another.

"Formerly it sometimes happened that a peace officer, in the execution of his duty, has been seized in the cantonments, and insulted in the execution of his duty, at the instigation of officers, or by their personal violence. These facts are reported by themselves with an air of exultation, which clearly demonstrates their inclination, and a wish that they could again be repeated. Even at present, there are combinations well known to the bailiffs, which render the execution of personal diligence a very dangerous part of their duty. But such objections against the supreme court are its highest panegyric; because they are of the same nature with the objections which every thief or robber has to a gibbet."

The insolence of the natives, he adds, and that independent spirit which endangers the British power in India, wise men have not been able to discover. The pecuniations of collectors, and the exor-

tions of officers in detached commands, have produced the only serious discontents which the British government has ever yet experienced. That government is assuredly a blessing to Hindostan; the enormities which formerly were committed will be repeated no more, and the natives enjoy, under our protection, a security which no other conquerors ever permitted, and which they are too pusillanimous to maintain for themselves. An interesting anecdote is given upon the subject.

"When the convalescence of his majesty, after a severe indisposition, was publicly notified in Calcutta, a general expression of joy was made by all the inhabitants. But the most conspicuous and brilliant illuminations were displayed by an Armenian merchant, because accompanied by an act of charity.

"His loyalty did not escape the notice of lord Cornwallis, who, on interrogating him what particular interest he felt in the life of his Britannic majesty, received this reply: "I have, my lord, lived under his government for near thirty years; it has never injured me; but, on the contrary, always afforded its protection; and this with industry on my part, has enabled me to accumulate a very plentiful fortune." This speech is not, perhaps, the most eloquent; but I confess that to me it has conveyed a more advantageous idea of his understanding, than if he had composed volumes of our political sophistry.

"When these circumstances were reported to his majesty by the governor-general, the Armenian was presented with a miniature of his sovereign, which he continued to wear till his death; and his son now wears it in honour of his family."

A sensible paper is appropriated to the establishments for education in Calcutta. Europeans, whether they live to become rich, or die poor, from their own dissolute habits, and the unhappy frailty of the Mohammedan women, generally leave a numerous progeny behind them; these children, by a miserable prejudice on one side, and a more miserable policy on the other, were precluded from any rank or employment in European society, and utterly abandoned by the natives, that they seemed, says Dr. Tennant, to be the most destitute of all beings.

"In this light they were viewed by several persons, who have done honour to themselves and their country, by establishing schools for the maintenance and education of the orphan children of the military servants of the company. Two institutions have been formed

for this purpose; one for the children of officers, and the other for those of private soldiers. Each is provided with teachers of both sexes, qualified to instruct the children in such branches of knowledge and industry as seem fitted for their rank and prospects in society. The fund for the support of these institutions, is supplied by a fixed contribution raised from the military, and by the donations of such persons as wish to forward the aims of benevolence.

"The children of such as have died, or of such as are evidently poor, are only admitted gratuitously into this school; but any officer may, for a reasonable sum, have his children educated there: and it is the most eligible place in India; for, during a period of twenty years, the management and superintendence of this seminary of education has been as faithful and as diligent as its institution was benevolent. About six or seven hundred children are maintained and educated by this useful charity. The only thing wanting to complete its purpose seems to be suitable employment for the youth of both sexes, after they have finished their education. There has not hitherto been in India any middle class of society between the Europeans and natives, and of consequence few employments open for them to occupy.

"This want of employment for country-born children has already been severely felt; and is every day becoming more urgent from the increase of their number. Besides the two institutions already mentioned, there are seven or eight others for the education of boys, and nearly an equal number for girls. If, in the orphan schools, all the interest of the heads of the army, and of the managers, is unable to procure employment for the youth educated there, the difficulty is much greater in private seminaries, where this can only devolve upon individuals. For the settlement of their pupils in useful professions, neither parents nor masters have yet been able to devise any adequate means.

"Accordingly almost all the schools in Calcutta, for either sex, are continuing to increase in the number of pupils, and in the difficulty of providing for them."

This difficulty is even greater with respect to the females, who, by a most foolish and immoral plan, are all splendidly educated, in the hope that they may make their fortunes by marriage. For this purpose they are shown off like Circassian slaves on their public nights, when they dance and see company. No men of their own rank are admitted; the civil or military servants of the company are alone deemed fit companions, and, from the contemptible ideas they usually entertain of country-born women, they are the most dangerous companions with whom they can associate.

Marriages, however, have not unfrequently been brought about by these means; but they are always rendered unhappy by the abominable prejudices of the Europeans, for the parties are either excluded from society, or admitted with such caution and ceremonious reserve, as must continually put them in mind of their degradation. But in general these poor girls have only the alternative of living in want and disappointment, or subsisting by means fatal to happiness and reputation.

If ever any permanent good be conferred by Europe upon Hindostan, it must be by means of these country-born children—these Anglo-Asiatics, by raising up a native race, whose mother tongue is English, and whose religion is the religion of England.

Dr. Tennant examines the apprehensions which some persons have entertained, that the army in the east may throw off their allegiance, and maintain the country for themselves: this has been inferred from the frequency of such revolts, from the dissipation of the officers and the profligacy of the soldiery, and from the example of America, though they indeed who imagined they could discover any thing similar in the circumstances of the two countries, must have known very little of either.

But, in a subsequent essay, Dr. Tennant himself confesses these very apprehensions which he has here so fairly combated.

* “A body of officers, whose attachments to their native country must be weakened, in proportion to the time they have left it, and to the distance of their prospect of returning, will unavoidably be influenced by an *esprit du corps* dangerous to the state. The situation of all is similar; their interests are supposed to be the same, and it is impossible, while they feel uncontrollable power in their possession, that they should not exert it for their individual interest, rather than for that of their country.

“In such a situation, it is in vain to imagine that you can attach them to their country by conferring rank and emolument. The best paid troops in every country have ever become the most dissolute and unprincipled; and a privileged corps, with superior pay, must, in the end, prove as dangerous as the pretorian bands of Rome, or the janissaries of Constantinople. If they are constituted without your authority, and are guided by a different power, you in reality acknowledge their independence. Their numbers, and their distance, render controul difficult, or impossible. They will soon feel this, and arrange

not only their own service, but the government of their province, agreeably to their own ideas, that is, their own pecuniary interest. In the form of humble advice, petition or remonstrance, or in whatever language they may choose to veil their conduct, it will always prove to their country the dictates of an army from whom it must receive the law.

“If our troops, therefore, in India continue to act with the moderation and disinterestedness of dutiful subjects, for a series of ages, they will overcome a temptation which has always proved irresistible to the rest of mankind; and exhibit to the world an example of virtue, of which its history has not yet recorded any well attested example.

“The sudden acquisition of such an extent of dominion as the British have obtained in Asia, has produced a situation, for which its government had not sufficient experience to enable it at once to frame adequate regulations. Farther experiments in maintaining power over distant territories will communicate more knowledge, and suggest other expedients more suitable to this purpose than a local, permanent, and independent army. It is probably owing to their diffidence of each other, or of the unenterprising character of our sepoys, that the empire has not already sustained irreparable loss, or been torn asunder by such a dangerous machine.”

These remarks are in direct opposition to the former; and we have no means of discovering which of the two opinions thus advanced by the author is his real one.

The essay, which is entitled “Ecclesiastical Establishment,” seems almost to have been so called in irony. It would be rash, Dr. Tennant says, to affirm that the directors are not aware of the necessity of supporting the interests of religion and virtue among their servants. It is however certain, that neither the number nor choice of the clergymen they have appointed in Bengal, has been in proportion to the number of their servants, nor the importance of the object in view. Their full complement of chaplains on this establishment is only nine! Their actual number seldom exceeds five or six; two of them being always fixed at the presidency, all the other European stations, dispersed over a tract of country much more extensive than Great Britain, are committed to the charge of the other three or four individuals: hence the ceremonies of marriage, baptism, and burial, which, in christian countries, are so wisely connected with religion, are seldom solemnized by a clergyman; and many persons who reside in India twenty

or thirty years have, perhaps, no opportunity of hearing divine service during the whole time. The whole expence of the church establishment in Bengal does not amount to a sum nearly equal to the monthly salary paid to certain individuals in the company's service, whose only employment, says this author, is dissipation, and whose importance to the country can only be estimated by the mischief done by their example.

Dr. Tennant twice touches upon the conversion of the natives; but he speaks of what has been done with little knowledge, and of what is doing with little liberality. The East India company refused permission to the Baptist missionaries to settle in their territories. This most disgraceful and unchristian prohibition Dr. Tennant defends, saying, that "persons incapable of observing a peaceable conduct at home, are, of all men, the most unlikely to propagate the doctrines of peace and forbearance in India: What impression the harangues of a set of men, entirely idle, and noted for their discontents at government, might have on the civil and military servants of the company, I pretend not to say: it is probable that in this line their labours might not prove so abortive as in converting the Hindoo." In this false and libellous manner does he speak of those men, who have abandoned all to preach the gospel in Bengal, and who have actually accomplished the great labour of translating the scriptures, and printing them in the Bengalee language. We will not honour Dr. Tennant by drawing a comparison between him and William Carey; but as, in his introductory chapter, he says he has the comfort to reflect, that no part in his lucubrations is willfully mistated, *nor any man's character wantonly attacked*, we advise him either to expunge this sentence, or this calumny.

Let us however in justice remark, that this is the only instance in which the author is reprehensible. Every where else he appears as a candid and dispassionate writer, ever ready to award praise or censure where they are due; and, where he points out any existing grievances, it is in that temperate manner which is most likely to procure redress. His account of the salt manufacture is a fair specimen of this manner.

"A large proportion of the salt made in Bengal is manufactured in deserts, overflowed every tide by the sea; and the climate of these

deserts is inimical to every constitution. All the complaints occasioned by heat and moisture, appear there in their most malignant form: dysenteries, at one season, are peculiarly fatal. The unhappy victims of this disorder are avoided as infectious by their companions, and suffered to pine without receiving either that aid or consolation, which compassion usually pays to the wretched. The progress of the disorder, in such circumstances, leads to certain death, if that event be not anticipated by the tigers and alligators by which these dreary wastes are infested.

"The tigers, accustomed to human blood, boldly attack the salters; while the alligators are always ready to assail each unfortunate individual who may stray from his companions.

"These are not the only evils to which the Molungees are exposed: their unhealthy and dangerous employment carries them to a distance from their families, where their provision, and even water, is supplied by a long carriage. From choice, therefore, a native will not engage as a salter; and this circumstance occasions a species of slavery to be established in this manufacture in many countries, which, with you, remained till very lately; but which here has yet received neither remedy nor alleviation. Whoever has once laboured at the salt-works is bound himself, and his posterity, for ever to continue in that occupation.

"From the great mortality incident to their employment, the salters do not keep up their members; but the annual waste, like that of the slaves in the West Indies, is continually supplied by unjustifiable artifices, in procuring fresh recruits.

"Labourers are either decoyed to these works by false representations, or they are compelled, on alledged proof of their profession, to engage in them. This proof, it is said, frequently consists of perjured evidence, which is here never difficult to attain; or, supported by the *ordeal*, that mock evidence which characterises a barbarous system of jurisprudence."

One evil arising from that cowardly and selfish system which prohibits colonization in Hindostan, has been urged against the English by Golan Hossein Khan, the author of a very interesting history of his own times. Individuals will not exert themselves to plant mango groves, open roads, and dig wells and tanks, in a country which they are soon to leave. Men who leave their native land, he observes, with the sole view of acquiring a fortune, and then returning to it, can have little inducement to confer upon their temporary residence any permanent improvements. This evil Dr. Tennant also points out, remarking that, however fluctuating the situation

of individuals may be in India, the interest of government is permanent in the country.

A few other chapters remain to be noticed, which, had they been arranged in sequence, ought have been called travels, and which therefore form the most amusing part of the work. In marching from Patna to Mirzapour they crossed a richly cultivated country. On the skirts of almost every field flax was raised for the sake of its oil ; its use as an article of clothing not being known. Every field of barley contains a mixture of grain, or peas, and at the distance of six or ten feet a beautiful yellow flowering shrub is planted, which they use in dying : this mixture of crop must render reaping tedious and troublesome. When the hot winds set in, all these fields are scorched like a desert, and covered with clouds of dust, like the high-roads in England. Benares, however interesting to imagination, is described in no favourable colours ; the streets are only a few feet broad, confined with high buildings on each side ; so that the rays of the sun can hardly penetrate the bottom of the lanes, which are impervious to wind, and covered with cow-dung, foul water, and every kind of filth. From its literary treasures Dr. Tennant expects little ; but surely the Heetopades, the Sacotala, and the Bhagvat-Geeta, justify the hopes of those who are more sanguine. Beggars swarm in Benares, for pilgrims come from all parts to visit so sacred a place ; and in consequence hunger, wretchedness, and disease, were every where to be seen.

At Allahabad the pilgrims are equally numerous, and more dangerous, as part of their ceremonies must be performed in a vast subterraneous cave in the middle of the fort. This cavern is supported by pillars, and extends far and wide in every direction ; its vapours are noxious ; and this circumstance perhaps affords some security to the English garrison, who had need however to be exceedingly vigilant, since the devotees actually come in armies. One party of Mahrattas are mentioned as about twelve thousand in number. Allahabad is peculiarly holy, being situated at the confluence of the Jumna and Ganges, both sacred rivers. Four thousand Mahrattas from the distant province of Guzarat were encamped there when Dr. Tennant wrote : they were the retinue of a widow, who had travelled thus far with the bones of her

husband, to immerse them at the point of junction of the two holy streams.

“ Some of these victims of superstition annually drown themselves at the junction of the streams ; and this being the most acceptable of all offerings, it is performed with much solemnity. The person who thus undertakes a journey to the mansion of bliss, must present a larger sum to the priests than the common herd of pilgrims. The rapidity with which the victim sinks is regarded as a token of his favourable acceptance by the god of the river. To secure the good inclination of the deity, they carry out the devoted person to the middle of the stream, after having fastened pots of earth to his feet.

“ The surrounding multitude on the banks are devoutly contemplating the ceremony, and applauding the constancy of the victim ; who, animated by their admiration, and the strength of his own faith, keeps a steady and resolute countenance, till he arrives at the spot, when he springs from the boat, and is instantly swallowed up amidst universal acclamations. Five or six different persons, of either sex, have, since our arrival, in defiance of nature, thus boldly snatched the crown of martyrdom.”

Yet, though this city be the object of pilgrimage, it exhibits that picture of poverty, ruin, and desolation, which, says the author, they only can form an idea of who have visited the towns of India. It covers a space of five miles ; yet the inhabitants are computed at only sixteen thousand. The houses, as indeed is generally the case throughout India, are built of clay ;—the common soil, dug from the spot, and wrought up into a coarse kind of mortar by being mixed with mortar and brick-dust. Thus the Hindoo builds his humble dwelling with the same materials, and after the same manner, as the swallow ; the only difference seems to be, that the latter has a claim to greater antiquity, and a greater shew of originality, the Hindoo being evidently the copyist.

In this province superstition supplies the defect of law.

“—A person who has a debt owing him, which he wants influence or money to recover by a judicial sentence, applies to his brahmin, who places himself directly before the door of the debtor, where he remains day and night without eating till the claim is discharged. In the mean time no provisions, fire, or water, can be introduced into the house, which is thus beset by a brahmin. Should the debtor prove refractory till the brahmin died, nothing on earth can redeem his family from the infamy thus incurred.

The strength of prejudice, or the cravings of hunger, generally induce the debtor to satisfy the demand, without incurring the dreadful sentence of disgrace in this life, and misery in the next.

"The British government, which promises to hear and determine all disputes, has in some degree superseded this singular mode of prosecution: but in the vizier's country, where I now write, the expedient is still necessary, and is sometimes put in practice, although even there the brahminical rigour of discipline is somewhat abated. A Hindoo of considerable rank has assured me, that, in former times, not only the litigants, but the whole village, fasted so long as the brahmin performed *dh'urnah* * before any house belonging to it."

The army advanced to the neighbourhood of Delhi. The ruins of Kanouge are described as perhaps the most extensive in the world: for many miles before you reach the present town the soil consists of brickdust and rubbish, walls and broken gate-ways standing here and there. The greater part of the standing buildings are ruinous and desolate; the few poor inhabitants dwell in mud huts, buttressed up against the old walls: whole mountains of ruins rise in every direction, upon a space of ground much larger than the site of London. This whole country, indeed, exhibits miserable proofs of the incapacity and wickedness of its rulers; the peasantry are so grievously oppressed, that they take to robbery for subsistence, and, having once commenced the desperate trade, they are irreclaimable. An hundred thousand were once massacred in the hope of rooting them out; but they who escaped of course continued the trade, and transmitted it to their children as a duty of vindictive justice.

In Rohilkund Dr. Tennant saw two monuments of oriental punishment—small bricked buildings, in which the criminal had been walled up alive.† Here also our author saw a good mode of teaching children to write and spell by one process.

"The boys are assembled in a kind of open

shed, or verandah, on the side of the street; the airiness of the place must render it cool and healthy. Each boy is provided with a black board of wood, something like a slate, upon which he writes the letters with a pencil of chalk. While he learns to write the characters, he at the same time acquires their names, and the power of each when joined in a syllable. Words and sentences are next learned; and thus reading and writing are attained by one and the same labour. I am told that these useful branches are learned very soon, and by as great a number of the common people as in most countries in Europe."

At Benares the boys are collected upon a smooth flat of sand, in which they trace the letters with the finger, or with a small reed. It is remarkable that these methods of economical instruction should both have been invented in England by Joseph Lancaster, whose useful labours we noticed with due honour in our last year's volume.

The town of Viziergunge affords another dreadful specimen of native government.

"—The gates are standing perfectly entire, and are almost the only vestiges remaining by which a traveller can discover that a town had ever stood there; yet the place was perfectly entire about twenty years ago. The cause of its destruction is said to have been the refusal of the cutwal to deliver up some thieves who had molested passengers going through it. On being threatened with the nawab's vengeance, it, unluckily for the town, happened that some persons were again robbed there that same day. On the next, three battalions were ordered to ransack the town, and destroy the inhabitants; an order which they obeyed with such fatal exactness, that not a single hut nor inhabitant was left within the walls. The distance between the two gates is more than a mile, and that constitutes the length of the principal street. The rows of trees on each side are still standing, having escaped the flames by which the houses were destroyed."

Lucknow is the last place described, a capital which is said to contain half a million of inhabitants. "Happening to enter at the west end, says the author,

* This word signifies *to fast*; but that phrase does not express the whole of the idea.

† This mode of execution was formerly used with more cruelty, according to Dr. Fryer. From the plains of Dedumbah to Lahor, says this old traveller, both in the highways and on the high mountains, were frequent monuments of thieves, immured in terror of others who might commit the like offence, they having literally a stone doublet, whereas we say metaphorically when any one is in prison, he has a stone doublet on: for these are plastered up in a round stone tomb, all but their heads, which are left out, not out of kindness, but to expose them to the injury of the weather, and assaults of birds of prey, who wreak their rapine with as little remorse as they did devour their fellow subjects.

which contains the poor mechanics and labourers of every sort, I never witnessed so many varied forms of wretchedness, filth, and vice. The streets are sunk ten or twelve feet in the middle, either from clearing, or by the blowing away of dust when dry; and they are so narrow, that two hackaries cannot pass, nor indeed

any carriage. That which leads to the palace is more than five miles in length, and for more than half of it the passengers must wade this mire." Here Dr. Tennant concludes his volumes. These travels are so much the most interesting part, that we cannot but wish they had occupied a larger portion.

ART. VIII. *Essays literary, political, and economical.* By JOHN GARDINER, M. D. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 1200.

THE speculative writer is of all others the most open to criticism. From the historian and the traveller we are all willing to learn; and the poet, if he indeed deserves the name, usually finds his reader disposed to be interested; but when an author delivers his opinions to the world, every individual who takes up the book has his opinions also, and if they do not coincide with the printed page, is ready to combat him in all his positions. Such writers find a critic in every reader, and a competent judge in every man of good understanding.

It argues no common talents, or no common confidence, to come before the public with two large volumes of essays, literary, political, and economical. Literature, and politics, and statistics, however closely connected in the general system, are in themselves so widely different, that he who excels in one branch, has rarely attained to any eminence in another; nor does there seem any thing in the study of medicine, which we must needs conclude has been the principal study of a physician, to qualify the essayist for either, much less for all the three. But let us not anticipate censure.

Dr. Gardiner begins with conjectures on the origin of language.

"Par. I. The origin of language is a subject of such curious speculation, that I can scarcely conceive that it ever escaped altogether the serious consideration of any man of capacity and reflection. Before I read any author on the origin of language, it was with me a subject of contemplation, and which afforded an agreeable amusement; but I never did suppose the great difficulty and immense length of time necessary for the formation of speech, which those men have suggested. Some have even gone so far as to allege the invention of language to be beyond the powers of man, and have given it of course a divine origin. From a similar way of reasoning, the astonishing invention of men in mechanics, navigation, &c. might be ascribed to the same source. But there

is no necessity for such a supposition, seeing that the Author of Nature has been more benevolent than we could infer from such a hypothesis, by his endowing man with such a high degree of intellect as to enable him not only to invent language, but to accomplish such things as in former ages would have been thought impossible. Besides, every thing that comes directly from God, is known to be perfect; but the works of men are imperfect, as has always been the case with language, even the most complete that ever existed. As the power of forming a language, and of easily attaining such a valuable acquisition, arises from the exercise of those faculties of the mind conferred on man by the Creator, and which renders him superior to all other terrestrial beings; so, in this view, and in no other, language may be said to have a divine origin."

It is altogether unnecessary to point out the inaccuracy of language, and the loose connection of disjointed sentences, which this section exhibits. The reader will at once perceive how impossible it is that a man who writes with so little precision of words or catenation of thought, should reason closely or continuously. To follow all the reelings of his path would be impossible; we see indeed where he gets, but know not how he gets there. His course is as fickle as the flight of a butterfly, or the dance of the marsh-fire.

He argues, or rather asserts, that neither the Hebrew, according to a very common opinion, nor the Teutonic, as Goropius would fain prove, can be considered as the parent-language; and that neither the Gothic, Celtic, *Greek* or *Latin* tongues were ever universal. They differ, he says, essentially from the Chinese, the Malay, the *Caribbee*, and the several languages of the American Indians; and besides these languages, those of some of the tribes of negroes in Africa, of the inhabitants of New Holland, Otaheite, and other islands of the South Sea, show not, from the most accurate observations of voyagers and travellers, the

smallest affinity to the Hebrew, or the other ancient languages of Europe and Asia. Did it never occur to Dr. Gardiner to ask the question whether the travellers in Negroland or New Holland were erudite enough to form an opinion upon the subject? or does he think that the scanty vocabularies which those travellers have picked up, and which must be eked out with signs to establish the simplest barter, are sufficient for the foundation of a system? The single fact which appears to establish his opinion is indeed furnished by the savages of New Holland, but that fact he has overlooked.

He proceeds to trace the origin and growth of speech.

"6. Let us suppose two persons, male and female, just brought into existence, without language, but with the requisite qualifications for the formation of speech, viz.—capacity, the exercise of their external senses, and of the faculties of the mind, with the organs of speech; left, however, in other respects, to their natural sagacity to provide for their preservation and the formation of a language. In such an imperfect state of the mind, we must suppose their capacities to improve slowly, from the impression of external objects on their organs of sense, by which the mind is stowed with ideas for the exertion of its powers. Then the exercise of the memory, the comparing of ideas, acquiring new ones, and reflecting on their knowledge, would all tend to enlarge their minds, and to give strength and accuracy to their faculty of reasoning. Among the first exertions of the mind is an instinctive desire of expressing our thoughts by articulate sounds, which is natural to man; but the practice of it is an art, and the words comprehending the several parts of speech are arbitrary, from which have arisen the various languages in different parts of the world. But the advancement in language must be slow, especially if we restrict the society to two persons, though it would be soon sufficient to express their ideas and their wants, which in such a state must be few: for I have no difficulty in supposing men, soon after their creation, to be extremely solicitous to form and acquire language, for communicating their thoughts."

— words would be daily invented and adopted to express new objects, thoughts, affections of the mind, wants, and desires, till a language was formed, imperfect indeed for some time, but intelligible, and always in a state of improvement. Some considerable time would be necessary for the formation of the declension of nouns; and they would probably undergo, from time to time, many alterations, before their precise form came,

by general consent, to be fixed in the language. The formation of the plural number from the singular, by an alteration in the termination of the noun, would be easy; but the formation of the cases, whether by inflection or by prepositions, sometimes called articles, would be difficult. The qualities of persons, and of things, would naturally suggest adjectives; and pronouns, which give an elegance to language, would soon be invented. The sexes of animals would naturally suggest a distinction by genders; and what could not be brought under the denomination of masculine or feminine, would fall to be of the neuter gender. But so nice a distinction of genders, in things inanimate, as is to be found in the polished tongues of Greece and Rome, we are not to suppose would take place in rude languages. It is needless to mention adverbs, or such particles as, for the sake of distinctness and elegance, are gradually brought into every language, because I cannot suppose much genius required for their invention. In the first formation of a language, the most difficult part of speech would be the verb. Observing, however, that time was a necessary adjunct of all action, this would naturally lead them to express the time of the action, either by a variation of the termination, or by some word expressive of the time, by which their several moods and tenses would be formed. The passive voice with the auxiliary verb, so useful in all languages, would likewise be an arduous task; but time, the conqueror of all difficulties, would accomplish their formation.

"14. From what has been suggested, it will be readily perceived, that the several parts of speech would be gradually brought into use; but from the penury of words, and some ungrammatical expressions, the language would be to us rude, harsh, and disagreeable. In such a state, it might remain for several ages, with very little alteration; for it being intelligible, spoken fluently, and answering all the purposes of language, to tribes or nations in their primitive state, there would be no improvement of it till excited by some necessary alteration in their government or mode of living. A propriety of expression preferable to what was in common use, would from time to time occur to men of capacity and discernment, which must be considered as the dawn of the invention of those natural grammar rules, of which every man is more or less capable. By an accumulation of these rules, long before the invention of writing, a grammar for speech would gradually creep into the constitution of every language, which in succeeding ages, would be improved by a correction of the old, and an addition of new rules till the language became stationary. From the musical ear of man, which he possesses in so eminent a degree, harsh words would become obsolete, the gaping of vowels at the termination of one word and the beginning of another, avoided, and a musical arrangement and pronun-

ciation of the language would be sometimes studied."

All this is as completely romance as the Arabian exemplification of such a system in the tale of Hae Ebn Yokdan, the self-taught. In fact, all speculations upon language, till we have more documents to reason from, must be nugatory.

The second part of this essay deduces, as a legitimate consequence from the first, that there are different races of mankind; but here he finds it necessary to remove a scriptural objection.

"It affords me a most singular satisfaction, that what I have said on the different generations of men, militates not, in the smallest degree, against the history given us by Moses of the progeny of Adam and Eve, from whom the Hebrews appear to have sprung. I know it is the general opinion, that Adam and Eve were the first parents of all the inhabitants of the earth. That they were the first progenitors of the Jewish race, appears from their history given us by Moses; but he nowhere says, that the gentiles, cotemporary with the family of Adam, were also descended from him. They appear to have been the aborigines of the country, of whose origin Moses is silent, though they were extremely numerous at the death of Abel, in several provinces of the east. Were we to adopt the opinion, that all mankind descended from Adam, then, according to the account given us by Moses, we must believe there were none of the human race alive when Seth was born, except Adam, Eve, and Cain; for Abel left no issue. But when Cain was punished for the murder of his brother, and banished to the land of Nod, God put a mark on him, lest any should slay him; and when arrived at the term of his banishment, he took a wife, built a city, and named it after his first born, Enoch. But, on the supposition, that none were in that country except Cain, who were to slay him? It would be equally inconsistent to suppose, that Cain built a city without considerable assistance, or that it would remain without inhabitants. These must have been the gentiles, from whom Cain had taken his wife; for Eve had no daughter till after the birth of Seth. His distinguishing the city by a name, presupposes there were cities of other names in the country, as well as his going to the land of Nod, shows there were distinct regions and nations at that time."

This is a fair argument; but since Dr. Gardiner has ventured to meet the subject upon scriptural ground, there remains a weightier objection from the doctrine of original sin. If Adam were the father only of a particular branch,

on that branch only could this punishment be entailed. In Adam all die, says the apostle. Dr. Gardiner should have removed this mountain, or professed himself a pelagian. In this part of the essay there is a great deal about the early commerce of the east, which has nothing to do with the subject: the systematic and wilful misrepresentations of Robertson, are unscrupulously adopted without examination, and the anatomical facts which make the most strongly for the author's opinion, and with which, as a medical man, he ought to be most conversant, are not adduced.

The next essay, on the formation of the minds of children previous to a literary education, may be sufficiently characterized by copying a few of the heads of its sections.—"Education should be suited to the rank and capacity of the pupil.—Virtuous habits inestimable.—The evil consequences of bad examples to children.—Religion and good morals inseparable.—The natural cruelty of children to be corrected.—The various passions moderately exercised, of use; immoderately exerted, destructive of happiness.—Envy, malice, covetousness, and such base qualities of the mind, corrupt the human heart," &c. &c. Such truisms as school-boys fill their themes with. The sections on the health and management of infants are the only part of this dissertation which can be of any possible utility; but it is by no means probable that persons who can need such advice, should be the readers of such works as the present. Among essays literary, political, and economical, who would expect to find directions for the nursery?

The fourth essay bears this important title: "On the principal Causes that promote or retard Population; being the Circumstances from which the precise Degree of Power in every State may be estimated." Its first section attempts to demonstrate that the quantity of provisions, of labour, and the degree of freedom enjoyed by the inhabitants, regulate the population of every country. The example of China might have shown the author that freedom has no immediate effect upon population. Wherever the animal can feed he will multiply. In the next division, upon the national debt, and its effects on commerce, it is not easy to discover what Dr. Gardiner wishes to establish. He abuses in the obsolete jargon of the anti-jacobins those persons who have represented the

increase of this debt as ruinous to the country, and yet he himself asserts, that if some adequate means are not applied to prevent any considerable addition, it must ultimately ruin us. The progressive improvement of agriculture is then considered, and the means of its increase to answer the rising demands of the public. Here we are told that all things necessarily grow dearer as we become more prosperous, and that the waste lands ought to be cultivated. Entails are next represented as an idle sacrifice of general good to individual vanity, and the total abolition of thirlage recommended. The advantages of a free and unlimited commerce in grain are stated, and the bounty on exportation condemned. The next section relates to the distilleries, and assures us that the Scotch became democratic in consequence of the cheapness of whiskey. Oh that poor Burns were living to have commented in song upon such a text! The conclusion is that parliament should form some plan in its wisdom which might increase the sale of malt liquors, and lessen the consumption of malt spirits, with as little detriment to the public revenue as possible. A long section follows on the propriety of commuting the tithes, in which the author, vacillating as usual between a vague fear of the luminés and a dim conception of some necessary reform; between a presbyterian envy of the church of England, and a vapourish dread of French atheism, proposes, we do not very well know why, to commute the tithes for—he does not very well know what. In the next division, on a provision for the poor, an account occurs of the Bluegowns, or *Royal Society of Scotch Mendicants*, which, with the author's comment, deserves to be extracted.

"I am even such a sceptic, as to disapprove of the suppressing altogether common begging, so strongly recommended by some men of considerable credit with the public; not only on account of the impossibility of preventing it, but from a view of lessening the numbers of beggars when restricted under certain regulations. In certain parishes, few beggars may be licensed, after their character and conversation have undergone a scrutiny, by a committee of the managers for the poor, in which ought to be the minister and two or three elders of the church. If, after a strict examination, it shall be found, that the pauper has not been guilty of any gross immorality, a badge, with his name, that of the parish, and number in which he stands on the roll, engraved on it, should be given to him, to be worn on some conspicuous part of his dress, to entitle him to the alms of the parish. No such licensed beggar, however, should be allowed to ply for alms out of his parish; and, perhaps, the times of begging ought to be restricted to two days in the week; but if found guilty of theft, drunkenness, rioting, or other glaring immoralities, should be sent to bridewell, and his badge taken from him.

"A certain fraternity of mendicants, called beadmen, from a rosary they wore at their belt, when the roman catholic was the established religion of this country, still subsists in Scotland, and is not altogether dissimilar from what is here proposed; the licensing of beggars. This royal society of mendicants, commonly called Bluegowns, from a cloak of that colour they are obliged to wear, with a badge on the right side of the cloak before, with the king's name, the name of the pauper, and number in which he stands on the roll, engraved on it, was instituted, if I mistake not, in the reign of James the Fifth, to say a certain number of ave-marias daily for the king's safety. This is a whimsical enough institution of mendicants, consisting of an equal number with the years of the king's age; and their small pension, or annual alms, likewise made up of a number of pence, corresponding with the years of the king, given them by his almoner, on his majesty's birthday. At this time is also delivered to each a new cloak, and a slight refreshment of bread and ale; after which, a sermon, suitable to their condition, is preached to them in the church of the Cannon-gate.

"From some legacies, left by the members of the different incorporated trades of Edinburgh, and particularly of Saint Magdalene's chapel, to the beadmen of their respective corporations, it seems probable, that this fraternity of Bluegowns consisted originally of indigent. However this may be, they are at present composed chiefly of common labourers, who on account of their age, or infirmities, are unable to work for their subsistence. These paupers are not restricted to any particular parish, but are licensed to beg through the several counties of Scotland; the gown and badge are testimonials of their poverty and innocence; and they being thus warranted to the public as proper objects of charity, few persons refuse them alms. I have briefly run over an imperfect history of our beadmen, to shew, that if a few of the innocent poor, unable to work, were, after a strict examination into their character, licensed to beg, there would be no hazard of their starving. Such a plan, I am persuaded, would lessen considerably the number of beggars; for those who were licensed would be obliged to keep within their parish; and if any one attempted to beg without a badge, they would not certainly meet with the same sympathy from the public."

We are now told that the Scotch method of providing for the poor, which is

not explicitly detailed, is a very good method, but that it would not do for the poor of South Britain, who have been accustomed to the *flesh-pots* of England. Alas! Dr. Gardiner knows little of the condition of the English poor, if he talks of their flesh-pots! He proceeds to censure foundling hospitals; and here are subjoined some extracts from sir John Blaquiere's report upon the foundling hospital in Dublin, the most infernal account of systematized murder that ever in any age disgraced any country, civilized or savage. Within the six years preceding the report (1797) 12,786 children had been received, of whom only 135 had escaped! Last follow some conjectures on the population of Britain at different periods, from the first invasion of Julius Cæsar to the present time. Such are the contents of this essay: in what manner they elucidate the circumstances from which the precise degree of power in every state may be estimated, Dr. Gardiner perhaps may understand, we most assuredly do not.

The second volume commences with historical remarks and observations on government, and on the causes which have at all times obstructed its advancement to a free constitution. In this essay the author repeats the ridiculous exaggeration of Mr. Harper, that two millions of unarmed persons were put to death by the jacobines in France; and he retails the foolish stories of the "learned and ingenious Professor Robison," whom he might have called ingenuous as well as ingenious, in memory of his notable recantation in the newspapers. The work is concluded by observations on the principal causes which promote or retard the advancement of literature, commerce, and the arts. Here we are told that mankind, in general, are naturally inclined to solace their hours of labour by *singing of sonnets*! We may be well excused from any further analysis—the book has been found guilty of being good for nothing already, and it would be needless to proceed any farther in the indictment.

ART. IX. *Literary Hours; or, Sketches, critical, narrative, and poetical.* By NATHAN DRAKE, M. D. Vol. III. 8vp. pp. 552.

OF the two former volumes of this work, we cannot professionally take cognizance, as they were published a considerable time before the commencement of our journal; we are nevertheless not unacquainted with their merits, and it gives us pleasure to infer from the appearance of the present, that the public has justly appreciated the preceding, and encouraged the author to pursue his lucubrations, and enjoy with greater zest his literary hours.

The first number in this volume (No. xli.) professes to treat on the limits of imitation as applied to poetical expression. These limits have never yet been defined, and are probably indefinite. Dr. Drake has thrown but little light upon the subject: many years ago he published a volume of poems, and the reviewers objected against the opening stanza of an Ode to Laura, (an ode, by the way, full of tenderness and delicacy) that in its turn of expression it bore too palpable a resemblance to the speech of Eve in the fourth book of *Paradise Lost*, "Sweet is the breath of morn," &c. l. 641, &c. Dr. Drake has now withdrawn the passage, and substituted another, not inferior in poetic beauty.

Certain boundaries, perhaps, might be chalked out beyond which imitation should not be allowed; but it is obvious that within those boundaries no limits could be set to the frequency of this imitation. A thought, a personification, a simile, &c. cannot well be imitated: it may be copied with or without variation; a turn of expression, a singularity of style, a favourite recurrence of pauses, &c. these are within the limits of imitation, and one poet has as much right as another to adopt them. Each must judge for himself as to the risk he runs of losing credit with his readers, for the injudicious selection of a bad model, or of one intrinsically excellent, but which from its very excellence has already been so frequently imitated as to have palled upon the public ear: his judgment, his skill, and above all his taste, are responsible for the effect. As to style in general, when a perfect model is selected, it may be repeatedly imitated without fear of producing satiety: any one who shall emulate the majesty of *Milton* in an epic poem, the subject of which, like the *Paradise Lost*, is solemn, grave, and sacred, may rest assured that criticism will assail him with very harmless weapons.

pons. It is peculiarity of style which pulls by repeated imitation.

Dr. Drake has selected two, we think not very happily, from among the various imitations of the speech of Eve: one is from Gray, who in his Ode to Music has these lines:

"Sweet is the breath of vernal shower,
The bee's collected treasure sweet,
Sweet music's melting fall, but sweeter yet
The still small voice of gratitude."

Here ends Gray; but the peculiarity of the original consists not in the mere repetition of the adjective, but in the repetition also of each successive image, producing the effect of a strong antithesis.

"Sweet is the breath of morn, her rising sweet,
With charm of earliest birds: pleasant the sun
When first on this delightful land he spreads
His orient beams on herb, tree, fruit, and flower,
Glist'ning with dew——

But neither breath of morn when she ascends
With charm of earliest bird, nor rising sun
On this delightful land; nor herb, fruit, flower, glist'ning with dew," &c. &c.

The passage from Hayley's ode, inscribed to Mr. Howard,

"Sweet is the joy when science flings
Her light on philosophic thought," &c.

has the antithesis of Milton, but its effect is weakened by the distance of the interval between the recurrence of the images: the passage is diffuse, laboured, pregnant with conceit, and consequently altogether destitute of that simplicity which is an essential constituent of the pathetic. We differ, *to a calo*, from Dr. Drake in our opinion of the merits of the passage.

In the lines alluded to, Milton himself is supposed to have imitated Theocritus: *E. d. 4. l. 76.*

* Ἀδελφὲς φωνὴ τῶν πόρτιος, ἀδὲ τὸ πνεῦμα
* Ἀδὲ δὲ χὺ μοσχοὶ γαστέρας, ἀδὲ δὲ χ' ἄβυσ
* Ἀδὲ δὲ τὸ θυρεὸς αὐγῆς ἵδρυς ἵον ἀδριονοκρεῖν, &c.

But on a comparison of the two passages it will be found that the peculiarity which we have remarked is Milton's own: the Sicilian shepherd has merely the repetition of the adjective, which produces a very pleasing effect, and which

probably our poet had in view. The antithesis however, from a recurrence of the successive images, might have been suggested by a different passage in the same Idyll; where, as Eve complains that in the absence of Adam nature has no charms, no beauties, so the shepherd Menalcas complains of universal aridity in the absence of his love:

Παντὰ ἔαρ, παντὰ δὲ νομοί, παντὰ δὲ γέλαστος
Οὐδ' αὖτε κληῖσται, καὶ τὰ νύ τε φίλαι.
Ἐδ' ἂ καλὰ καὶ ἐπινοήσεται, αἰ δ' ἂν ἀφίερη,
Χὺ ποίμαν ζῆτος τρωθὶ, χ' αἰ βοτάνη.

To this Daphnis replies,

Ἐδ' οἷς, ἐνθ' αἰγῆς διδοματόκοι ἴνδα μίλισσαι
Σμένια κληῖσται, καὶ δρύες φφίτιραι,
Ἐνθ' ὁ καλὸς Μίλων βαίνει ποσσὶς αἰ δ' ἂν ἀφίερη,
Χὺ τας βῆς βοσκων, χ' αἰ βόας αὐτίεροι.
E. d. 4. l. 41, &c.

The three next numbers treat on the life, writings, and genius of Robert Herrick, a poet of the early part of the seventeenth century, the contemporary and friend of Jonson, Denham, Cotton, Henry Lawes, John Selden, &c. The poetry of Herrick is scarcely known among us, although Dr. Drake does not hesitate to rank him not only higher than Waller, who is indebted to the sweetness and melody of his versification alone for the estimation in which he is held, but even to Carew, who, as Mr. Headley has observed, has all the ease without the pedantry of Waller. Dr. Drake has accounted, plausibly enough, for the neglect into which the poetry of Herrick has fallen: Herrick published every thing he wrote, therefore all must sink or all must swim, and it often happens in the physical world that both are lost in the vain endeavour of one man to save another from drowning.

Dr. Drake arranges the specimens which he has brought forward of Herrick's poetry, under the heads of amatory, anacreontic, horatian, moral, and descriptive. He is of opinion, that "his amatory poems unite the playful gaiety of Anacreon, with the tender sweetness of Catullus;" and that there is a vein also of such description in the poetry of Herrick, undiscoverable in the productions of Carew or Waller. Among the specimens produced, those in the amatory and moral style strike us as being superior to the others. We cannot resist the temptation to transcribe the fol-

lowing very delicate effusion of his moral muse.

"To Blossoms."

"Fair pledges of a fruitful tree,
Why do ye fall so fast?

Your date is not so past,
But you may stay yet here awhile,
To blush and gently smile;
And go at last.

"What, were ye born to be
An hour or half's delight;
And so to bid good-night?
Twas pity nature brought ye forth
Merely to shew your worth,
And lose you quite.

"But you are lovely leaves, where we
May read how soon things have
Their end, tho' ne'er so brave:
And after they have shown their pride
Like you awhile: they glide
Into the grave."

The "Captured Bee" is truly anacreontic, and some of the descriptive pieces deserve to be more known. Indeed we feel obliged to Dr. Drake for having brought into notice a poet, whose merits have been inadequately appreciated. May we recommend him to make a selection from the Hesperides and Noble Numbers? Dr. Drake's taste and critical acumen qualify him for the grateful task.

The three next numbers are employed in the narration of a gothic tale, "Sir Edgar;" it displays a rich, luxuriant imagination, and a powerful command of language. But surely the story would have had a much higher effect, had Dr. Drake thrown an air of antiquity over the style, as Mr. Southey has done in his translation of *Amadis de Gaul*? The decorations and refinements of modern composition are inappropriate to a tale of chivalry of the thirteenth century, as the light and elegant embellishments of modern architecture would be incongruously attached to a gothic edifice. Much of the gloom and solemnity of a cloister is produced by the "dim religious light," let through the dense and opaque colouring of the painted windows: antiquated phraseology is capable of producing an analogous effect in composition, and, in the present instance, it might certainly have been adopted with the best effect.

The forty-eighth number contains some pleasing poetry communicated to the author; in the three following numbers we have some observations on the me-

rits and defects of Sylvester's *Du Bartas*. The public attention has been directed towards this neglected author by Mr. Dunster's "Considerations on Milton's early Reading, and the *prima stanza* of *Paradise Lost*."

The perusal of Mr. Dunster's elegant little work induced Dr. Drake to read Sylvester: the same inducement kept up our flagging spirits through this tedious work. Mr. Dunster has omitted to notice many excellent passages, although the secondary object of his work was to select the beauties of an author who, as having conferred so many obligations on Milton, is doubtless entitled to a niche in the poet's corner. In order to make up the deficiency, Dr. Drake has offered a second collection, and he thinks that "without presumption it may now be affirmed, that every specimen worth preserving has been selected from this rude and neglected garden, and that what remains may be considered as little else than weeds or noxious plants, without utility and without beauty." We cannot accord in this sentiment: it is a considerable time since we read Sylvester's translation, and we cannot immediately point to several passages, unnoticed by either of these two critics, which we remember to have been struck with, as possessing more than ordinary merit. If it must be allowed that in the following simile there is a good deal of extravagance, it must on the other hand be allowed that there is much descriptive accuracy and poetic cadence; the motion and brilliancy of the planetary system give rise to the following comparison:

"Even as a peacock, peick'd with love's desire,
To woo his mistress, strutting stately by her,
Spreads round the rich pride of his pompous
vail,
His azure wings, and starry-golden tail;
With rattling pinions wheeling still about,
The more to set his beauteous beauty out:
The firmament, as feeling like above,
Displays his pomp, praneeth about his love,
Spreads his blue curtain, mix'd with golden
marks,
Set with gilt spangles, sown with glistening
sparks,
Sprinkled with eyes, speckled with open
bright,
Powder'd with stars streaming with glorious
light,
To inflame the earth the more with love's
grace,
To take the sweet fruit of his kind embrace."
W. L. D.

Besides being the translator of the *Divine Weeks*, Sylvester translated several other poems from *Du Bartas*, from which perhaps a few good passages might be selected: "The Fathers," and "Jonas," rival each other in dullness: the poem entitled "*Urania*" throws some light upon the early tastes and propensities of the author. The ode to *Astrea* contains many voluptuous lines. Sylvester also translated a poem, entitled, "The Profit of Imprisonment: a Paradox, written in French by Odet de la Noue, Lord of Teligni, being prisoner in the castle of Tournay." The paradox is, that adversity is more necessary than prosperity; and that of all afflictions, close prison is most pleasant and most profitable. Sylvester also translated "*TETPAETIKA*, or the *Quadrains of Guy de Four, Lord of Fibrac*." Were none of these printed in Dr. Drake's edition? he might have taken some beautiful lines from *Astrea*. The last passage which Dr. Drake quotes from Sylvester is the description of a country life from the third day of the first week: if it has escaped his recollection, he will thank us for referring him to a very beautiful poem on the same subject, quoted by Isaac Walton, from the *Reliquiæ Wottonianæ*, "quivering fears, heart-tearing cares," &c.* The picture here is not drawn on quite so broad a canvas, but the images are selected and grouped with great felicity, and the colouring is extremely delicate; in our judgment it needs not shrink from Sylvester's, concerning which Dr. Drake speaks in terms of very high, if not extravagant encomium. But it is time to leave *Du Bartas* and his translator, and proceed with our author.

No. LIII. "Arthur and Edith, a legendary tale;" Dr. Drake has attempted, not unsuccessfully, an imitation of the style of our ancient ballads.

The six following numbers treat on the Scandinavian mythology, a system, not merely interesting from its connection with the ancient manners, and laws, and religion of our forefathers, but worthy of attention, as capable of affording, from the wildness of its fictions, and the terrific sublimity of its superstitions, very high poetical embellishments. Dr. Drake laments that modern poetry has drawn so little from this ample storehouse of imagery. From Dryden to Gray rare

are the features which bear any resemblance to the sublime paintings of Scaldic fancy. "Two or three odes by Penrose, Sterling, and Bruce, the Arthur of Hole, and the Sketches of Sayers, a few imitations by Matthias, and the translations of Percy, Downham and Cottle, form, I believe, nearly a complete list of our attempts to introduce the Scandinavian mythology."

"One principal reason why these efforts have failed, though under the conduct of great poetical powers, has been owing to the obscurity which time has thrown over the doctrines of the Edda. Hence the beautiful Sketches of Sayers, and many admirable descriptions in Arthur, are little relished or understood by the common reader. To render poetry of this description interesting, and to impart a taste for its imagery and allusions, it is necessary that the fictions and manners on which it is constructed should be familiar. It has been found essential, in order to enter into the spirit of the classics of ancient Greece and Rome, to study accurately their mythology, history, and customs, and many works written in a popular and elegant manner, and therefore well calculated to facilitate this preliminary knowledge, have been published in various languages. Now, with regard to the fables and religion of the Goths, we possess but one production which, from its fullness and authenticity, can be safely taken for a guide. From the introduction to the *History of Denmark* by M. Mallet, or rather from this work as translated, and, under the title of "*Northern Antiquities*," greatly improved by the corrections of Dr. Percy, almost every information requisite to a perfect intimacy with the Edda, or gothic system of religion, may be acquired. Thirty years, however, having elapsed since these volumes appeared, they are now with difficulty obtained, nor are they, when procured, from their form and elaboration, adapted for general perusal. The lovers of English poetry, indeed, seem at the present period as little to relish the imagery drawn from this source, as previous to the publication of the work; and those who have lately indulged in a display of the bold fictions of the Goths, have done it at the risk of being unintelligible, and therefore neglected.

"As I am confident, however, that a knowledge of the religion and manners of the ancient inhabitants of Scandinavia is alone wanting to induce a taste for these ingenious writers, and that the chief reason why this has not hitherto been obtained, has been owing to the want of an easy and popular illustration, I have been tempted, in the view of doing justice to productions of much merit, and with the hope of contributing to a freer introduction into our poetry of the

* It is quoted at page 298 of "*The Complete Angler*," in the edition of 1760.

daring and enthusiastic features of northern superstition, to occupy a few hours in collecting its most striking and magnificent peculiarities."

Dr. Drake declines the detail of every idle fiction, and confines himself to the selection of those terrible and sublime pictures in gothic mythology; which are best calculated to embellish our epic, dramatic, and lyric poetry: the sketch is drawn from the Edda of Sæmund, and Snorro, from the numerous songs of the Scalds dispersed through the ancient chronicles, and from modern versions and imitations. Dr. Drake first gives a rapid, but well-defined, outline of Scandinavian mythology; he then selects the most brilliant parts for illustration, and terminates the whole by considerations which recommend it as a machinery admirably adapted to the higher purposes of poetry. The following observations merit transcription:

"Poetry generally arrogates to herself a style, very remote from common language, but in the earliest stages of society, where intellect is confined to sensible images, and the language is necessarily sterile, where no abstract terms or reflex ideas are admitted, the surrounding objects of nature are laid under heavy contribution, and furnish an abundance of daring metaphors, hyperboles, and allegories, which, to the correct and chastised taste of a more polished period, throw an air of obscurity and tumid grandeur over composition, and which a modern poet durst not have risked. In imagery and diction, no poets have indulged a greater licence than the ancient Scalds of Scandinavia, for whether they drew from simple nature, or from the dark recesses of their own mythology, they were alike gigantic and extravagant, though frequently sublime. Indeed, so little have their religious fables been familiarized to us, that their poetry becomes enigmatical, chiefly from assuming the figurative style of the Edda, for when the passions are merely intended to be roused, the diction generally possesses a just simplicity, and the sublime and the pathetic are attained without labour and without obscurity. To do justice, therefore, to what they esteemed the most brilliant and striking passages of their poetry, namely, those founded on the mystic narratives of the Edda, the study of the phraseology of their religious code is absolutely required; and they themselves were so sensible of it, that one of their master-bards, Rogvald, earl of the Orkneys, published a Scaldic dictionary, under the title of the Poetical Key, which amply explained

the fables and expressions, most commonly adopted or alluded to. 'Rogvaldus Orcadum comes,' says Wormius, 'princeps egregius, inter alias nobiles dotes, quibus ornatus est, præstantissimus et promptissimus fuit rhythmistæ, et clavem rhythmicam, quæ adhuc extat, confecisse dicitur.'

"When the number of phrases, expressive of the attributes of their different deities, and the almost infinite variety of metaphors, made use of for the simplest terms, are considered, the work of Rogvald must have been deemed highly useful to both the Scald and his reader. Thus, in this hyperbolical style, gold was called the tears of Frea; poetry, the drink of Odin; the sea, the field of pirates; the tongue, the sword of words; a combat, the bath of blood, the hail of Odin, &c. &c. expressions which, without an interpretation, would appear to us greatly overstrained, and frequently unintelligible. These difficulties, however, once overcome, the poetry of the north will break forth in all its energy, sublimity and beauty.

"To prompt the sympathetic tear,
To bid the purple tyrant fear,
And trance with joy the ravish'd mind."†

Dr. Drake is decidedly of opinion that the outlines of chivalry and gallantry, as well as of romantic fiction, had their origin among the Goths of Scandinavia, and that those who date their foundation and diffusion from the Arabic conquest of Spain are completely mistaken. Rather than repeat our sentiments on this subject, we shall refer to the second volume of the *Ann. Rev.* p. 515 & seq. and p. 654 & seq.

Number LIX. is a legendary tale, entitled "The Spectre:" there are some passages which seem to shew that Dr. Drake had Mallet's beautiful ballad in view, "Margaret's Ghost," and we were once or twice reminded of Tickle's "Lucy and Colin." The "Spectre" will not bear a moment's comparison with either of them: the language wants simplicity and conciseness; indeed we think diffuseness a prominent and pervading fault in Dr. Drake's style. The poem before us is too epithetical, and Edwin's account of his dream to Henry is not given in the language which terror would have inspired; the description, picturesque in itself, of Mary's habitation, is here (as it appears to us) exceedingly inappropriate and intrusive.

The concluding number is on the life, writings, and genius of Michael Bruce, and affords a very pleasing evidence,

* Vide Ob. Worm. Lit. Runic, page 195. † Edda of Sæmund, page 292.

that where the feelings of Dr. Drake are really interested he expresses himself in plain, pathetic, and impressive language. We consider this paper as an elegant and affecting tribute to the memory of poetic genius, of high moral and intellectual excellence.

Having taken so extended a notice of the individual papers which compose this volume, it were superfluous to conclude our account of it with any general remarks. From what has already been

said, it must be obvious that we think highly of Dr. Drake's talents and his taste; he has encouraged us to speak freely when we have not precisely accorded with him in opinion, by stating, that "to criticism, when candid," he is ever ready to listen without impatience. We trust that, on the present occasion, nothing has escaped us which can invalidate our claim to his sufferance.

ART. X. *Odd Whims; and Miscellanies.* By HUMPHREY REPTON, Esq. 2 vols. 12mo. pp. 334.

THESE are the amusing trifles of a man who has seen a good deal of the world, whose profession has introduced him to the acquaintance of many high characters, and whose vanity leads him to boast of it; of a man whose accomplishments are various and elegant, who fiddles a little, and draws very prettily, who writes verses, such as they are, composes tales, and lays out landscapes. Mr. Repton has the taste to prefer mirth to melancholy; he looks at every thing on its fairest side, keeps his mind cheerful and easy by never suffering it to be unoccupied by business or pleasure, and preserves a constant good humour with himself by the harmless inoffensive complacency with which he surveys the products of his own genius and taste. Is Mr. Repton angry that we smile at his vanity? we apologize by quoting two couplets from Swift, begging him to remember, that although

" 'Tis an old maxim in the schools
That vanity's the food of fools;
Yet now and then your men of wit
Will condescend to take a bit."

The first of these volumes, which now make their appearance so beautifully printed, and so amply decorated with illustrative vignettes from the pencil of Mr. Repton, contains a number of little essays, allegories, &c. which the author many years ago published anonymously in a collection called VARIETY. In the sketch which adorns the title-page, MORALITY is discovered under the veil of *Levity*, which is in the hands of *Painting* and *Whim*: the character of the essays is fairly portrayed in this fanciful groupe: they are light and lively, written in an easy, playful manner, and generally enforce some moral sentiment or good feeling.

Four-fifths of the second volume are occupied by a comedy called *Odd Whims, or Two at a Time*. The scenery, appearance, and dresses of the characters are brought in a lively manner before the reader's imagination by coloured sketches very characteristically drawn. In justice to Mr. Repton however, we must say that the assistance of the graver was but little wanted. The character of sir Geoffrey Oddwhim is well imagined and kept up. Lord Blazon proudly examining the wide-spread branches of his old genealogical tree may be easily imagined; and Madame Crepon bustling about the shop for patterns of silk to please the taste of a Turk is brought to the imagination in a lively manner. Indeed we do not hesitate to give "Two at a Time" a decided preference over the mass of comedies which come before us. The plot is very well conceived, the difficulties of the lovers overcome without any extraordinary violation of probability, and the intricacies of the piece unravelled with considerable dexterity. Mr. Repton has shewn his judgment in drawing such characters as came within the compass of his powers; his heroes and heroines are not placed in situations to inspire any lofty sentiments, or call forth any splendid descriptions, they have only to sustain an easy dialogue on occurrences which require no poetical or elocutionary flourishes. Mr. Repton does not forget to inform his readers that this comedy was read in manuscript, "with pleasure by Mr. Burke, and commended by sir Joshua Reynolds."

The "Poetic Miscellanies" which close these volumes are worthless: we cannot select one which would pay the trouble of transcription.

ART. XI. *Comic Sketches : or the Comedian his own Manager. Written and selected for the Benefit of Performers, &c. By CHARLES LEE LEWIS, Comedian.*

LEE LEWIS was a comical fellow, but his powers must have been greater than we can imagine to have amused any audience who had not pre-determined to have a grin for their money at all events, by the recitation of such low-lived trash as this.

These comic sketches were originally intended for the East Indies; the only anecdote worth relating is this: when Mr. Lewis, at his own responsibility, landed in the year 1788 at Calcutta, two days after his arrival he received a note from Mr. Hay, secretary to the governor-general, marquis Cornwallis, requesting him to attend at the council house on the following morning. Mr. Lewis attended, and Mr. Hay, with unaffected concern, signified to Mr. L. that he could not receive permission to give any public performance in the settlement, and that he must return to Europe in the same ship he came out in.

This was a very mortifying stroke: Mr. Lewis in a few days transmitted to the governor general a memorial, to which the following note was returned

in answer. We quote it as very highly honourable to the feelings of the noble marquis.

Government House,
Aug. 9, 1788.

"Sir,
"Lord Cornwallis has received your memorial; and in answer to it, his lordship has directed me to say, that it gives him great concern to disappoint your hopes of accomplishing the objects of your voyage to this country; but as you have come to India without leave from the court of directors, the duty of his station obliges him to forbid your making any public professional exhibition whatever in this settlement. His lordship has desired me to add, that he feels exceedingly for the distress which you must suffer, from the step which you have so imprudently taken, and he requests that you will accept of the enclosed draft upon his agent for one thousand rupees, to relieve, in some degree, the exigencies of your present situation.

"I am, sir,
Your most obedient and
humble servant,
HENRY HALDANE,
Priv. Sec. to the Governor
General."

ART. XII. *A World of Wit, containing characteristic Anecdotes and Bon Mots of eminent living Persons. By the Hon. Mr. S—r. 8vo. pp. 210.*

DULNESS and obscenity pervade these nauseating pages, which are altogether thoroughly contemptible.

ART. XIII. *A Tour through some of the Southern Counties of England. By PERIGRINE PROJECT and TIMOTHY TYPE. 12mo. pp. 240.*

THIS is a quiz upon those travellers who, with an ink-horn in their button-hole, fancy that nothing is too insignificant to be recorded which they find in any county but their native one. The idea is not bad, and the first forty or fifty pages are amusing enough: but the spirit is not kept up, and altogether this is an infinitely duller and more unprofitable tour than any which the author might have in view as the subject of his ridicule. The rage of gallery hunting is very well quizzed. Project is disappointed at not seeing the pictures at lord Pal-

merston's, but his friend Type consoles him with an accurate description of the Dutch tiles which decorate the fireplace of the parlour at his inn. They are duly numbered and arranged. Among others we have Samuel hewing Agag in pieces with a huge scymetar; the ark, almost as big as the mountain, resting upon mount Ararat; the man with a great beam, like that of a house, in his eye, reproving the other with a mote in his, &c. &c. The book is better conceived than executed.

ART. XIV. *The Report of the Evidence, and other Proceedings in Parliament respecting the Invention of the Life-Boat. Also several other authentic Documents, illustrating the Origin, Principles, and Construction of the Life-Boat, and its perfect Security in the most turbulent Sea. With practical Directions for the Management of Life-Boats. By HENRY GREATHEAD, of South Shields. 8vo. pp. 71. 1804.*

THIS little pamphlet is not a subject for the exercise of literary criticism: it contains nothing of any consequence which has not already been laid before the public; and if we were to transcribe the account of the life-boat, its origin, principles, and construction, few but nautical men could understand it, and even they perhaps but imperfectly, without the assistance of a plate. Let it not be understood, however, that we are by any means indifferent concerning the circulation of this pamphlet. Often has the mischievous ingenuity of man been tortured in the invention of instruments for the more certain, rapid, and multi-form murder of his fellow-creatures: and we are truly happy to see concentrated in a few pages the various documents which relate to an invention which has already saved the lives of several hundreds of our countrymen, of that class of our countrymen too to whom, in this sea-encircled land, we are particularly indebted for our personal safety against the threatening vengeance of a proud and haughty foe.

The benefits of the life-boat have already been extended to different parts of the world. We see that in the year 1803 Mr. Greathead built one for the Prussian merchants, to be stationed off Pilliæ; another for his majesty the king of Prussia: one for the prince

royal of Denmark; and one for his imperial majesty the emperor of Russia, who has graciously been pleased to transmit to Mr. Greathead a diamond ring.

Mr. Greathead received a remuneration from parliament of 1200*l.* for his invention: we should be sorry to throw any unfounded suspicion on Mr. Greathead's title to that reward, but at the same time we should be equally sorry to let slip the opportunity of giving publicity to the name of an individual, to whom, in the estimation of some ship-builders in South Shields, the merit of the invention is due. A committee of the house of commons may possibly be deceived, and with the very best intentions in the world distribute its honours and rewards injudiciously. That it has done so in the present case, we do not assert; but from several communications, which appeared some time ago in a periodical journal (one particularly from Mr. Hailes of Newcastle), Mr. Greathead's merit as the inventor of the life-boat is rendered questionable. That merit is given to an eccentric character, a man of genius, Mr. WOULDHAYS, of South Shields. We shall not enter into the question here, but refer those who may be disposed to do so to the Monthly Magazine, vol. xiii. p. 547, and to vol. xiv. p. 98. 108. 119.

CHAPTER XIII.

MILITARY TACTICS.

THE peculiar circumstances of the country have created a large demand for elementary works on the military art; and, by directing the attention of many who have not been regularly brought up to the service to military topics, have produced many crude and indigested projects, among which, however, the experienced officer may occasionally meet with hints for real improvements.

Major Cuninghame, lieutenant-colonel Macdonald, serjeant Wedderburne, and an anonymous member of the Trinity-house Volunteers, have employed themselves respectably and usefully in the composition of elementary works. Major Aldington has suggested a new application of light artillery; and by those who are fond of military anecdotes, the Military Mentor and Mr. Thompson's Military Memoirs will be gladly received.

ART. I. *The Tactic of the British Army reduced to detail; with Reflections on the Science and Principles of War; uniting in one View the Evolutions of the Battalion, Brigade, and Line, and pointing out their Combinations with each other, and Uses on actual Service. Illustrated with 59 Copperplates.* By JAMES CUNINGHAM, Major of Infantry in the Service of the East India Company. pp. 103.

THE study of military tactics has, within the last year or two, become more interesting and more general. The commanders of volunteer corps find it necessary to obtain that information from books, which others have learned by experience. The demand for books of instruction for volunteers has therefore been very large, and we believe the supply has fully kept pace with the demand. The author of the present work has endeavoured to reduce the tactic of the line to detail, and to unite in one view the evolutions of the battalion, brigade, and line. His plan is thus stated in the preface.

"Eighteen manœuvres are laid down for the discipline of the single battalion; upon examining these manœuvres it will be found, that every thing contained in the tactic of the line may be exemplified under the head of one or other of them. The compiler of this work, therefore, takes a brigade of three battalions, and makes this brigade perform every one of the eighteen evolutions upon the principles of the tactic of large bodies, and exemplifies under one or other of them, every thing essential to the latter; thus bringing together, under the same heads, the discipline of the battalion, the brigade, and

the line, and at once pointing out how they mutually combine with each other. To each evolution is fixed figures shewing the single brigade performing the manœuvre; next an army of two lines performing it; with remarks pointing out how the second line gains its relative position in each, agreeable to the data contained in his majesty's regulations; the purpose to which each evolution is applied on actual service, is also pointed out; and the whole finishes with extracts on the leading principles in the science of war."

The eighteen manœuvres are as fully explained, and the plates exemplify the several evolutions, as distinctly as any other work of the same kind. But the want of such a book is not very apparent to us. It can seldom be of any farther utility to a volunteer officer as a book of directions, than sir David Dundas's regulations, since it seldom falls to any but a regular officer to command a brigade; besides that an officer who has been accustomed to manœuvre one regiment, will find no difficulty in commanding a brigade of three, or more, since the movements of a line are on the same principles as those of a single battalion. We mean not by this observa-

tion to detract from the merit of the work, which is certainly well drawn up. The remarks on the different manœuvres, and the general observations at

the end of the volume, will be found the most useful part of the work to the young officer.

ART. II. *An Essay on the Construction and Advantages of Light Artillery acting with Infantry, and a Description of the Loaded Spear, recommended for the Use of the Rear Ranks, &c.* By Major JOHN ALDINGTON. pp. 60.

THE improvements which have been made in the construction and use of artillery within a very few years, go far to verify the opinion of marshal Turenne, "that the fate of all field engagements would one day be decided by them." When we recollect with what difficulty and labour our guns were till very lately managed, the delay with which they were brought into action, and observe the wonderful quickness and precision with which they are now brought to bear upon any given point, we are inclined to adopt the opinion of the celebrated officer quoted above. The great advantages which the French gained during the last war, by means of their horse artillery, suggested to our government the idea of adopting a similar system in this country, which has been also followed by most of the European powers.

Major Aldington, from his experience of the advantage and importance of artillery, has recommended a new species of it, which he terms *infantry artillery*. The weight of the guns to be light three or four pounders, which should be loaded with grape shot or musket bullets, and should be employed "in that arduous part which generally belongs to the infantry alone in deciding the fate of engagements." The guns would be stationed in the intervals of companies, and would be worked by six men. Major Aldington then calculates that ten guns, thus worked, would discharge more than 5000 balls in a minute, and certainly with much greater effect than the same number of balls fired by a battalion, since experience has proved that not more than one bullet in 200 takes effect.

We are decidedly of opinion that the plan, which it is the object of this tract to recommend, ought to be tried: if not to a large extent, it might be adopted on a limited scale, since there can be little doubt of its importance and utility. Major Aldington says, and we think with truth, that

"The many great advantages which an army, thus equipped, would have over troops according to our present appointment, must

be sufficiently obvious. At the longest distance, you have a fire from these portable pieces, equal, if not superior, to an incessant fire of small arms at twenty paces only. It would be difficult to suppose a situation, either of attack or resistance, in which troops thus appointed could be placed, where their efforts would not be completely successful."

The observations on the present mode of performing the platoon exercise well deserve attention, and it were much to be wished that the commander in chief would pay a little attention to this most essential and important part of the exercise, as the method of performing it either in quick or slow time is very defective in the most material points. On this subject our author thus remarks:

"The only necessary part of the manual exercise with the musket is loading and firing. This is so universally allowed by all, from the drill sergeant up to the commanding officer, that it is matter of astonishment why it is the only one least attended to. As long as we attach consequence to the fire of musketry, it is unpardonable to slur the motions over by which only it can be acquired; from the opening the pan, lifting (which is never done but in real firing) the flap of the cartridge box, &c. to the drawing the trigger, should be attended to throughout with the greatest care, and made to correspond exactly with the loading with cartridge. Above all things, officers commanding companies or divisions, in real or imitative firing, should particularly attend to the levelling as a most essential duty—the muzzle a little lower than a horizontal direction. Any other failure had better be excused than this; for, in all probability, if this part of a soldier's duty had all the attention paid that it deserves, these simple motions, by a long and continual use, would become so habitual, that men in a considerable degree of hurry and trepidation, would go through them almost mechanically."

We cannot entirely agree with major Aldington in his observations on the use of riflemen, when he says, "All that they ever have or can do, amounts to no more than mere vexation, without contributing to the general issue of an engagement." When we recollect how

the American riflemen distressed and annoyed our army by picking out their officers, and cutting off the centres and foragers with such dreadful certainty, we cannot but consider them as essentially serviceable. The advantages of riflemen are numerous. Their dress and the distance at which they can kill their object gives them a manifest superiority over every other species of light troops. Against an invading army, that force which can best annoy and harass will be found the most useful, and in this country, intersected with hedges and trees, riflemen must act with great certainty and success.

We are not so completely convinced as major Aldington seems to be, of the efficacy of another of his plans: viz. that of arming the rear rank with pikes or loaded spears "of sufficient length to fall three feet beyond the charged bayonet of the front rank, supposing the line formed three deep." Our objection to this weapon is its great length, weight, and consequent unwieldiness. In order to project as far as major Aldington wishes, the spear must be ten or twelve feet long, and to prevent its being too heavy at the point, a considerable weight must be fastened to the butt. The incumbrances of such a weapon would take much from its utility. This spear is proposed to weigh 14 pounds: this it would do at

least without any weight at the butt, except the shaft was made so slender as almost to bend with its own weight, when it certainly would not be very efficacious in repelling a charge of cavalry. The men thus armed would be entirely defenceless as individuals, as they would possess no other weapon besides this unwieldy spear. For these reasons we must beg leave to differ in opinion from our author as to the efficacy of the *pikes*.

The concluding address to the volunteers of Great Britain is appropriate.—With a short extract from it we shall conclude our review of this important little tract.

"I would wish to impress this truth on the minds of my gallant countrymen, who have voluntarily come forward in the brave and arduous character of soldiers for the defence of their country, as well as on the truly respectable militia throughout the kingdom, that the only way to insure success is to come to close quarters with the enemy as soon as possible. The preparation requires little knowledge either in theory or practice. What ought to be particularly attended to, is, a strict observance of order, to advance with resolution at the word of command, to throw in the reserved fire, and to follow it instantly with the bayonet. This is the soldier's creed, which if relied on will never fail him."—p. 58.

ART. III. *The experienced Officer; or Instructions by General WIMPFEN to his Sons, and to all young Men intended for the Military Profession, &c. with an Introduction, by Lieut. Col. MACDONALD, of the first Battalion of Cinque Port Volunteers.* pp. 400.

THIS work has been for some time in high and deserved repute on the continent. The professional character of general Wimpfen ranks so high, that a publication which contains the result of his military experience, cannot fail of being highly interesting. To Lieut. Col. Macdonald the public is indebted for the present translation. He has prefixed an introduction to it, which we could very well have dispensed with. It makes an addition of 50 pages to the book, but from the great variety of subjects discussed, any person would suppose it contained more than ten times that number.

Col. Macdonald has the faculty of transporting his readers in a few sentences through the most distant ages, climes, and nations. In the space of three pages mention is made of Julius Cæsar, the present pope, Bossuet, the

duke of Parma, Fenelon, Toussaint, Bonaparte, and several other characters of equal celebrity. In one sentence we are at Rome; in the next we are transported to England, in a third we find ourselves at St. Domingo, and in a few minutes after we are safely brought back to Europe and landed in France. In the same page the colonel discusses the proposition that "*neutral bottoms make neutral goods*," and gives a political history of Spain from the reign of Charles V. to the present time. He then undertakes to show why the several invasions of this country have or have not succeeded, including those of William the conqueror, Philip, William the IIIrd, the pretender, and the attempt on the coast of Wales in 1797. We are afterwards introduced to prince Eugene and the duke of Marlborough, and in the next sentence transported back to the year

54, when the government of England at that period is described. We shall extract the passage.

"The allies in the war for the Spanish succession, about one hundred years ago, advanced only thirty miles from the Austrian frontier, as far as Landrecy; and a slight defeat forced prince Eugene to raise the siege of that place, and to abandon all his conquests. Never was the fallibility of offensive war more forcibly exemplified than in the slow progress of the great Marlborough, who after ten years of continued signal victories, found himself only thirty miles within the north frontier of France. Julius Cæsar, under a pretence that the Britons had assisted the Gauls, embarked with a fair wind in the year 54, and in nine hours landed on the bank of the river Storn, near Sandwich, in Kent, a little to the north of Dover. The twenty-eight petty states (subdivided into elans) governed by kings, and druids who were priests, prophets, and kings, were not calculated to act with co-operation, against a large and warlike nation accustomed to victories and triumphs, arising from discipline constantly improved, during a period of seven hundred years." p. 27.

The 29th page brings us to Darius and Alexander; but in "the twinkling of an eye" Scipio, Sempronius, Flaminius, Terentius Varro, Hannibal, Fabius, Montmorenci, and Washington, together with the battles of Poitiers, Agincourt, and Cressy, are introduced. The efficacy of the volunteer system is then discussed, a transition is happily made to the propriety of emancipating the Irish Roman Catholics, and the question of the coronation oath determined. The designs of France against India are then described, and a system of defence for that empire recommended. With the greatest facility we are transported to Holland; and the manner and amount of the French taxation there described. The introduction finishes with a scheme for paying off our national debt, and a plan for disposing of all the waste lands in the kingdom by lottery! "The only objections," says colonel Macdonald, "in the way of this salutary proposal, will be found to lie in narrow and interested feelings, dead to every sense of public utility."

After having given Col. Macdonald our share of attention, we proceed to Gen. Wimpfen. That officer thus addresses his sons:

"The leisure afforded me by a disengagement from professional avocations, has made me desirous of communicating to you the

knowledge I have acquired in the course of fourteen active campaigns, and in a great number of memorable battles, of which I bear the marks. If my sons study this compendious work, and if they possess zeal and talents for the profession of arms, they will have over me the great advantage of obtaining information, and learning rules for conducting war, which are the result of my long experience." p. 57.

The general begins with the duty of vedettes and advanced guards, which he explains with great clearness and accuracy. He then describes the different sorts of detachments. The duty of an officer commanding a reconnoitring party is thus described:

"An officer detached for purposes of reconnoitring the country of the enemy ought to be intelligent, active, and brave. The troopers who accompany him must be well mounted: he must carry with him a minute geographical or topographical map of the country, a parchment pocket-book to take sketches in, and provisions to last several days. He is to procure information from the country people with respect to defiles, morasses, thickets and underwoods, rivers, bridges, fords, mills, elevated grounds, and mountains which command the plains. He is to note down all the remarks he makes, for the information of his commandant." p. 18.

Chapter ix. treats of encampments, and the most eligible situations for camps. A camp is said to be judiciously situated, when its flanks are well supported, and its rear well covered, when it has within it wood and water, and when by a small movement the enemy is obliged to make a considerable one.

Chapter xii. shews how to attack a hollow square with advantage; which order of battle is proved to be weak and defective.

The three following chapters treat of the attack of lines, of passing and defending defiles, and of surprising a town or camp.

In chapter xvii. the several duties of the commander in chief, the general of division, the chief of the staff, and the adjutant-general are described; with the various wants and requisites of a large army. The following chapters contain the movements of a great army. The different kinds of marches, and the advantages or inconveniences of offensive and defensive war are explained. The concluding chapter treats of "the great battles, which alone decide the fate of empires." The following is an extract from it:

"As one single battle fought by the two

leading armies often decides the destiny of an empire, the result involving such an object ought not to be hazarded but with a great superiority of numbers, and a superior description of troops in the highest possible state of discipline. Before orders are issued for giving battle, the nature of the ground must be examined and known with the most extreme minuteness. Every general, in proportion to his known abilities and experience, must have his particular duty in detail, fully explained to him. The arms of every kind are to be, previously, carefully inspected, and ascertained to be in the best condition. The real state of the artillery must be reported, and it must be numerous and well-found. There must arise no chance of a scarcity of ammunition. The direction in which the dust flies, in which the sun shines, and in which the wind blows, must all be attended to. All defiles in rear of an army are to be occupied, to put it out of the power of an enemy to seize on them. In short the force must be disposed of and arranged to be ready to act in concert, and without embarrassment, confusion, or disorder, on any requisite point. The line must march up steadily and boldly to an attacking enemy, and thus counter-attack unexpectedly. No procedure disconcerts more, and produces a better effect. By gaining ground the victory is infallibly secured.

"The cavalry commences the charge at the distance of four hundred paces from the enemy, throwing itself, precipitately, against the body directly in front.

"Previous to a battle, the general will ride along the lines, addressing the soldiers, and animating them to deeds of glory. The

steadiest and most experienced men must be stationed in a fourth, or supernumerary rank, to encourage and keep in order the ranks and files, and to oppose those inclined to give way. In advancing in line, the fourth rank will observe that the ranks lock well up, using every exertion to cause the line to advance firm and steady, that the charge of the bayonet may be given powerfully and effectually among the ranks of the enemy. The brigades posted supporting each other, push on resolutely in any close and compact order in defiance of the fire of the enemy. This determined mass, like a devouring flame, burning with the patriotic love of their country, collecting all their force for a decisive effort, and animated with fury, fall like a thunderbolt on the enemy, and snatch from him a victory which he has calculated on obtaining, and firmly believes already to be completely decided in his favour." p. 123, &c.

To the above brief sketch of the work we have little to add. It is written with great minuteness of detail, and will be found particularly useful to unexperienced officers. The maxims which this volume contains must be read with attention and study; they are the result of much experience, and we will venture to say that no military man can peruse them without advantage. The text is illustrated with notes, which contain much valuable information; they give us a higher opinion of the translator than we had conceived from his introduction; which we wish, both for his own sake and his readers', had been omitted.

ART. IV. *Asystematic View of the Formation, Discipline, and Economy of Armies.* By ROBERT JACKSON. 1804. pp. 347.

THE intention of this treatise is (as the author informs his readers at the close of his preface) "to impress the necessity and to suggest the means of rendering a soldier proud as a soldier and virtuous as a man. Without pride he will not be uniformly brave; and without virtue, there is more chance that he prove the scourge of a nation than the defender of its liberties." The end in view is laudable; but we doubt much whether the perusal of this work will awaken in a soldier's breast one proud feeling or one virtuous sentiment, and whether it will suggest any new ideas, of which it will be possible to avail himself in the organization of an army. Mr. Jackson, "connected with the military service and naturally enamoured of a military life," seems to have taken a philosophical view "of the operations of war, and of the radical principles of mi-

litary discipline and economy, as the parts of military science most nearly allied with the pursuits of his ostensible profession." As such, his work will prove acceptable to those who act alternately the soldier and the philosopher. During the prosperity of Athens, philosophers united with artisans to fill the ranks of her armies, and the instructor of Plato was the companion of Alcibiades. But in the present age, numerous as are the avocations blended with the duty of the soldier, the various branches of the British army will, we think, afford few examples of those who have quitted the shades of philosophical retirement to assist either in enforcing the additional-defence bill, or in organizing a battalion of volunteers from the heterogeneous mass collected from the plough, the loom, and the anvil. The military philosopher, who, without

exposing himself to the danger, is pleased with studying the theory of warfare, will read with interest the speculations of Mr. Jackson. But the systems formed in the closet of the philosopher are too abstruse, too vague, to be admitted into the tent of the general, the scene of real, of energetic action. Among that numerous class of men, whose pride and whose virtues are to be awakened by this treatise, there are few who will attempt to reduce the greater part of its systems to practice, and the few who entertain so visionary an idea, are little capable of that promptness of decision, of that vigour of action, which their country expects from the leaders of the generous bands to whom she has entrusted the defence of her best interests. A short view of the plan of the book will be the clearest mode of illustrating its design. Mr. Jackson has introduced his subject by a physical disquisition of sixteen pages, entirely unconnected with military pursuits, till within eight lines of its termination; where we are told that "preparation for war is a duty," and "that to stand forward in defence of a common country is commendable." The preceding sheets are taken up with observations on the process by which the component parts of the universe are kept together, on their various organization, on the passions of man and the progress of society. How is a soldier to be improved in a knowledge of his duties by the study of "organic action" or "chemical action," or of the sympathy by which "the parts of nature are connected with each other?" Had not this introduction been prefixed to a work professedly *military*, there are parts of it which we should have read with pleasure, as honourable to the feelings and the pen of the author. The following passage, while it evinces the contemplative philosopher, will prove how little this introduction is adapted to a military subject :

"Man, when he first breathes the air, is helpless—without positive knowledge of what is useful or hurtful,—an organic structure, acted upon by physical wants, and obeying corporeal impressions—without forethought or controuling power of mind. His first rational acts are expressions of gratitude, indicated by affection for those who supply his wants—for parents, nurses, and attendants. The attachment is artificial—an expression of gratitude, or an obsequiousness in expectation of favour, frequently and arbitrarily

transferred from one to another. The circle widens in the progress of life ; as the circle widens, the bond of union is proportionally weakened, and the individual begins to feel his own being and importance. At a certain period of evolution the sexes are attracted by the charms of the corresponding sex. The animal feels and begins to think ; his thoughts are filled with love, perhaps with ardent love for the sex, and with sentiments of benevolence for the whole race, of which he now holds himself to be a part. This period is youth—the most amiable, and the most interesting period in the history of man's life." p. xxiv.

In the first chapter Mr. Jackson considers the qualifications of a soldier, "principally as resulting from the operation of physical causes." We are not willing to deny the general inferences drawn in this chapter; the *useful* suggestions it contains are far from being novel, they ought to be familiar to every recruiting serjeant and regimental surgeon. The suggestions which we deem *useless* are those which can form no rule of action. It would be highly desirable that in an army each individual should be as free from bodily defects as Mr. Jackson requires, and that his former employments should have been suited to the exact kind of military service allotted to him. But were it even *possible* to collect a body of human beings so perfect, the inspecting surgeon could not enter into all the minutæ enumerated in the 6th section of this chapter, so far as to discover even the germs of future diseases, nor would the recruiting serjeant soon fill his ranks, if he rejected the proffered services of those who, besides possessing the usual requisites of stature and apparent strength, had not followed a trade or inhabited a climate adapted to the duties of a soldier; he cannot inquire whether their minds have been elevated by the habitual contemplation of cataracts and precipices, or whether the constant view of an extended valley has inspired secret sentiments of dominion, freedom and independence. The theory is entertaining; were it practicable it would be instructive. Page 32, Mr. Jackson says, "As it is only from uniformity in power of exertion, that union of action can be ensured; and as this is the essential point which commands success in war, a standard for the measure of the powers of recruits, is in sound reason not less necessary than a standard for the measure of the height of stature." Were the strength of a

full-grown man as fixed as his stature, not liable to be impaired or fortified by a thousand adventitious circumstances, we should approve such a standard; but the duties of a soldier are those which are the most likely to weaken a man who has been equal to less arduous tasks, and to restore vigour to a frame relaxed by effeminate or sedentary employment. Mr. Jackson's system displays a knowledge of what mankind ought to be; till they become so, a practical trial of it must be deferred.

The 2d chapter contains "a sketch of the military character of European nations most distinguished in history." Mr. Jackson's remarks upon the military character of some countries are unsatisfactory and superficial; in investigating that of others he has shewn great knowledge of human nature, and has delineated, in an interesting and discriminating manner, the effects of particular events and peculiar situations on national character. But we think him most happy, when he attempts to trace the causes of those brilliant achievements which have sometimes laid the foundations, and sometimes preserved the existence, of empires. In this—the historian's, the philosopher's task, we think Mr. Jackson more successful than in that of the soldier. He guides to the sources of that enthusiasm, by which the most numerous and best disciplined armies have often been vanquished, and (particularly in the case of the Americans) marks the adventitious circumstances which contributed to the success of that enthusiasm. In accounting for the triumphs of the Prussian soldiery in the seven years' war, we think, however, that he has laid too little stress on the character, conduct, and example of Frederic. After all, it is only to such a man as he was, that a knowledge of human nature can be useful in a military view. The ranks of ordinary men may be entertained, may be interested by the contents of this chapter; but it is only once in an age that the master-hand appears, which can guide the passions of mankind, and concentrate their ardour to the attainment of one end. The delineation of the French character, and late mode of warfare, is interesting and instructive.

"The French are active corporeally; they are enterprising mentally, easily impressed with a phantom of glory and a desire of fame. Hence they are easily led to every variety of action, which presents a novelty. They are

vain individually; but they are also ambitious nationally; inasmuch, that the glory of the French nation stands always in a prominent point of view with every genuine Frenchman. Not so firm in resisting as many, nor so powerful in close attack as others, they are notwithstanding impetuous,—susceptible of flashes of enthusiasm, which, when well directed, accomplishes great objects; but the object must be distinct, precise, and such as is fully comprehended; for the constancy of their conduct is connected with the precision of their intelligence of the thing desired. In short, the French appear to be of that class of men, who act from sensation, rather than from firm and rooted sentiment in the mind: they are thus capricious; but, as they are capable of being excited enthusiastically, by an operation upon the organs of sense, they are, from this cause, effective instruments in the hands of a skilful general, who knows things and who has discernment to estimate effects. But to ensure effect, from the operation of such instruments, the character must be well understood—without such knowledge, there will be no just application, or true measure of the powers for the various points of the conflict."

• • •

"The mode of war, lately adopted in the French armies, appears to be irregular. It is so, compared with that of the Prussian school; but it is regular, correct and perfect according to its own rule. It is evidently the mode of war, the best adapted to the character of the French nation. A battle, in the irregular style of war, consists of a repetition of attacks, each of which has its own impulse, or distinct point which fixes the eye. The French advance, attack and retire; and, though constitutionally an impetuous people, they are so influenced by a succession of objects soliciting new attempts, as to imitate the most perfect *sang froid* in their mode of conducting an action: They brave the fire of musketry; for every one has an object in his own eye which fixes the attention; while no one, supported immediately and mechanically by the close order of the ranks, is so forcibly impressed with fear at the destruction of his comrade—as happens unavoidably in the close order of tactic. The battle, in common circumstances, is entrusted to troops, who act in a desultory and irregular manner. They advance boldly, even rashly; but they are supported by a reserve, which consists of tried men: till that is overturned, the French do not esteem themselves defeated. As it is demonstrated in every case, that the French are chiefly formidable in attack; and, as it has been often proved, that when fixed to a distinct point of action, they yield the field to inferior numbers of British troops, it becomes decidedly the object in future wars to offer, rather than to sustain the charge—to fix the field of battle, if possi-

ble to open grounds, where the whole mass may be embraced; in broken and irregular grounds, their activity, and their experience of the loose mode of fighting give them evident advantages over the soldiers of most other countries."

Mr. Jackson's partiality to this country has amplified his remarks on the character of the British army; but he has been impartial in pointing out both the defects and the excellences in the three nations of which it is composed; he thus sums up their respective merits:

"Of the three nations, which form the basis of the army, the English is the most comely in appearance, but not the most military in aspect; equal, if not superior in power to either of the other, he is inferior in hardness and in endurance of toil. As he is better fed, more carefully nursed, and more cautiously guarded against the influence of weather, in all the processes of his life, than the others, he is necessarily more susceptible of the action of the causes of disease arising from these sources; his health is consequently less secure, where such causes of disease abound. He is mechanical in action, cool in temper; the pledge of his military duty is connected with its reasonableness; as the cordial execution of it implies the existence of such condition;—a circumstance, which notes a radical sentiment of independence peculiar to the English people; the motive of action being always a demonstrative reality. The Scot is hardy in body; but he is impetuous in action, passionate in temper, enthusiastic, interested in the cause of others, as if he were himself the principal, bound to his duty by an innate sentiment, probably visible only to himself. The Irish is moved to action suddenly by an operation upon the organs of sense; the impression does not grow into a sentiment; the rule of conduct is consequently capricious and uncertain: the movement is irregular, subject to stagnate, or to fly off unexpectedly with the collision of other causes; but, where skilfully animated and well directed, the energy of the Irish soldier is not inferior in force, to that of either of the other parts of the army."

In the third chapter, on the formation and mechanical training of troops, Mr. Jackson attempts to illustrate by theory, what can only be learnt by practice. In opposition to the generally received principles on which an army is organised, by selecting and arranging materials "according to the quantity and external form of the animal mass," he proposes that it should be "according to the individual power and temper of the parts." By adopting this plan, "the parts may probably be of various size

and of different figure, externally; but they correspond in power, possess the same extent and capacity of force, the same temper and character internally: they thus produce union of effect in action, even when moved to the utmost extent of exertion." How are similar characters and tempers, equal powers of body and mind, to be thus appreciated and arranged?—By making "it more peculiarly the work of the *scientific philosopher*." Let us then suppose the practicability of the plan—let us discard our drill-serjeants, who have obtained by long experience more military knowledge than Mr. Jackson's complicated theories will ever impart, and let their places be filled by *scientific philosophers*; under these new tutors our recruits shall pass a probationary year, and "be accustomed to stand for one hour each day, the head, heels, hips, and shoulders, all equally in contact with a perpendicular wall;" the constraint of this "exhibition of posture" shall be alleviated by lectures on the use of the firelock, the bayonet, the rifle, and the sabre; the comparative effects of artillery and musquetry shall be calculated, and that "essential part of military education" shall not be forgotten, "to teach the soldier to look upon danger with indifference." Under the superintendence of these *scientific philosophers* their pupils shall then receive the subordinate instruction given by the masters of dancing and fencing, the cook, the tailor, and the cobbler. Is it by such a view as this that the pride and virtues of a soldier are to be awakened? Elevated virtue! Are you to be inspired no more but by the arts of the posture-master? In the two concluding chapters, on the "principle of military movement and bond of union in action," and on the "general economy and management of troops upon service," Mr. Jackson continues his subject on principles similar to those we have already illustrated. The "high sentiment of pride, of honour, supported by the sanction of religion," with which Mr. Jackson would *mechanically* "animate a soldier to command the success of war," can only be inspired (as he himself acknowledges) by the consciousness of being engaged in a just cause; this consciousness, wherever it exists, will be alone sufficient to inspire these sentiments; they can be obtained by no rules, can be dependant on no systems. To detail the means by which a general is to awaken

in his soldiers an attachment to his person, and a confidence in his powers, is allowed to be no easy task; when accomplished it must be futile; if he possesses the requisite abilities to adopt the conduct or imitate the examples mentioned by Mr. Jackson, he will want no instructions how to act; nature will be his guide: quiet in discerning, active in seizing advantages as they rise, his own genius will soar above any systematic proceedings, and mark by becoming energy the decisive moment; books will never teach him when he may rush with the standard of his army amid assailing enemies, or plant it on the rampart where victory is but half secured. Mr. Jackson investigates the subject of military economy with an attention to the minutest articles of diet, dress, and accommodation in barracks, camps, transports, and on a march. Military tailors, barrack-masters, and troops destined for service in the tropical climates, may obtain some information from this chapter; but we should have thought the subject of a very inferior importance to soldiers previously inured by Mr. Jackson's rules to "the occurrences which are common in actual war;" accustomed "to be called up in the midst of the night to be marched to distant places, to be *purposely* exposed to wind and rain, to heat and

cold in high degrees, and trained in the best modes of passing rivers whether by fording or swimming." What idea can Mr. Jackson have formed of the judgment of his fellow-countrymen, that he thinks it necessary to lay down a specific rule for erecting barracks in healthy situations, except in those circumstances "which leave no option or choice?" Can he imagine that those spots which are thought insalubrious for the mechanic, will be deemed healthy for the soldier? Or does he think "powdered locks" and "waving plumes" more "at variance with the stern countenance of the soldier" than the gown or *robe de chambre*" which he recommends him to put on, when in the West Indies he returns from his morning exercises to breakfast "on coffee or cocoa, plantain, yam, or bread, with the occasional addition of fruit?"

We have now followed Mr. Jackson through the various parts of his system: of his style, the extracts we have given may serve as specimens; we ought not to be too severe on this subject, as he claims no merit for it; "the grace of composition," he tell us, "is unfortunately not under his command;" we will dismiss him with observing, that this is one of those few positions in which we heartily coincide.

ART. V. *The Military Mentor, being a Series of Letters, recently written by a GENERAL OFFICER to his Son, on his entering the Army; comprising a Course of elegant Instructions, enlivened to unite the Characters and Accomplishments of the Gentleman and the Soldier.* 2 vols. 8vo. 336 and 286 pages. Second edition.

THESE two volumes have in a short space of time gone through two editions. We are unwilling to attribute the whole of this success to their appearing to the world as the productions of "a distinguished and accomplished general officer;" this recommendation may have had its effect; but the work certainly possesses merit; it is however the merit of affording entertainment, rather than that of conferring information. The subjects of the different letters are, as will be supposed, the virtues which become the soldier and the man; the sentiments and observations are in general trite and common-place, and for the greater part adapted to readers of every class. They are illustrated by a collection of anecdotes, of which the two volumes chiefly consist. These anecdotes are often interesting, in general amusing, and connected with the subject of

the letter in which they are introduced. Useful exertion and disinterested benevolence, rigid justice and heroic firmness, are portrayed in faithful colours; it would be well if "those headstrong and misguided young officers, who fancy their uniform is alone sufficient to attract respect," would read, admire, and imitate. Some of these anecdotes are however too familiar to be thought unknown to one, of whose previous acquisitions history must be presumed to have formed a part; and in others, orations are detailed at too great a length for one who wants to be instructed how to act, more than to learn how to speak. Those young officers who wish to shine in company, may treasure up these anecdotes in their memories, and retail them as often as opportunity offers; they will be thought well-informed, and the least merit which they will be supposed to

possess, will be that of having read much. The language in which these letters are written is easy and unaffected; the following extract from the beginning of the fifth letter, "on the love of our country," will afford a specimen both of style and manner.

"The love of our country is one of the most noble and most generous of principles. It not unfrequently gets the better even of self-love; for a true patriot is at all times willing, if called upon, to sacrifice his possessions, his dearest interests, his life itself, in his country's service:—and this sentiment is founded in justice; for when men have agreed to live in society, all private attachments ought to yield to the public benefit. The records of antiquity are crowded with glorious examples of devotedness and of sacrifices to this honourable passion.

"How noble is the picture of an officer who, having received a musket-ball through the body, says only to his comrades and the soldiers that pressed round him: "My friends," showing them a passage it was necessary to force, "that is the path to glory; take no thought of me—but do your duty!"

"An aged officer, whose son was wounded with the same bullet that killed Turenne, exclaimed: "It is not for my son you must weep; but for that great man, and the irreparable loss which your country will sustain in his death."

"Sir Philip Sydney, too, whose name will be an everlasting honour to England, being mortally wounded at the battle of Zutphen, the surgeon of count Hallard, who attended on that officer, as well as on his wounded master, told him, that he was afraid he could not save the life of sir Philip.—

"Away!" said the count angrily; "never return to me until you bring news of that man's recovery, whose life is of more value to his country than many such as mine."

"Courage is undoubtedly the principal virtue of a general; but a man who is entrusted with the destiny of thousands of his fellow-creatures, if he be not influenced by a sincere love for the true interests of his country, will, like Sempronius and Varro, and many generals of our own day, sacrifice wantonly his troops to his ambition, and the desire of a false reputation: true glory requires virtues of which Sempronius and Varro were destitute.

"The love of our country ought to be the leading motive to excite us to great actions. It was this sentiment that drew Hannibal from the heart of Africa, urged him to undertake the most formidable difficulties in the war against the Romans, and rendered him finally their conqueror. Wherever it prevails in its genuine vigour and extent, it absorbs all sordid and selfish regards: it subdues the love of ease, power, pleasure, and wealth; nay, when the amiable partialities of friendship, gratitude, or even private and domestic affections, come in competition with it, it will teach us to sacrifice all, in order to maintain the rights, and promote and defend the honour and happiness, of our country.

"A Spartan lady had five sons in the army, and was hourly in expectation of news from the field of battle. A messenger returns from the camp; and, with trembling agitation, she applies to him for information. "Your five sons," said he, "are slain." "Base slave! did I ask thee that?" "Yet we have gained the victory." "Thanks to the Gods!" exclaimed the mother: and she instantly flew to the temple, in order to offer up her thanks."

ART. VI. *Military Memoirs, relating to Campaigns, Battles, and Stratagems of War, Ancient and Modern; extracted from the best Authorities, with occasional Remarks.* By WILLIAM THOMSON. pp. 588.

THE title page of this work sufficiently explains its nature and design. As it contains very little new information, we shall merely give a brief outline of its contents.

Part I. enumerates the wars which took place before the invention of gun-powder, from the battle of Thymbrium in Lesser Asia, which transferred the empire of the East from the Assyrians to the Persians, to the battle of Halldown hill, between the English and Scots, in the reign of Edward III.

Part II. contains the various engagements which were fought after the in-

vention of gun-powder, and before the introduction of the Prussian tactics; from the battle of Flowden Field to the battle of Fontenoy, in the year 1745. Our author thus speaks of the king of Prussia.

"Neither Turenne, nor Monticuculi, nor Marlborough himself can be considered as inventors in the art of war. No inventor appeared from the time of Gustavus Adolphus, till that of the great king of Prussia. It was reserved for him to reduce military operations to a regular system: which system has ever since been regarded as indispensably necessary to be followed in the modern art of war. It may therefore be said that

"• Buonaparte is said to have forced the bridge of Lodi, from an impulse of vanity, in front of the Austrian cannon, at the expence of six thousand of his best troops; when, at the distance of a few miles, he might have forded the river with an inconsiderable loss."

the improvements and inventions of the king of Prussia are so great, as to establish an æra in military history, scarcely less marked and important than the use of gun-powder." p. 401.

Part III. is divided into three sections. The first contains the wars of the king of Prussia; the second, the American war; the third, the late ten years war in France, as far as the battle near Alexandria, March 1801, in which sir R. Abercrombie fell.

We need only to observe farther, that

ART. VII. *Observations on the Exercise of Riflemen, and on the Movement of Light Troops in general.* By SERGEANT WEDDERBURN, of the 95th (Rifle) Regiment. pp. 57.

THIS is a brief and useful explanation of the rifle duty: it contains the method of performing the exercise; and the different movements of light troops.

The explanations are given with accuracy, and the rules correctly laid down. The nature of the rifle service is such as

Mr. Thomson appears to have compiled his work from good authorities. The remarks which are subjoined to the narratives of most of the engagements are useful and interesting; they contain the opinions of able tacticians, on some of the most celebrated battles of both ancient and modern times. To those, therefore, who find amusement or instruction in reading the histories of wars or the narratives of battles, this work will be peculiarly entertaining.

to render particular regulations for every situation impossible: much must depend on the activity and courage of the individual; but for the training recruits, or the instruction of volunteer riflemen, this little work will be found useful.

ART. VIII. *The Exercise of Great Guns, as practised by the Royal Artillery; containing the Rudiments of that Duty, for the general Use of such Persons as may be put to that Service, in the present Emergency.* By one of the TRINITY HOUSE ROYAL VOLUNTEERS. pp. 8.

THE use of artillery is now so much increased, that it is rather extraordinary no book has lately appeared which treats more particularly of that branch of the service. The above little work will be

found sufficient to give a general idea of the duty of serving the great guns. It contains the different words of command, with clear and appropriate explanations of them.

CHAPTER XIV.

AGRICULTURE AND RURAL AFFAIRS.

IF bulk is a circumstance that entitles to precedence, the *Practical Agriculture* of Dr. Dickson deserves the first mention among the contents of the present chapter. It is indeed impossible to treat adequately of the various and important branches of rural economy, so as to produce a work of any material service to the practical farmer, without entering considerably into detail; the size therefore of these volumes, although somewhat alarming at first, will, upon more mature consideration, appear to be necessary; and, if the author has performed his task with judgment and ability, as appears to be the case, the copiousness of his book, instead of being an objection, ought rather to be stated as an argument in its favour. Mr. Marshall has published a volume on the general management of landed property; the merits of which, notwithstanding the magisterial tone of the author, and the tedious and perplexing minute formalities in his arrangement, are very considerable, and will, upon the whole, by no means detract from his well-earned reputation.

Two county surveys have been published during the last year. That of Hertfordshire, by Mr. Young, though not destitute of merit, is however by no means a first-rate performance. The survey of Shropshire, by archdeacon Plymley, we have no hesitation in stating to be the very best specimen of rural topography that the English language affords; the abundance of interesting matter which this volume contains, the good sense which it displays, and the enlightened benevolence which beams so conspicuously throughout the whole, are highly honourable to the archdeacon, both as a writer, a man of observation, and a dignitary of the church.

ART. I. *General View of the Agriculture of Hertfordshire; drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture, and internal Improvement. By the SECRETARY OF THE BOARD.* 8vo. pp. 325.

MR. ARTHUR YOUNG will excuse us for hinting that although we know he is invested with the honour of being secretary to the board of agriculture, many who refer to this volume may not be acquainted with the circumstance. It would have been more modest, we think, to have given his name in the title-page, as well as his office.

In noticing these surveys, it is best to comply with the uniformity to which they are restricted, unless when the compliance would encumber us with useless or uninteresting matter.

Hertfordshire contains about 302,080 acres; it measures 28 miles from east to west, 36 from north to south, and 130 in circumference. It is divided into 8 hundreds; contains 18 market towns, and 120 parishes. The soil, as in every other county, is different in different parts: chalk however forms the basis of the whole of it. Sometimes it makes its appearance superficially; here pure, there with a mixture of clay or other substances. Chalk, clay, loam, and gravel, are the four principal divisions which the secretary of the board has marked in

his map: the district of gravel he conceives to be the most unfertile of any in the south of England; he thinks it is even inferior to the moors of the north, which are rented for a shilling or sometimes sixpence an acre. The district of loam—a very undefined word—is exceedingly rich and prolific: it is moreover by far the most extensive, varying however in degrees of fertility.

Property is much divided in Hertfordshire; about 7000*l.* a year is the largest rental in the county; there are six or seven estates from 3000*l.* to 4000*l.*; more of about 2000*l.* and below that, some of every value. A large portion of the county is held by copyhold tenure, with a fine certain, or at the will of the lord, but this fine never exceeds two years rent. Such land sells at about six years purchase, under the price of freehold, which sells at from 28 to 30 years purchase.

The farms are in general small: not one in the county exceeds 1000 acres; they average from 150 to 400: but there are many much smaller.

Chaps. iii. and iv. Here we find not a single observation worthy to have been put down in a memorandum-book, and still less to have been transcribed from it, unless the exact composition paid for tythe in different parishes of the county, and the precise rent of John Trot's farm, Timothy Turnip's, Christopher Cabbage's, and so on, are to be considered as curious information.

Chap. v. treats on the Hertfordshire implements.

Chap. vi.—*On enclosing.* We learn that in the enclosure of Hartingfordbury, three private gentlemen permitted themselves to be named in the bill as commissioners. By their vigilance, and gratuitous attendance, very heavy charges of the bill were avoided. It is impossible to speak too highly of these disinterested exertions on the part of Mr. Byde, Mr. Calvert, and the Rev. Mr. Browne. We wish the plan were adopted in other places.

“Hertfordshire may be considered as the county where the plashing system is carried on to the greatest extent: it has been universally practised here from time immemorial. Scarcely can any county be worse situated for coals; and the coppes are not more extensive than common. These causes may have induced the farmers to fill the old hedges every where with oak, ash, sallow, and with all sorts of plants, more generally calculated

for fuel than fences, and which would form no kind of fence under any management but their own. Here they form a material object in the rural economy of the farm, supplying the house with wood sufficient for its consumption. It evidently appears that plashing is understood and practised uncommonly well, from the circumstance of the hedges being in many parts of the county, not only fences, but good fences, when tolerably preserved, without the aid of any ditches; for I did not see a thorough good ditch (such as would be called a ditch in Suffolk), in the county, except some that I made 30 years since myself, and which may still be seen.”

Mr. Young has illustrated his description of plashing by means of several engravings. When a hedge has been suffered to grow from nine to twelve years, it is cut down, with the exception of a few live stems, which are left as stakes; and a few standards which, being cut almost through, are beat down and interwoven among these stakes, so as to form a fence almost impenetrable in itself, and every year preparing a supply of future fuel. At 12 years growth usually, the hedge is renewed by a new plashing; old plashed branches are then cut off close to the ground, and new ones laid down.

We presume it would not very much interest our readers, any more than it has done ourselves, to be informed of the course of cropping adopted by different Hertfordshire farmers. *A* has a fallow, then wheat, oats, fallow, barley, peas. *B* has turnips, barley, clover, wheat. Nor, we presume, would they derive much instruction or amusement from any account of the price paid for plowing in different districts, or the different depths of soil turned up according to the article intended to be cultivated. With such barren and uninteresting items as these, however, are the greater number of these pages filled.

If there is any merit in the late corn-bill, Mr. Young is entitled to some share for his anticipation of its necessity:

“At the time (says he) of my revising these notes (October 1801), wheat in the markets of this neighbourhood (Suffolk) is from twenty-seven to thirty shillings a comb, of four bushels, or fifty-four to sixty shillings a quarter.” It is therefore a good deal below what the Hertfordshire farmers think a price necessary, when compared with the expenses at which they carry on their business. It is true, that poor-rates will fall considerably with the price of corn, but not proportionably: rents are much raised, and are not likely to fall; tithes are the same: labour

also has advanced, and is not likely, nor ought it to be reduced. Hence it becomes a vast object with the legislature of the kingdom, to take such measures as to prevent a too great depression of price. They are not at all likely to do this with a view to the benefit of the farmers: but they ought to do it as preventing a scarcity, and very high prices. Nothing but a steady security against too low a price for wheat, can prove a real security against its being too high. And it ought never to be out of the minds of those whose ideas may have influence in parliament, that the low price, from 1771 to 1794, (5s. 8d. a bushel, on the average of the kingdom), has had a material effect in causing the late melancholy scarcities."

The operation of the corn-bill is not to raise the price of corn illimitably and unreasonably, so much as to prevent its unreasonably and illimitable depression. But why, it may be objected, should government interfere in behalf of land-owners? If they have bought land dearly, and have made a bad bargain, like other rash speculators, they ought to pay for their folly. If *les parvenus, ou nouveaux riches*, anxious to create a large territorial property, are willing to borrow money at 5 per cent. and lay it out in the purchase of land which produces them but 3 per cent. is government to support their stupid pride? Why should not the poor of this country partake of the bounty of nature, since they are compelled to suffer for her fits of parsimony? Why should a minimum be fixed upon the price of corn, whilst a maximum is scouted? Why should the million be sacrificed to the thousand? These queries are not of very easy solution. If Mr. Young's remark, however, is just, that "nothing but a steady security against too low a price for wheat, can prove a real security against its being too high," he has furnished as good a reason for the new corn-bill as any which has been advanced. But the question is not solely whether the million is to be sacrificed to the thousand, &c. but whether those gradations of rank, or, more correctly speaking, whether those classes in society are to be supported, which the experience of ages has proved to have existed for its advantage. In times of yore the landed interest was the most opulent and the most powerful in the kingdom: arts, manufactures, and commerce, have changed the face and character of the country, and materially altered the relation of classes in society. The only

class which has not risen in the scale, is the class of land-owners: the labouring poor were never fed so well, and never were clothed better than they are now; the artisan, the manufacturer, and the merchant, are daily increasing in opulence: but the old hereditary land-owner has not been able to increase his rents proportionably to the increase of taxation, the increased price of labour, and the increased expences of living in general. Whether the mere land-owners are a class of sufficient usefulness in society to merit the special interference of government in support of their pristine splendor and superiority, is a question which we shall not take upon us to discuss. That the corn-bill is calculated to operate in their favour we can have no doubt, nor is it possible to suppose that the framers of it were unaware of its natural and necessary operation.

We must return to Mr. Young. In the chapter on arable land, the mode of rearing different grains in Hertfordshire is related, but we see nothing to detain us till we come to the article, "turnips;" concerning this crop the following information may be worth attending to:

"A circumstance in the culture of this crop, which Mr. Hyde has found of very great consequence, is that of ploughing in the seed, instead of harrowing it in on the surface: he has found in this management, that it is not nearly so liable to be destroyed by the fly. He ploughed it in on a half field and harrowed it in on the other half; and the difference was so considerable, as to convince his bailiff, whose opinion was adverse to the practice. When the season proves too dry, it makes the difference of crop or no crop. He ploughs in the Swedish turnip also, and with equal success."

The Swedish turnip is cultivated very largely, and with much success, throughout this county; and the Marchioness of Salisbury, who has devoted an extent of ground exclusively to agricultural experiments, raises cabbages, parsnips, beet, &c. &c.

We are glad to see that the culture of lucerne is attended to here.

The drill husbandry, after the long and patient experience of some of the best farmers in this county, is very much laid aside! Mr. Young's opinion of its superiority over the old broad-cast husbandry, is evidently in a great measure shaken.

Chap. x.—*Woods*. These are rented at from 9 to 12 shillings an acre, and

cut at 12 years' growth; there are large tracts of woodland to the south of Hertford, towards London; 2000 acres almost together.

"At Panshanger, in lord Cowper's grounds, is a most superb oak, which measures seventeen feet in circumference at five feet from the ground, taken from the S. E. by E. side. It was called the great oak, in the year 1709: it is very healthy; yet grows in a gravel surface, apparently as steril as any soil whatsoever; but it undoubtedly extends its tap root into a soil of a very different quality. It is one of the finest oaks which I have seen, though only twelve feet to the first bough."

Chap. xii.—*Improvements.* The quantity of waste-lands in Hertfordshire compared with that in most other counties is very inconsiderable. The least expensive mode of bringing them into cultivation in the first instance, and the most profitable eventually, is found to be by paring and burning. Old sainfoin lays are occasionally pared and burned. Manures are used here in a very unsparing manner: the fossil manure of the district, and expensive additions from London, are employed on a very extensive scale. Narrow and deep shafts are sunk, and the chalk is brought up in buckets, and afterwards barrowed about the field.

The practice of irrigation is not very general, although the county offers every facility for it.

"Mr. Whittington, at Broadwater, waters a meadow of eight acres, by the wash of uplands after rain: it has no other manure, and yields two loads an acre, which, for the soil, is a great improvement. But he observed, that the benefit of irrigation is not so great, as the quantity of produce seems to indicate; for he once sent Mr. Bentfield some bullocks to eat off a great after-grass in his watered-meadows: the beasts were there some months, but were not improved in the smallest degree."

Chap. xiii.—*Of Live Stock.* The 4th section, "horses and oxen compared," includes a well-written letter from the Hon. Geo. Villiers, on the relative value of these animals as labourers in the field and on the road. 'Much may be said on both sides,' as sir Roger de Coverley

observes, and here it seems to be generally acknowledged that where three or four teams are kept on any farm it is advisable to have at least one team of oxen. Mr. Villiers gives a preference to oxen, principally on their comparative exemption from those diseases to which horses are subject, and "which instantly reduce the value of them from forty to four guineas." The letter of Mr. Villiers is a very sensible one, and we regret the want of room to extract from it: into the scale of comparison he throws some heavy arguments in favour of oxen.

Chap. xv. "The county may be said in general to be destitute of manufactures:" the plaiting of straw, however, is a resource for poor women and children in one part of the county, although from Hockerill to Ware, Hadham, and Buntingford, they have little or no employment at home. About Stevenage and Hatfield, spinning has given place to plaiting straw; but at Redburne, where the manufacture prevails most, women will earn a guinea a week, and a pound of prepared straw sells for sixpence! At St. Albans, women can earn five shillings a day! At Dunstable children begin to pick straw at 4 years old; plait it at 5; and some girls at 10 years old, earn 12 shillings a week. Women on an average earn a guinea a week.

The straw, from strong and heavy land, like that of Essex, will not do for plaiting; and it may be some consolation to those parishes which cannot avail themselves of the plaiting manufactory for the reduction of their parish rates, to be informed, that if a crop produces much straw fit for plaiting, the produce of the corn is generally bad: weak straw, under hedges and near ditches, does best.

This volume concludes with some sections, neatly engraven, of an ingenious moveable sheep-house, belonging to the Hon. George Villiers; who has also addressed a letter on the management of the poor (which in his own parish he has undertaken himself), alike creditable to the clearness of his understanding and the humanity of his heart.

ART. II. *General View of the Agriculture of Shropshire: with Observations, drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture, and internal Improvement. By JOSEPH PLYMLEY, M. A. Archdeacon of Salop, in the Diocese of Hereford, and honorary Member of the Board.* 8vo. pp. 366.

In the preface to this full and satisfactory report, Mr. Plymley has deemed it necessary to make an apology for having devoted his time to the composition of it. We cannot believe, and certainly do not believe, that Mr. Plymley has suffered the time which he has bestowed in collecting and digesting the materials for this publication to interfere with his professional functions; that being the case, the apology is altogether unnecessary; and we do not hesitate to express our hope that the example may be followed by other clergymen. Some of the county reports, drawn up for the Board of Agriculture, are little else than a dry detail of local practice: the number of sheep which Colin Clout keeps upon three hundred acres of land, the profit of Blouzelinda's dairy, or Bumkinet's bullock-yard, is not exactly all that we look for in an agricultural survey drawn up for a national board. The clergyman of a parish is assuredly not likely to be the best practical farmer in that parish, but he is perhaps more likely than any one else to give such a general view of its agriculture, and to make such remarks on the prevailing system, as will correct its errors, and extend to other parts the sense of its advantages. The reporter ought to be a man of science as well as a man of detail: if not, let the task devolve upon the schoolmaster or the exciseman, either of whom, with an ink-horn in his button-hole, can note down minutes and memorandums as fast as Mr. A's steward or Mr. B's bailiff can supply them.

Chapter I. The geographical position of Shropshire is not very accurately determined: it lies nearly within 52° and 53° north latitude, and 2° and 3° west longitude from London. The maps of the county differ materially as to its situation, as they do also with respect to its size. The original report gives the length and breadth as 40 miles by 35, on the authority of Mr. Gough in his last edition of *Camden's Britannia*, and states that according to Dr. Halley it contains 890,000 acres. The county is divided into 15 hundreds. For the subdivisions, civil and ecclesiastical, we must

refer to the minute and doubtless accurate detail of them given in the volume.

"The climate, throughout this county, is so far altered by the irregularity of its soil and surface, that there is a considerable difference. The harvest on the eastern side, where the land is warm and flat, is frequently ripe about a fortnight sooner than in the middle of the county, where the vales are extensive, but where the surface is less light, and the bottom often clayey; and hay and grain are both gathered earlier there than on the western side, where the vales are narrow, and the high lands frequent and extensive, although the ground in general is not so stiff, and lies for the most part on a semi-rock full of fissures. The easterly winds prevail in spring, and those from the west in autumn; but I believe the easterly winds are the most regular, those from the west generally blowing for a series of years (five or six perhaps) strong and frequent, and then, for somewhat near a similar space less often and less violent. The same may be said of wet and dry seasons; but the periods of both appear to be much shorter."

On the western side of this county there are mines of lead-ore of a good quality, which have been very productive: the Bog-mine has been worked to the depth of 150 yards: a solid lump of pure ore of 800lbs. has been gotten up there; the vein is in some parts 3 feet thick, and generally bedded in white spar.

Mr. Plymley informs us that as far west as Llanymynach, lead is found in small quantities, and copper, which the Romans are supposed to have worked to a great extent. Tools, judged to be Roman, have been found in these mines, and some of them are preserved in the library of Shrewsbury free-school. Coal of an excellent quality is obtained on the eastern side of the county; and out of the 15 hundreds into which the county is divided, 10 of them produce it. Mr. William Reynolds has communicated to the author the lists of strata in five different collieries in the eastern district.

Shropshire is well supplied with lime, and in general the limestone is at no great distance from the coal: much of it is found near the surface; but about nine miles south of Shrewsbury it is so-

vered by twenty-yards of argillaceous strata. Limestone, Mr. Reynolds says, is also found near Caughley under 20 yards of argillaceous and sandstone strata.

Ironstone is found in the neighbourhood of Wellington, Colebrookdale, and Broseley. This county, rich in minerals, is also well supplied with building stone: the quarry at Grinsell is celebrated for its white sandstone: in some other places red sandstone and white are found in alternate beds.

In the west district is a siliceous grit, hard to work, but very good to build with; the general stone is argillaceous. In the parish of Bettus good stone slates for covering roofs are found, and flagstone is met with in Corndon-hill. Mr. Plymley has investigated the subterraneous treasures of Shropshire with great attention, and given a minute enumeration of them. We feel, with regret, the impossibility of accompanying him in these interesting researches, without devoting more time than we can with propriety spare for the purpose.

The Severn is the only navigable river in the county, which, however, is irrigated in different parts by a hundred petty streams. Mr. Plymley laments that where there is such good opportunity of grinding corn by water, there should be any windmills. In recommending watermills he gives a caution against damming up any main stream for their supply, as a considerable quantity of ground may be thus made boggy and unfit for agriculture. "If mills are supplied by *phlegms* or small streams, carried off upon a high level above the parent stream, before they are confined, this evil is prevented; and the irrigation of land may be increased by this circumstance."

Chapter IV. *State of property.* Landed property is more divided in this county than is commonly imagined. Mr. Plymley, however, states that here are estates of noblemen and several *commoners* which cover from 10,000 to 28,000 acres each. The landed income is estimated at 600,000*l.* a-year. Land lets at about 15*s.* per acre, tithable. There is much copyhold tenure, and the customs of the greater number are preserved and acted upon.

Chapter III. *On buildings.* There are many good remarks on the construction

of farmhouses and the arrangement of offices; together with observations, which do credit to the benevolence of the reverend reporter, on cottages, and on the wisdom as well as humanity of appropriating to each three or four acres of land. Mr. Malthus would ridicule or rather frown at this mistaken philanthropy, as it appears to him. We side with Mr. Plymley, unintimidated by the apprehension that a superabundant population would flow from an addition to the immediate comfort and comparative affluence of the cottager. The interests of morality would certainly not suffer, if the increased number of marriages were to check, as they most undoubtedly would, the frequency of fornication. Our villages absolutely swarm with bastards: a woman scarcely deems herself marriageable till she has had a child or is pregnant, in which latter case the parish officers most assiduously labour to bring about a match between the parties, *provided the man does not belong to their parish.* Thus the most ill sorted and unhappy marriages take place: never peaceable, but when asunder, the husband after his day's work betakes himself to the alehouse, and there spends the money which ought to support his family, whilst the wife and her children are compelled to wander about in rags and filth to commit their petty depredations on trees and hedges. Surely we may indulge our feelings in the encouragement of legitimate population, without any immediate cause of apprehension, when we have the grave authority of Mr. Barrow,* who is not in the habit of speaking rashly and unadvisedly, that China, notwithstanding it is considered as supporting at present the most intense population of any country in the world, might actually afford the means of subsistence to twice its reputed population of three hundred and thirty-three millions of souls!

Mr. Plymley banters with some humour the rage for employing what is called ornamental architecture, in farm buildings: all "castellated or gothicised cottages, all churchlike barns, or fort-like pigstyes," are objectionable, as bearing an outward appearance intended to belie their inward use; as idle impositions, which deceive nobody. There is good taste as well as good sense in the following remarks:

* Travels in China.

"Almost every species of country building has a good effect, if properly placed and neatly executed; and what are the least ornamental, or indeed the most disgusting, of their appendages, cease to shock, when supported by the relative situation they stand in, shewing their necessity and their use. A dunghill in a farm-fold creates no disagreeable idea, but connected with a gothic gateway, or embattled tower, it is bad. Cattle protected by the side of a barn, form a picturesque group; but sheltering under a Grecian portico—the impropriety is glaring. Linen hanging to dry on the hedge of a cottage garden, may be passed without displeasure; but the clothes of men, women, and children, surrounding the cell of an anchorite, or the oratory of a monk, have their natural unseemliness increased by the contrast. On the other hand, a fine dressed lawn with miserable cottages on the outside, may be compared to the laced clothes and dirty linen some foreigners were formerly accused of wearing. The whole of a gentleman's estate should be his pleasure-ground; the village should be one object in the scene; not shut out from it. There may be a little more polish about the mansion, but it should not be an unnatural contrast to the surrounding objects. The face of no country is bad, but as it is disfigured by artificial means; and the cheapest and best improvement is, merely to remove what offends, and to take care that the buildings, or fences, that are wanted, are neat and appropriate, exhibiting distinctly their real intention."

Chapter IV. We see but little here which ought in strictness to detain us: the characters of Shropshire farmers vary, no doubt, like those of farmers in other counties: the only peculiarity, if peculiarity it can be called, is an excessive and injurious fondness for strong ale. Tythe is moderately assessed, and of course very little is gathered. On the subject of poor rates are some sensible observations: the indiscriminate rotation in which the office of overseer is taken in large parishes is truly to be lamented. As the office is annual, there must be a great many nooks of uncomplaining poverty and distress which will escape the unpractised overseer, however willing he may be to distribute with a judicious hand the allowances of the parish. He goes out of his office just at the time that he is beginning to be acquainted with the circumstances, character, and real situation, of the poor who belong to it.

One of the plans which Mr. Plymley recommends for adoption in large parishes is, that the whole management should devolve upon *one* overseer to be

annually appointed (reappointed?) and who shall receive a salary sufficient to make him regard the office his business as well as his duty. The writer of this article, from the experience of several years in the parish where he resides, ventures to suggest as an improvement upon this plan, that a parish should have *two* overseers: one selected, in the first instance, for his humanity and discretion, and *pro forma* annually reappointed with a handsome salary: the other to take his turn in the customary way by rotation among the farmers. The advantages of this plan seem to be, *first*, that one of the overseers will at all times be perfectly well acquainted with the character and situation of all the poor, quick to detect imposition, and knowing on whom to confer the reward due to industry and good conduct. A *second* advantage appears to be that the farmers of a parish, connected in their annual rotation with the permanent and well practised overseer, themselves become more acquainted in six weeks with the dispositions and circumstances of those with whom they are concerned, than without such assistance they would be in as many months. A *third* advantage is, that if the stationary overseer may occasionally counteract the illiberality of some unteeling farmer, or the rash profuseness of another who has more feeling than judgment; so, on the other hand, each farmer in his turn has the opportunity of detecting or counteracting partiality, speculation, or any improper conduct on the part of his colleague, who is only permanent in his office so long as he performs the duties of it with discretion, honesty, and humanity.

As we are now on the subject of provision for the poor, we may be allowed to dip the pen in the inkstand once more in their behalf. Wheat at the time we are now writing is 116 shillings per quarter; malt is 11s. 6d. per bushel, butcher's meat (except pork) proportionably high, and coals dearer, we believe, than were ever before experienced. It is unnecessary to add the acknowledged truth, that the wages of labour have by no means risen with the increased price of provisions. The plan which we are now about to detail for the relief of the poor was adopted during the high price of provisions in the years 1795 and 1796, in the parish already alluded to. The writer of this article made it public at that time, and its revival at present cannot be too strongly recommended. Two

objections present themselves against encreasing the wages of labour so as to meet any temporary dearness of provisions. One is, that no distinction can be made between the bachelor and the man who has a wife and large family; their relief does not run parallel with their respective wants. An addition of wages which would amply suffice for the former, might tend but little to ameliorate the condition of the latter. The other is, that if the wages of labour are encreased, the healthy and strong will always be preferred to the sick and weakly; the debility of age must yield to the vigour of manhood. They who want the most therefore, would have the least assistance: the old would starve for want of employment, and the young, perhaps, be induced to injure their health and strength by unremitted and overstrained exertion. The assertion is very frequently made that every man has a *right* to live by his labour; that it ought to support him independent; that he ought not to be indebted to the precarious bounty of a parish for his subsistence. Without stopping to investigate the justness of these remarks, we shall simply state, that it appears to be an equal exercise of this obnoxious bounty, whether farmers *voluntarily* meet in vestry to increase the wages of their labourers, or whether they *voluntarily* adopt any other method of relieving the necessitous, which may be exempt from the two objections just urged against raising the price of labour. It is a distinction without much difference: the relief in both cases is equally gratuitous.

The plan, to which these observations are preliminary, is to allow every person whose poverty requires it, the difference between the price of meal at 1s. 6d. a stone, and the current price whatever it may be; allotting to each individual in a family from the full grown man to the infant at the breast the portion of half a stone per week. That the poor, however, may not be induced to purchase a larger portion of meal than they have occasion for, they should not buy it at a reduced price, but receive the difference of its value, as it varies, in money. For the distribution of this money an overseer may attend at some appointed place every Sunday morning before or after service. This plan will be better,

illustrated by an example: the retail price of meal is at present 3s. 10d. a stone, from which sum deduct 1s. 6d. (the price of meal at which it is presumed that a labourer can comfortably live), and allow *half* the difference, namely, 1s. 2d. to each person in a family, per week.* If some such plan as this were adopted *for perpetuity* it might be advantageous, as relief may be accurately proportioned to necessity. It is always wise to lay in a stock of potatoes and of coals, and have them retailed out at prime cost once a week to the poor, allowing no one more than is sufficient for his own consumption.

Chapter VI. *Enclosing.* Although a great deal of land has been lately enclosed, and although more is still enclosing, very large wastes and commons still remain in the county. Clun forest contains about 1200 acres.

“The uncultivated state of many farms surrounding this magnificent waste, has been urged as an argument against its enclosure. It is supposed that farmers have more land than they can cultivate, and that adding to their enclosed grounds, would increase the evil. However specious this reasoning may appear, it is not true. The existence of the unenclosed land, is the cause of the surrounding farms being uncultivated, and therefore their bad state is an additional motive for the enclosure. Whilst the common continues, the adjoining farmers will, in general, consider their enclosed lands, principally, as affording winter-meat for their sheep, and that without care or culture; and their time will continue to be taken up in looking after their flocks. They now pay their rents from the sale of wool; but if the common was holden in severalty, the profit of the wool may be continued or increased, with every other advantage of good husbandry both to landlord and tenant. Whilst the common remains open, the landlords must be content with a very inadequate rent for their enclosed land, and without any consideration for their right of common.”

Chapter VIII. In this chapter is a list of the grasses and more rare plants which are indigenous in the county: some few particulars respecting their growth and qualities are added. This valuable list is supplied by Dr. Babington, of Ludlow.

Chapter X. *Woods and Plantations.*—These are numerous and extensive; notwithstanding the large yearly falls of

* It ought to be mentioned that in the parish where this plan was adopted, the price of labour in 1795 and 1796 was 9s. a-week: it is now 10s. 6d. The allowance will, therefore, bear some little deduction.

timber which take place. We accord in opinion with Mr. Plymley, that hedge-row timber is not worth cultivating: the shade, the drip, the fall of leaves, and exhaustion of nourishment by roots, combine to injure very materially the land in the vicinity of the hedges in which trees grow. "A singular custom prevails in this county which tends wonderfully to the consumption of oak timber, few persons consenting to bury their relations in coffins of any other wood: and, not content with this, the best possible pieces are selected for this purpose."

Chapter XIII. *Lide stock.* Mr. Plymley has with great propriety inserted the observations and experiments on *pithing* cattle, made by Mr. du Gard of the Shrewsbury Infirmary, and repeated by Mr. Everard Home. A case occurred to the former gentleman of a man who fell from a load of hay and fractured the second cervical vertebra; he complained of great pain in the upper and back part of his neck, that is to say, *above* the injured part, but was totally destitute of sensation below it; he languished a week in the full possession of the feelings and faculties of his mind and of his hearing, sight, smell, and taste. Mr. du Gard inferred from this case, that if a dumb animal were wounded in the medulla spinalis, it would suffer pain *above* the injured part, although it would not be able to express it by muscular action. He accordingly tried some experiments, and found that on puncturing the spinal marrow of an animal, although it instantly drops, apparently devoid of sensation, yet that it continues to breathe with freedom, that it will close and open its eyelids on the approach and withdrawing of the hand, and consequently that sensation is not destroyed in its head. Mr. du Gard's inference from the whole was, that the old method of slaughtering by a blow is attended with less pain to the animal; for notwithstanding its convulsions, the power of feeling is destroyed by the concussion which is given to the brain.

Mr. Home, to whom an account of these experiments was sent, repeated them, and the results were precisely the same. The fact, he observes, is, that the wound is made too low in the neck, namely below the origin of the nerves that supply the diaphragm; and that a divi-

sion of this part of the spinal marrow does not immediately deprive an animal of life, has been known to anatomists for many years. Mr. Home (in his letter to lord Carrington, quoted by Mr. Plymley) refers to some experiments performed by Mr. Cruikshank in the year 1776, at which he gave his assistance, which corroborated the opinion of Mr. Hunter that when the spinal marrow is wounded in the upper part of the neck, the animal dies immediately, because all the nerves of the muscles of respiration are destroyed; whereas in dividing it lower, we still leave the phrenic nerves, and the animal breathes by his diaphragm. Mr. Home closes his communication thus:

"Having explained the causes of failure in the present mode of pithing animals, it becomes necessary to state, that when the operation is properly performed, its success is complete. Of this I will mention the following instances:

"A small horse was killed in this manner, that a cast might be made of its muscles in their natural state of action. The animal was allowed to stand upon a pedestal, and the operation was performed by Mr. Hunter, with a large awl: the breathing ceased instantaneously, and the animal was so completely dead as to be supported by the assistants, without making the slightest struggle, and was fixed in the position in which he stood, without ever coming to the ground."

"A dog was killed so instantaneously in the same way, by Mr. Hunter, that Mr. Clift, the conservator of the Hunterian Museum, who held the legs, and did not see the awl introduced, was waiting till the animal should struggle, and had no knowledge of any thing having been done, till he was told to let go, and was surprised to find that the animal was completely dead.

"In these operations, the instrument was small, and directed by the skill of an anatomist upwards into the cavity of the skull, so as to divide the medullary substance above the origin of the nerves which supply the diaphragm.

"By adopting this method of performing the operation of pithing cattle, it will be attended with the same success."

Chap. XV. This chapter contains a very interesting and full account of the inland navigation of the county of Salop, comprehending a description of its canals by Mr. Telford, an engineer and architect of much celebrity. Five plates illustrate the description; one giving the plan and elevation of the inclined planes

* The cast of this horse has a place in the Hunterian Museum.

upon the Shropshire and Shrewsbury canal; the second giving the same plan and elevation with the application of the fire-engine; the third affords a perspective view of a part of the iron aqueduct which conveys the Shrewsbury canal over the river Tern at Longden; the fourth exhibits a plan, elevation, and section, of the iron bridge built over the river at Buildwas; and the fifth gives a profile of the gates at the seventeen-gate sluice.

Chap. XVI. *Obstacles to improvement.* Among these we are much of opinion with Mr. Plymley, that there is no greater than the want of capital in both landlord and tenant: he truly observes, that whilst so many wastes are unenclosed, and so many are enclosing, the experiment seems to be, how much land can be managed with a given capital. The time may come, he continues to

remark, when the object will be changed, and we shall have to see on how small a quantity of land a given capital can be beneficially employed: and it must be in this latter state of a country that agriculture will attain its perfection. The returns of agriculture, however, are too slow and too moderate to engage an adequate capital in this commercial country: the spirit of enterprize, indeed, ought not to be checked without much caution; at the same time it must be acknowledged that an excessive indulgence in it may convert us from a nation of merchants to a nation of gamblers.

We cannot close this article without stating that Mr. Plymley's survey is one of the best that has ever come under our inspection. To the fullest immediate information as to the subject, it adds much collateral matter of an interesting nature.

ART. III. *Georgical Essays; by A. HUNTER, M. D. F. R. S. L. & E. Vols. V. and VI. 8vo; about 570 pages each.*

WE can say nothing more of the present volumes than we did of those which preceded them (see Ann. Rev. vol. ii. p. 699.) Dr. Hunter has not distinguished the few, the very few original papers, as we suspect, from the many, the very many, which have already been

before the public in various works. The proportion of philosophic and scientific communication is somewhat larger in these than in the preceding volumes. Dr. Hunter's talents are respected as an author, and credit is due to his judgment as a compiler.

ART. IV. *On the Landed Property of England; an elementary and practical Treatise; containing the Purchase, the Improvement, and the Management, of Landed Estates. By Mr. MARSHALL. 4to. pp. 444.*

THERE are few individuals, we believe, who have had more ample and varied experience in the general superintendence of landed property than Mr. Marshall: his range of observation and practice has been extended over the greatest part of the kingdom, and his published accounts of the rural economy of different counties are generally acknowledged to be very accurate. The present work, overlooking a large share of vanity, some quaint expressions, and new-fangled words, is a valuable one; it could only have been produced by a man of judgment, cautious, if not in adopting theories, at least in applying them to practice. It may be considered as embracing a sort of digest of the author's county reports, omitting the minutæ of peculiar and local agricultural systems and operations, but explaining those general principles of improvement in the various departments which, wher-

ever they are introduced and understood, must establish scientific and productive practice.

After what Mr. Marshall calls an analytic view of the subject of his work, which is merely an enumeration of the different species of landed property recognized in Great Britain, and of the different tenures by which it may be held, we come to a practical division of the subject into three parts, namely, the purchase, the improvement, and the management, of landed estates.

1. Before a man purchases an estate, it is incumbent on him to be acquainted with the particulars which diminish or increase its value: such as its relative and intrinsic quality, its proximity to a town, market, &c. the general price of labour and of living; the spirit of improvement, too, which prevails in the neighbourhood, or the prejudice against it, is a circumstance very well worthy

of attention. If the former is in a progressive state, a rapid increase of rent may with well grounded assurance be expected; "whereas," to use the strange but forcible expression of Mr. Marshall, "under the leaden influence of the latter, half a century may pass away before the golden chariot of improvement can be profitably put in motion." The state of the roads, water-courses, fences, buildings, and the value of appurtenances, such as minerals, fossils, timber; and of abstract rights which arise out of appropriated lands, namely, those of commonage, seigniority, manorial rights, right of tythe, of advowson, &c.; these are enumerated and classified so as to be of very convenient reference.

2. On the improvement of landed estates. An exhaustless subject, which Mr. M. in his rage for division and subdivision, has split into ten parts, and these again into about ten times ten more! He has classed the different sorts of improvement of which landed property is susceptible under the following heads: 1. reclaiming watery lands; 2. the appropriation of commonable lands; 3. the consolidation of appropriated lands; 4. the laying out of estates; 5. — of farm lands; 6. — of farms; 7. the improvement of farm lands; 8. — of wood lands; 9. — of water; 10. — of mines and quarries, &c.

The first is an elaborate and excellent section: the subject is of the very first importance, and till within these few years has not been investigated in that scientific manner which was likely to give success to the labours of the agriculturalist. Water, like fire, to use a vulgar phrase, is an excellent servant, but a bad master: too much of it, and too little, are alike detrimental. In many parts of our coast the ocean is making rapid and alarming encroachments; and washes, fens, marshes, swamps, and morasses in the interior, occupy a very large and comparatively useless portion of the soil of this country. Much of this useless soil may be reclaimed by embankment and drainage, and the water in many instances, probably, instead of being an impediment to agriculture, might be conducive to its advancement. That which is drained from a meadow may be afterwards advantageously employed in overflowing it. The Chinese irrigate their arable land; we have still a lesson to learn from that industrious people. Mr. Marshall has

lately turned his attention to this subject: we shall be anxious to hear the success of some experiments which he has it in contemplation to try.

Our author's suggestions for the reclamation of morasses, and his theory of their formation, are worth transcribing; they serve to shew his mode of reasoning, and of deriving advantages from observing the operations of nature.

"In nature's process of converting stagnant waters into land, the state of morass may be termed the middle stage. Where the lake or pool is yet too deep for the taller aquatic plants, natives of the given situation, to reach the surface, the process is delayed; until a sufficient quantity of soil be brought from the neighbouring hills, in the running waters of heavy rains, to raise the bottom of the containing basin to the required height. But this being effected, the surface of the water soon becomes loaded with the foliage and fructifications of water plants, which may be considered as the tender germs or first rudiments of morass.

"By continued additions of fresh soil, the number, strength, and species of plants increase, until the surface is wholly occupied by vegetable substances, and the water disappears. The accumulation of alluvial and vegetable matter continuing, a tender crust or pellicle is formed of decaying vegetables, and the particles of suspended soil which adheres to them; and, as this increases in substance, mosses and the tribe of bog plants, or what might be termed superaquatics, assail it, occupy it, and at length gain possession of the surface, having in their progress destroyed their original supporters, and now luxuriate on their remains, in a state of vegetable mold.

"The stage of morass has now commenced: the area or space of surface is no longer occupied by water, or by vegetables, but by soil in its infant state; and whenever this earthy incrustation is confirmed, and not liable to be broken or disturbed by floods, the whole of the alluvial matter becomes deposited on the surface, and the growth of the soil is, in course, proportionate to the quantity of matter deposited."

"The means of improving the morass are pretty clearly seen in nature's method. Rich alluvion, namely, fertile soil suspended in running water, and let fall by it upon the site of improvement, is the most desirable mean, where it can be had in sufficient quantity.

"In a case in which well laden waters run through a morass, without depositing their treasures upon its surface, an obvious method of assisting nature (in cases, I mean, where given circumstances will admit of it) presents itself, namely, that of raising a dam across the lower end of it, and, by this simple mean, covering its surface in times of

floods with still water, thereby, if the area is large in proportion to the supply of water, arresting the whole of its contents, and spreading them over the field to be improved, at an easy expense.

"Again, in a case wherein a sufficiency of natural alluvion cannot be employed, but where, by the help of a dam, the surface of the moor can be covered deep enough with water to bear a flat boat across its area, earthy substances may be floated from its margins, and be spread over the surface mold. And there may be cases in which artificial alluvion may be formed and profitably employed, by loading a clear stream with earthy matter, and leading it judiciously over a moory surface.

"Another method of covering the surface of a morass with earthy substances remains to be mentioned. I observed it, many years ago, in the practice of a man who has done more real and substantial good to his country than all the state ministers of his time—I mean the duke of Bridgewater. In this instance of practice on a considerable scale canals were cut into the area of the yet tender morass, and earthy materials were conveyed in barges, and spread over the surface of the loose moory soil by the means of planks and barrows. The effect was extraordinary: the most worthless moor, on which a man could scarcely tread with safety, became in a short time meadow land, or grazing ground of the first value, notwithstanding the matter used was of the meanest quality. But its use was merely that of compressing and confirming the surface, so as to enable it to bear pasturing stock, the richness being given by the vegetable mold of the morass, which presently rose above the comparatively heavy materials that were spread upon it."

The effects of rain-water falling upon land, exclusive of the greater or less declivity and elevation of the latter, must, it is plain, be very different according to the greater or less degree of porosity in the soil and its substrata. Mr. Marshall has enumerated the varieties of land as they are formed by soil, sub-soil, and base. These, according to their united or individual retentiveness of water, must be differently treated in order to discharge any hurtful superabundance of it, or prevent the escape of what may be necessary for the purposes of agriculture. If the soil, sub-soil, and base, are highly absorbent and open, that is to say, if the surface and sub-strata are of so loose a texture as to afford no resistance against the rapid descent of rain water, the land will be always thirsty and infertile. If the soil and sub-soil only are absorbent, and the base repellent, the water may be saved; Mr.

Marshall recommends that, in order to do this, trenches, at proper intervals, should be dug across the descent of the land, and filled with earth of such tenacity as will check the escape of water without occasioning a discharge of it in the soil. Land, where the soil only is absorbent, the sub-soil and the base repellent, is, in its natural state, alike unfit for herbage and for culture, whatever intrinsic excellence the soil itself may possess. Narrow ridges, inclining gently across the slope, or under-ground drains in the sub-soil, are the obvious remedies. By the way, it may not be improper to notice here, a prejudice against small ridges, arising from the erroneous opinion that much ground is lost by them. At any rate, if numerous furrows in a field draw superfluous water from the ridges, and thus render them more fertile, they can scarcely be said to be unproductive. But the fact is, that the superficies of a level field is scarcely greater than that of the same field ploughed upon ridges, even deducting the furrows as waste ground. The convex superficies of a ridge is greater than that of its base, so that every valley has its hill.

If a repellent sub-soil intervenes between an open soil and an open base, drains may with much advantage be cut through this intermediate obstacle; the water in this case will be absorbed by the porous base, and the circumstance of being obliged to cut drains deeper than the outlets would fairly allow, must be of little consequence.

A great number of cases are enumerated by Mr. Marshall, and the evil and its remedy are illustrated by diagrams; without their assistance, indeed, any attempt to explain them would be vain; we must therefore refer to the volume. Those who are about to engage in this most valuable of all the improvements in husbandry, DRAINING, will refer to the recent publication of Dr. Dickson, to the papers of Mr. Elkington, Dr. Anderson, Mr. Johnstone, Mr. Wedge, &c.; these, and the general principles explained in Mr. Marshall, will afford them ample information.

The second section of Mr. Marshall's second division of his subject is on the appropriation of commonable lands. The self-complacency of Mr. Marshall is highly amusing. He begins thus: "To this subject I have paid more than ordinary attention, first at one time, then at another; the result of my former observa-

tions and reflections on the subject appear in the *Rural Economy of Yorkshire*, and the more mature arrangement of my ideas, &c. &c. in a pamphlet," which in short forms the substance of the present section. We cordially partake with Mr. Marshall in his earnestness for a general act for the appropriation of the forest lands, wastes, commons, &c. in Great Britain. The expenses of private inclosure bills are shamefully heavy: in the consideration of claimants, the officers of parliament ought not to have been overlooked in the draught of a general bill; those officers, as Mr. Marshall observes, are entitled to such an additional salary as may be deemed an equivalent for the loss of their fees; but that the fees of such officers should have been a penny-weight in the scale which contained the arguments against a general inclosure bill was discreditable to any one connected with a British senate.

If ever a general inclosure bill takes place, we should hope that not only the poor proprietors of cottages would be attended to, but their still poorer tenants, who lose the right—whether it is of real or imaginary value is indifferent to the question—of keeping a few geese, a cow, a horse, &c. on the common, and who, in exchange for this right, receive the empty consolation that they will have their share of the general benefit which will accrue to the country at large! To say that as the cottages are intrinsically of less value after this right is withdrawn, and that landlords must lower their rents, is idle: cottages in the country are now scarce, and every inclosure makes them still more so, because the additional land which is brought into tillage requires a proportionate number of labourers. Petty landlords will not lower their rents, because labourers must have a shelter for their heads.

It has occurred to us (and this is not the first occasion that we have taken to say so), that it would be advisable on every inclosure, whether by a public or a private bill, to have a certain portion of land set apart, two, four, six, or more acres, according to the quantity of land to be inclosed, and to build upon it a number of solid, convenient, and airy cottages. This land, and these cottages, should be vested in the hands of trustees, the lord of the manor, for instance, the rector of the parish, and the churchwardens and overseers of the

poor. The original expense of erecting these cottages might fairly enough be defrayed by the proprietors; the future repairs would fall upon the parishioners, which by thus making themselves landlords would in a great measure check the present general and increasing exorbitance of rent. It would at all times be their interest to let these cottages at a low rent: to say nothing of the better chance they would have of a regular payment by letting them low, they would thus, by assisting the tenant in obtaining his livelihood, prevent the necessity, perhaps, of his calling on them for relief in a manner more costly to them, and more degrading and injurious to him. It is obvious also, that if the parish let their cottages at a low rent, every other landlord must do the same, or he would never get a tenant till the cottages belonging to the parish were all occupied.

Section lii. On consolidating detached property. Mr. Marshall has divided this section into three parts, in which he tells us, with all the seriousness and gravity imaginable, that landed property, if scattered in different parts, may be "compressed into the required state," first by exchange, secondly by purchase, and thirdly by sale!

The fourth, fifth, and sixth sections, "on laying out estates and farms," contain a strange mixture of sense and nonsense; much advice that is useful, more that is superfluous from the self-evidence of its justness, and some that ought to be reprobated. Mr. Marshall is very angry that in this country some cultivatable lands should be covered with plantations: "in a country," says he, "which is unable to supply itself with food, it is a crime which might well be punishable: restrictions and imposts, which direct men to their own interest, cannot be deemed oppressive." The interfering and noxious tendency of these doctrines is too palpable and gross to need any comment.

"The first step towards the improvement of appropriated lands, after they have been freed from superfluous moisture, and brought into the most compact form, is to convert each part to its proper use." *Sapienter!*

"If an estate verge on a populous town, building sites, garden grounds, and paddocks, may greatly enhance its value." *Sapientius!!*

"If it border on a creek, an estuary, or a navigable river, kays and ware-

houses may not only be in themselves a source of profit, but, by bringing a fresh market upon the estate, may be of general service." *Sapientissime!!!*

Mr. Marshall discusses the oft agitated question concerning the eligibility of small or large farms, and acknowledging, as sir Roger de Coverley says, 'that much may be said on both sides,' he concludes very wisely, that things are best as they are: he chooses to assume, however, that no man ought to occupy more land than he can personally superintend. Why not? half the business of the kingdom is conducted by deputation, or half the capital of the kingdom would lie idle. Let farmers, like merchants, extend their business as far as their capital or their credit will allow.

The seventh section, on the improvement of farm lands, contains a body of sound practical information: it is split into ten principal divisions, and each of these again into almost as many subordinate ones. The principal divisions are the following: 1. "*Improving the atmosphere of bleak exposed lands by screen-plantations and fences.*" Mr. Marshall is not disposed to confine the good effect of screen-plantations to the shelter they afford to animals which may lodge immediately beneath them, and to their "breaking the uniform current of the wind, shattering the cutting blast," &c. but he believes that living trees impart an *actual warmth* to the air which surrounds them. "It is at least a probable truth," says he, "that where there is life there is warmth, not only in animal but in vegetable nature. The severest frost rarely affects the sap of trees." The principle of life, whatever it is, has the capacity of resisting certain degrees of cold; Mr. Marshall has confounded this capacity with actual heat. 2. "*Inclosing open grounds.*" By various sorts of fences. 3. "*Guarding river banks.*" A subject of great importance: Mr. Marshall has attended to it very carefully, and by means of diagrams has explained the application of the remedies which he proposes in different cases of encroachment. This division is a very valuable one. 4. "*Bringing wild lands into cultivation.*" Wild lands are considered as being either rocky and rough stoney grounds, woodlands, or morasses: the method of bringing each of these into tillage is enlarged on. 5. "*Changing the produce of reclaimed land.*" 6. "*Meliorating reclaimed land.*" The methods recommended are com-

prised under the heads of marling with raw fossil substances; liming with calcined calcareous earths; manuring with other gross substances; and irrigation. The three first of these subjects are treated in a desultory manner: Mr. Marshall has declined any discussion on the nature and operation of marl, lime, and other manures, confining himself to a few general remarks on their efficacy, and to practical instructions in the application of them. On the important subject of irrigation Mr. Marshall is copious and communicative: without the assistance of diagrams we should fail in the attempt to explain the different processes of applying superficial water to grass lands. These are necessarily different according to the degree of declivity or flatness, smoothness or unevenness of the land over which the water is spread.

"If the water to be used can be led, by a narrow channel with a gentle descent, to a sloping surface of grass land, a sufficient trial ground may be made at a small expence.

"Mark out a long square plot of a few perches in extent, on the lower side of a conducting channel, which ought, when it reaches the trial ground, to be brought nearly to a level. On the lower side of the site of experiment a deep drain is required, to catch and carry away the water that has passed over it; and at the ends also trenches are necessary, to prevent the water from straying over the adjoining surfaces, and thereby to render the comparison most striking.

"Fill the upper trench with water, until it overflow, evenly from end to end, and thus cover the ground of experiment with a thin sheet of running water, the face of the slope having been previously adjusted, so as to have rendered it smooth, and fit to receive the water.

"Begin to lay on the water in the beginning of November, suffering it to overflow ten to fourteen days, and then take it off. Repeat the same in the months of December and January. In the month of February give it two waterings, of five to seven days each; and in March three, of three to five days each, according to the state of the air, ever suffering the water to remain on longer in cool than in warm weather."

"If a sloping surface do not offer itself, or if the given stream lie too low to be conveyed to it, a trial ground may be readily formed out of a flat surface, in the following manner:

"In a favourable situation to receive the stream mark out a plot of groundward, two perches in length, and one perch wide. Roll back the turf, and form the soil into a ridge, resembling that which is represented in the next diagram, being careful in forming it

to keep the best of the mold still toward the surface, and leaving the open trench on the ridge eight or nine inches wide, and four or five inches deep, and nearly level; the end toward the stream being made somewhat higher and rather wider than the other, that the water may flow evenly over every part of the ridge. Return the turf, being careful to lay it evenly and firmly along the sides of the trench, and cut a drain on either side of the ridge thus formed, with proper outlets to carry away the waste water. Finally, raise a channel between the trial ground and the source of the water, to conduct it into the watering trench, and continue to adjust the ground, until the water will flow evenly over every part of it."

In many cases it is essential to economise water: on this account it is generally necessary that the declivity of the land, if artificial, should be made gentle; and if naturally rapid, that it should be counteracted by checks. If the water which is conducted upon grass land passes with a rapid current, the deposit of whatever fertilizing matter it may contain will be carried away by the stream; on the other hand, if the water remains stagnant, the natural herbage becomes languid, and yields to aquatics. The superfluous water then should pass in a thin, an even, but a languid current, and it is of the highest importance, that after it has performed its duty it should be made capable of being drawn off without delay. For the mechanical part of irrigation we must refer to the volume, or rather to the grass lands themselves (and they are numerous scattered over the country), which have received its benefit. 7. "*Watering live stock.*" There are different ways of supplying domestic animals with water, by conducting a stream, collecting rain water, by sinking a well, and by *artificial springs*.

"Seeing the formation of natural springs, and observing the effect of subsoil drains, and being, at the same time, aware of an objection to roof water, which though more wholesome, is seldom so well tasted as spring water, I have been led to the idea of forming artificial land springs, to supply farmsteads with water in dry situations, namely, by arresting the rain water that has filtered through the soil of a grass ground, situated on the upper side of the buildings, in covered drains, clayed and dished at the bottom, and partially filled with pebbles or other open materials, thus conveying it into a well or cistern, in the manner of roof water, and by this mean uniting, it is probable, the palatableness of spring water with the wholesomeness of that which is collected immediately from the atmosphere."

8. "*Improving homesteads.*" Hints concerning the reparation of walls, houses, &c. 9. "*Improving roads.*" Here we are plagued with a long and tedious division of roads into public roads, private roads, carriage tracks, horse tracks, toll roads, free roads, foot paths, and the Lord knows what! Oh! if Mr. Marshall had but considered that we poor bare-footed reviewers must travel and toil a wearisome pilgrimage over all his crinckum-crankum roads, he would surely, in mercy, have put by a few of them. This subdivision will afford some useful instruction to the surveyors. 10.

"*Improving markets.*"

Section viii. On the improvement of wood-lands; on which subject we are referred, as indeed we are at every other page, to some former publication of Mr. Marshall.

Section ix. On the improvement of waters. Our author suggests some regulations in the salmon fishery, which might probably render it more productive; a sufficient number of grown salmon should certainly be allowed to pass to their spawning ground, and the young fish ought likewise to be protected in their passage to the sea. We are not for multiplying penal statutes, but perhaps in the present case a national advantage might be produced without individual hardship. The subject of decoys and water-mills is touched upon in this section.

Section x. On the improvement of mines and quarries. The remarks here are few and insignificant. The section is closed with some plain and homely advice to inexperienced proprietors of estates respecting the business of improvement, suggesting the importance of mature deliberation, and of a careful and accurate comparison between the immediate and certain expence of alterations on a large scale, and the remote and precarious profit, &c.

We are now come to the third principal division of this work, which treats "on the management of landed estates." Here again, in his rage for a tiresome and petty classification, Mr. Marshall has given us half a dozen sections, with sub-sections and subter-sub-sections without end. Is this to impress the public with an idea of the author's powers for close reasoning and accurate investigation? Indeed it is very true that nothing is too trifling and contemptible to escape him. The whole of this third division,

except some remarks on leases, and some hints which may be serviceable to the manager of an estate, on the registering and auditing accounts, &c. is the mere idle prate which one would expect from an old woman. We have a stupid long-winded section on an *executive establishment* for the superintendence of estates! Managers are divided into acting managers, assistants, and the Lord knows what. We are told with a serious face, that the acting manager of an estate ought to be acquainted with the principles of agriculture, that he ought to be able to keep accounts, and that he ought to have a good character! A man of fortune ought to ride over his estates now and then, and inspect them with his own eye. Belonging to a large estate there ought to be a business room, a small anti-room, and a strong room, &c.! Mr. Marshall has told us what the furniture of this room should be, such as general maps, pocket maps, ten inches by eight—admirable accuracy!—rentals, books of accounts, &c. By a strange and very unusual oversight, however, he has forgotten to give directions for the size of the table, and concerning the chairs, whether they should be of mahogany or only walnut. A Rumford stove would be advisable: I. it would save coals; II. it would encourage an enterprising spirit of experiment; III. it would set a laudable example of economy. These main branches of the subject might have put forth a hundred tendrils. I. § 1. wear and tear of horses and waggons would be diminished; § 2. chimney sweeping; § 3. hearth brushes, &c. &c. Mr. Marshall has been guilty of an unexpected negligence also in omitting to state what aspect the room ought to have: he might have hinted, too, that there ought to be pins—wooden ones are the cheapest—inserted into the walls of the lobby for farmers to hang their great coats on; as to their hats, pins of half the length, and about two-thirds of the diameter, would do for them. There should be two scrapers at the door, and moveable ones are perhaps better than fixtures; for, in the first place, the former are usually of cast-iron; secondly, they catch the dirt as it drops from the boot; thirdly, they are easily lifted about, so that the dirt (noticed in § 2.) may be conveyed with very little trouble to the dung heap; in the fourth place, they are durable; and, in the fifth place, they are cheap.

We stated just now, that on the subject of the duration of leases there were some remarks which, though not very new, were yet very good. The value of money has been so much depreciated within the last twenty years, that men of fortune are reluctant to grant long leases; farmers, on the other hand, we all know, are very reluctant to take short ones, and Mr. Marshall has endeavoured to split the difference, by recommending leases for six years certain, with a condition, that if neither party gives notice to quit before the expiration of the first three years, then the term should be prolonged to nine years, and so on from three years to three years, until three years after notice has been duly given by either party to the other.

It appears to us that a tenant cannot be expected to engage in any large and expensive system of improvement on the assurance of so short a term of years as that which is here proposed. The only objection of any consequence against long leases is the apprehended depreciation of money during the term of it; and this objection, surely, is of all others the most readily removed. If two-thirds of the rental only was made payable in money, and the other third in corn (or any other proportion which might be deemed eligible), the difficulty vanishes. The landlord would thus have his rent rise or decline with the rise or declension of corn, and he might grant a one and twenty years lease with security and advantage both to himself and his tenant.

Mr. Marshall has closed his volume with three appendices: the first on the "disposal and harvesting of woodland produce;" the second on the "management of demesne lands;" and the third is a re-publication of "proposals for a rural institute, or college of rural economy."

On the whole we think Mr. Marshall's work a valuable one, and such as may safely be recommended to the attention of country gentlemen. It is avowedly an elementary book, and every grammar must have its a, b, c. It is written quite in the *magisterial* manner, and great care is taken to inform readers that the author has had very good schools in different parts of the kingdom, and that the rules now laid down for the management of rural affairs are those which long experience has shewn to be serviceable to his scholars in general.

ART. V. *Practical Agriculture; or, a complete System of Modern Husbandry; with the Methods of Planting, and the Management of Live Stock.* By R. W. DICKSON, M. D. 4to. 2 vols. pp. 1265.

TO give a summary of the contents of thirteen hundred ample quarto pages within the ordinary compass of a single article exceeds, we must frankly avow, our powers of compression; and to pronounce any definitive sentence on the merits of such a mass of matter, without examining with attention its component parts, and its aggregate composition, would be an act of glaring injustice: a general and indiscriminate verdict of approbation could confer no honour upon the author, and give no satisfaction to the reader; whilst a general and indiscriminate censure would justly recoil on our own heads.

In the present instance, however, the task imposed upon us is not so arduous, nor is the duty so delicate as might be imagined. A system of practical agriculture is not like an epic poem, where the author is responsible for all the *machinery* (if we may be allowed the use of an equivocal word, without suspicion of a pun), its structure, application, and advantages; a small proportion probably of the present work is the original production, using the words in their strict sense, of Dr. Dickson, who may rather be considered as the annalist of modern agriculture than the professor of it. Although the name of Dr. Dickson, however, may not, like the Tulls, the Elingtons, the Bakewells, the Kents, and the Marshalls, be familiar to every ear as an agricultural experimentalist, we are assured that his practice in the art has been extensive, and his observation, as well in other countries as in this, still more so.

Groaning, as the agricultural world does, under its numerous and heavy volumes of "Reports," "Surveys," "Letters," "Communications," "Economies," "Calendars," "Magazines," &c. &c. without mercy and without end! it will, at first sight, seem to many that the present work is an additional load which might very well have been dispensed with. Upon farther consideration, however, it may possibly appear to others as it does to us, that the very circumstance which obtruded itself superficially as an objection, is its real recommendation and advantage. It is *because* the works which treat on the different branches of rural economy are so volu-

minous, that such a comprehensive system of agriculture as that which Dr. Dickson has here presented us, is become valuable, not to say absolutely necessary.

The task has fallen into able hands: we do not mean to deny that possibly it might have been executed within fewer pages; but, if we consider the thousand volumes, among which the materials for its completion lay scattered, the necessity of comparing the results of different experiments instituted for the same purpose, and the difficulty of condensing the verbose and involved accounts which, in various publications, practical uneducated farmers give of their own operations, it is incumbent on us to grant the author every indulgence.

The present work is doubtless bulky—very bulky; but, after a patient and attentive perusal of it ourselves, we feel entitled to advise no one who is interested in the subject on which it treats, and who is desirous of becoming acquainted with its improved practice, and the scientific principles on which that practice is founded, to be discouraged by the formidable appearance it assumes. Although Dr. Dickson may be occasionally redundant, he is never defective: that indeed would have been unpardonable. So that the reader may turn to these pages with much confidence of obtaining information on whatever subject, connected with agriculture, either as a science or an art, he may seek it.

It is a great merit belonging to this work that the style is generally plain, fluent, and correct; alike remote from vulgarity on the one hand, and a hypercritical refinement on the other; it may be read by men of science without displeasure, and the most obtuse-headed farmer will rarely be at a loss to comprehend the author's meaning. Dr. Dickson has borrowed very freely from works of established reputation, referring to them at the bottom of his page; and in very many instances, where facts and operations could not be more clearly or succinctly stated, has, with great propriety, adopted the words of his several authorities. The engravings which illustrate the different implements of husbandry, sorts of stock, farm-buildings,

cottages, fences, &c. &c. are very numerous, and executed with great neatness and accuracy. The drawings of the natural British grasses are by Mr. Salisbury, the able successor to Mr. Curtis at the botanic garden, Brömpton.

Dr. Dickson has contented himself with dividing his work into two parts, the former of which is sub-divided into five sections, and the latter into eight. This is quite a relief to us, after having read Mr. Marshall's very expensive volume, where that gentleman has given about as many sections and sub-sections as his printer has pages. Dr. Dickson had taste enough, when he had finished his building, to take away the scaffold.

An idea of the arrangement which is adopted, will be given by a transcript of the heads of the sections. **PART I. Section 1.** Implements of husbandry. **2.** Farm-houses and offices. **3.** Farm cottages. **4.** Enclosing of land. **5.** Construction of roads. **PART II. Section 6.** Soil. **7.** Manures. **8.** Draining of land. **9.** Paring and burning. **10.** Fallowing of land. **11.** Cultivation of arable land. **12.** Cultivation of grass land. **13.** Live stock.

It appears from this arrangement that the first part is devoted to what may be called, in general terms, the machinery of farming. In the first section all the implements of husbandry which are in general or local use, simple and complex, from the hand-bœ to the threshing machine, are enumerated; whilst their construction and principles are explained, and illustrated by neatly executed plates. Plans and elevations, together with estimates of expence, are subjoined to the second and third sections, on farm-houses, &c. as well as engravings of the implements necessary for the dairy and other offices. After some preliminary observations on the general improvement which follows the enclosing of land, the different sorts of fences which are best adapted to different soils and situations are treated of, and illustrated by diagrams. The fifth section, on the construction of roads, is a very useful one: the subject, strange as it may appear, is comparatively new. Formerly, if one may judge from the obliquity of direction, disregard to level, and carelessness about form, materials, &c. &c. which are so obvious in old roads, there could have been no general and leading principles of construction. Much light has been thrown upon this subject by Mr. Beat-

son, in the first volume of *Communications to the Board of Agriculture*, and Dr. Dickson has very judiciously made ample use of that gentleman's ingenious paper. Roads, in order to give an easy current to superficial water, must either be formed with a convex surface, or having a level surface, with an inclined plane. When the road is necessarily narrow, the convexity, in order to effect its purpose of preserving the road dry, must be very considerable, and therefore inconvenient. Indeed, if we consider the elevated position of the centre of gravity in a waggon which is loaded *high*, with hay, wool, &c. and in stage-coaches which are loaded *high* with passengers and packages, the danger of overturning, where two such carriages are obliged to pass on a narrow convex road, is imminent. In such roads, therefore, the gently-inclined plane is surely preferable, grooves being cut at the bottom of the declivity for conveying superfluous water into the ditches on either side. Where roads are of the statute turnpike width, the convex surface is in every respect to be preferred. Mr. Wilkes, in communications to the board, has recommended *concave* roads: the advantages and disadvantages of each of these forms are fairly estimated, and the effects of wheels of various forms and sizes, cylindrical, conical, narrow, broad, &c. are considered in this useful section. Mr. Cummings, from whose communication to the board of agriculture this latter part is borrowed, decides in favour of the cylindrical, as having a constant tendency to proceed in a straight direction, whilst the conical rims have a natural tendency to revolve in a circular direction round their conical centres; thus requiring a constant force to counteract this tendency, and consequently presenting greater resistance, greater friction at the axle, &c.

The second part of this work embraces at once, and exhibits the connection between the theory and practice of agriculture. In the sixth section Dr. Dickson has endeavoured to classify the different sorts of soils; soils, however, are so infinitely diversified, not by their component substances merely, but by the proportions of those substances, and the different degrees of combination which take place among them, that the subject must ever baffle the most careful arrangement; so long, therefore, as chalky soils, clayey soils, loamy soils, and so on, are incapable of distinct and discriminative de-

tion, any general instructions for the improvement of lands which are usually thus denominated, must be received with caution. It is nevertheless true, that although clayey soils, for example, widely differ from each other, according to the nature and proportion they may contain of extraneous matter, still they possess more or less of one common quality, namely, tenacity or cohesion of their component particles. This must be overcome. Limestone-gravel is an useful application, and calcareous substances generally, where there is a want of the calcareous principle; and stiff clayey soils should be ploughed in autumn, as frost is peculiarly serviceable in destroying their stubborn texture.

Sandy soils are generally deficient in calcareous, and oftentimes in argillaceous and vegetable matter: these soils also, though differing from each other in many respects, and requiring some the application of calcareous, and others of argillaceous substances, have likewise one common defect, namely, the want of sufficient cohesion, and retentiveness of moisture. This may be counteracted in some measure by frequent folding, and the application of argillaceous matter.

The substances which usually compose what are vaguely called loamy soils, are clay, sand, gravel, and chalk, together with a small proportion occasionally of the calc, or oxyd of iron; but how is it possible to give any general instructions for the amelioration of a loamy soil, if such are its ordinary heterogeneous ingredients? The mode of managing it must surely be varied according to the predominance of the argillaceous, siliceous, or calcareous principle. Among loamy soils there appears to be no common quality to which any general instruction can be applicable.

The seventh is a very comprehensive and valuable section on the difficult and obscure subject of manures; it is introduced by the following remarks:

“From the changes that are constantly taking place among bodies in nature, and the new combinations which are formed in consequence of them, a great variety of matters are unfolded, elaborated, and prepared for the nourishment and support of vegetable life.

“Some of the substances which contribute in this way possess considerable fluidity and volatility, such as water, and various gaseous materials, as oxygen, hydrogen, azote, and

carbonic acid, in different states of combination; * and are chiefly formed and applied in the soils on which the plants exist or grow, and in greater or less proportions, according to the season of the year, the nature of the climate in regard to heat or cold, and the state or situation of the grounds in respect to its qualities; while others are more gross and heavy, and require to be applied and incorporated with soils, or spread out upon their surfaces, in order that they may produce their effects in promoting vegetation. It is principally to these, as being the means of sustaining different sort of plants as crops, that the term *manure* has been given by practical writers on agriculture, though it is extremely obvious that they must undergo different changes, and be resolved into their more elementary principles, before they can be taken up and contribute to the increase and support of vegetables. In the various materials which the art and industry of mankind have rendered capable of being beneficially employed in this manner, there is great diversity; some are found to yield the matters which are necessary for the support of plants, much more readily and more abundantly than others, as animal, vegetable, and all such substances as are rich in mucilage, saccharine matters, and calcareous earth, and readily afford carbon, phosphorus, and some aerial fluids, such as have been mentioned; while others, that are greatly deficient in all or many of these principles, or do not readily part with them, are found to be of much less utility, when employed in the way of manures. This is probably a principal reason why some sorts of manures, or substances, when put upon grounds, are so greatly superior to others, used at the same time, and in the same manner and proportion, a circumstance which is frequently noticed in the practical details of husbandry.

“There are, however, many other ways in which substances, when applied to soils, may render them more fertile and productive, and contribute to the aid of vegetation. Some, besides furnishing such matters as are suitable for the purpose of promoting the growth of plants, are known to add considerably to the quantity of vegetable and other matters contained in the soils on which they are placed, and thereby provide a more suitable and convenient bed for the reception of the roots of plants; others contribute little in this way, but operate chiefly upon such materials as are contained in them, breaking down their organization or texture, and thus setting at liberty different volatile and other ingredients, by which new compounds are formed, and brought to such states as are the most adapted to the support of vegetable life; others again act principally by producing certain changes and alterations in the constitution or texture of soils, such as rendering them more open and porous, or more stiff and com-

* Light, heat, and probably electricity, are also necessary to the growth of plants.

fact, and by such means bringing them into the most proper conditions for the bearing of different vegetable productions; and there are still others that contribute in all or several of these ways at the same time.

"From the great differences that are thus met with in the principles, or in the agency of the matters that are made use of as manures, it becomes difficult to adopt that sort of arrangement which may be of utility in practice. That which serves to distinguish, in some measure, the nature of the materials from which they are derived, would seem to be of the most advantage in the cultivation and improvement of land; hence they may be divided into ANIMAL, VEGETABLE, FOSSIL, SALINE, and COMPOUND MANURES."

Each of these species of manures are separately treated of, and all the information obtained concerning their nature and action, which the experiments of modern chemists have discovered. The writings of lord Dundonald, Darwin, Anderson, Tenant, lord Kames, &c. are freely consulted.

All animal and vegetable substances, on being deprived of their vital principle, have a tendency to putrefaction: animal matters, excepting indeed the horny and ossified portions, are more rapid in resolving into their primary principles than vegetables; they contain moreover a larger portion of saccharine and oleaginous matter than vegetables, and therefore in their ultimate decomposition afford a larger portion of nourishment for living plants. Manures, from the decomposition of fossil substances, seem rather to act a secondary part. Lime, when newly burned, that is to say, before it is saturated with the moisture and carbonic acid of the atmosphere, is remarkably active in promoting the disorganization of animal and vegetable substances. It is of singular use, therefore, in destroying the roots of plants which are imbedded in original uncultivated land, in peat-*earth*, &c.; and, although this destructive activity is considerably abated in the carbonate of lime, it is not extinct. Among the chemical and mechanical uses of lime in vegetation, Dr. Darwin, in his ingenious section on manures, (*Phytologia*, sect. x.) mentions its exhalation of the carbonic acid which it had absorbed from the atmosphere. When mixed with dry sandy soils, it first attracts moisture from the air above, or the earth beneath, and this moisture is then absorbed by the lymphatics of the roots of vegetables. Lime also, when mixed with clay, renders it less cohesive, and destroys any

superabundance of acid it may contain, and, by uniting with it, converts it into gypsum. When mixed with a compost of soil and manure, which is in the state of generating nitrous acid, Dr. Dickson suggests that it may arrest the acid as it forms, and produce a calcareous nitre; thus preventing its exhalation, "and its easy elutriation." Fresh lime also destroys snails, worms, and other insects, which abound in most soils. Lime, however, acts primarily as a manure (according to the same author), by its combination with the carbon of the soil in its pure or caustic state, or with that of vegetable or animal recrements during some part of the process of putrefaction, and thus rendering it soluble in water, by forming a hepatic carbonis. The carbon is probably thus made capable of being absorbed by the lacteal vessels of vegetable roots. The combination also of lime with carbonic acid, by rendering it soluble in water in its fluid state, without being expanded into a gas, may also enable the vegetable absorbents to take up a considerable quantity of carbonaceous matter. Chalk, again, has rather a secondary agency. Marle, indeed, the *shell marle* at least, is evidently, as Dr. Dickson observes, of animal origin, from its being composed of testaceous matters in greater or less degrees of attenuation. According to the earl of Dundonald, who is referred to on this occasion, the beneficial agency of saline substances in promoting vegetation is probably attributable to the different alkaline principles contained in them, to the facility and power which they possess of acting upon, and dissolving the parts of animal and vegetable matters, especially such of the latter as have been rendered insoluble by the absorption of oxygen, and by this means forming new saline compounds which are soluble.

Dr. Dickson has closed this section with some practical instructions for the formation of manures, by combining different substances, for the augmenting and preservation of manures; and lastly, for the application of them.

Section viii. *Draining of land.* The authority which Dr. Dickson has principally resorted to, and on which he has placed his chief reliance in treating on this subject, is Mr. Johnstone, whose "Account of Mr. Elkington's mode of draining land" has furnished a large portion of this section. Dr. Anderson also is often consulted; nor can the author of

Phytologia be forgotten by any writer on the subject of drainage. Mr. Marshall's work on the "Landed Property of England" was not published, we presume, when this section was written; but, among the numerous engravings which are given of draining implements, and in explanation of the modes of practice recommended, (and without these engravings it would be impossible to understand the instructions), several of Mr. Marshall's plates are copied, and referred to: it will be recollected that, in our review of Mr. Marshall's work, (see page 704), we spoke highly of his observations on draining. Many particulars require to be taken into consideration by the person who engages in this arduous, intricate, and most important branch of improvement. Dr. Dickson would, doubtless, have availed himself of a few plain practical instructions there given, had not his portion of his work been already printed off. Mr. Johnstone, however, was really almost exhausted—not to say *trained*, the subject.

Section ix. *Paring and burning*. An operation which has called forth the most antagonistic opinions: the subject has been of late years discussed with considerable eagerness; one party contending that it must be a desperate system, the future fertility of the land being sacrificed for two or three immediate crops; that much vegetable matter is consumed, whilst a barren, inert earth, is the miserable residuum: whilst another party oppose practice to theory, boldly and confidently appealing to facts, as well for the remote harmlessness of the operation, as for its immediate benefit. The arguments on both sides, scattered as they are through various publications, are in this section concentrated and placed in opposition to each other.

"The action of the fire during the time of the combustion, especially when carried to a great height, by forcing off and dispelling much of the moisture and elastic principles that they contain, as well as by reducing the proportions of vegetable and animal matters which may be mixed and incorporated with them, must have the effect of producing some degree of deterioration; while, by its conversion of the fresh vegetable products, as the different kinds of coarse plants and grasses, into ashes of an alkaline, saline nature, which, as has been already seen, possess the property of quickly rendering the portions of vegetable materials which may remain, pro-

per for supplying the nutrition of plants—and by combining oxygen with the argillaceous, earthy, or other particles contained in them, in such a manner as to be easily parted with during the incipient stages of vegetation, great advantage and improvement must unquestionably in many cases be produced. It would seem to be chiefly on the former principle that the crops are generally found to be so abundant after land has undergone this process; as the saline substance contained in the ashes, though frequently small in quantity, by bringing such parts of the soils as were not before in a fit state for the purpose of being applied to the support of vegetables, suddenly into that situation in which they may be taken up by the absorbent roots of the plants, a vast immediate fertility may be given, but which must soon have the effect of exhausting the ground, if grass or some other kind of green crops be not cultivated in due rotation upon it. That some effect of this sort takes place, in such cases, is shewn by the general experience of the most correct practical agriculturists.

"There is also another way in which the saline matter thus formed may be conducive to the purposes of vegetation, which is, by the great stimulus which it is known to afford to the roots of growing plants, by which they may be induced to take up a larger proportion of nutrient matters from the soils on which they grow. And on lands prepared in this manner, especially where they are of the clayey kinds, it is probable that in some instances so much oxygen may be combined, by means of the fire, with the particles of the clay, as, in particular situations and circumstances, to render it capable of forming nitrous acid;—as is the case with imperfectly-baked bricks,* which, where lime is made use of at the same time with the ashes, may constitute a sort of calcareous nitre;—a substance which experiment has shewn to be highly favourable to the process of vegetation.

"In the method of cultivating lands, by means of paring and burning the surface, such losses or deteriorations of soil as may be sustained, must evidently, as has been just stated, be produced by the quantity of vegetable or animal materials which may have been consumed or dispersed in the state of carbonic acid or other aerial forms; as it is sufficiently known, that not a particle of the real earthy matter of the land can be destroyed or carried away by the process; it being left in most cases, where the business has been properly performed, probably in a much more mellow and friable condition than it was before the commencement of the operation, and perhaps more suited to the absorption of elastic principles from the surrounding atmosphere."

The tenth section is on "fallowing

* See Darwin's *Phytologia*, p. 225.

land;" a mode of husbandry which we have not the least doubt is much more frequently adopted than there is the slightest occasion for, and which, whenever it is resorted to, without the most unequivocal necessity, is a loss at once to the individual and the community. By a judicious rotation of crops, land may be kept clean without fallowing, and imbibes all the advantages of exposure to 'summer suns, and winter snows.' When barley, oats, or any spring crop, is to be grown, the soil may be pulverized and aerated during the previous winter, by repeated ploughings, harrowings, &c.; and when that crop is taken off, (if the land was in a state unfit to be laid down with clover, or any artificial grass), it may, in the ensuing winter, be slightly ploughed, and left till the summer, in order to be prepared for a green crop, such as cabbages or turnips. The *theoretical* benefits which Dr. Dickson has ascribed to fallowing, are principally those which Dr. Darwin has suggested in his *Phytologia*; rather than repeat the theory we refer to the work; (*Phytol.* sect. xii. 1. on aeration, &c.) We believe that where, from the stiffness of the soil, green crops are unprolific, beans may be very advantageously planted. They will thrive on strong adhesive clays, and have an advantage which certainly but few crops can boast; namely, that of enriching the land which produces them. Beans are the only corn crop which *shed their leaves* before they are harvested: they cannot be too much forced; since the more luxuriant the crop is, the more vegetable matter, already in a state of rapid decomposition, is distributed upon the land; and distributed too with more evenness and regularity than the most careful workman could effect for the benefit of the ensuing crop.

A bean crop, moreover, besides its intrinsic value, bestows upon the soil some of the most vaunted benefits of fallowing: its roots destroy the tenacity of the most tenacious clay. If clay is pulverized mechanically by the plough, the harrow, or the frost, its component parts soon recover their original cohesion: *beans leave their strong tubular roots in the land*, which cannot regain its tenacity till their organization is destroyed; and when that organization is destroyed, the land still retains the vegetable increment, and is enriched with the manure. Dr. Darwin suggests that the lower leaves of the dense foliage of these vigorous vege-

tables give out carbonic acid by their respiration in the shade, similar to the respiration of animals; which, by its greater gravity than atmospheric air, is deposited upon, and becomes mixed with the soil.

Section xi. *Cultivation of arable land.* In this very comprehensive section Dr. Dickson has brought together, and arranged, a vast body of information derived from the scattered experience of numerous agriculturalists, in relation to tillage in general. He begins with considering the proper methods of bringing lands into cultivation which have never yet been cut by the ploughshare. The management of those which have already been in a state of tillage is next considered; and lastly, the re-conversion of arable into grass lands. Before land can be brought into a state of profitable culture, many preparatory operations are requisite; such as the removal of wood, shrubs, furze, stones, &c. &c.; lands require different treatment according to their qualities and situations, whether they are heathy, of a stiff, clayey texture, boggy, mossy, &c. These various methods of treatment are enumerated, together with the several authorities consulted, and are explained at large, till we come to the management of old arable land. No circumstance in husbandry escapes Dr. Dickson's vigilant researches and observation; all the different operations and modes of ploughing, harrowing, rolling, hoeing, &c. are described with accuracy and clearness; the circumstances to be particularly attended to in the performance of them; the utility of the operations themselves; the properest times to repeat them; the best constructed implements to effect them, &c. In respect to cropping, the culture of every different sort of grain, and green crop, is enlarged on, with instructions concerning its adaptation to different soils.

The conversion of grass land into tillage, and the re-conversion of arable into grass land, have, it is well known, employed the particular attention of the board of agriculture; and many excellent essays on this subject have been published in their "Communications" within these last three or four years. Ample advantage is taken of these in Dr. Dickson's work.

It is obviously of high importance to adapt the grass plants to the qualities of the land which is to bear them. Some grasses are more impatient of humidity

than others, and of course are only suited to dry soils: others delight in moisture, and are unable to resist the effects of heat and drought. Some bear cold better than others, and therefore may be safely sown on those high exposed situations, which would be fatal to the more tender sorts. Some grasses shoot early in the spring—an object generally of great consideration—some have a rank and exuberant growth, affording a large but coarse produce, whilst others spread themselves in a lateral direction, yielding less abundantly, but bearing grass of a more fine and delicate quality. In the vegetable world, too, as in the animal, the most strong and powerful will exercise their authority, and obtain a mastery over the weaker. Mr. Curtis (quoted by Dr. Dickson) has justly remarked, that in making experiments

“Persons are apt to conclude too hastily from the appearance which a plant assumes on its being first planted or sown; as the most insignificant vegetable will often make a great show, when its fibres have fresh earth to shoot into: but the trial comes when the object of the experiment has been in a meadow or pasture several years, when its fibres, from long growth, are matted together, and it meets with powerful neighbours, to dispute every inch of ground with it: if it then continue to be productive, it must have merit. It is well known, he says, that lucern, when left to itself, is soon overpowered; and if broad-leaved clover, which is undoubtedly a perennial, the first year be sown, a great crop is produced; but let the field be left to itself, and the clover, like the lucern, will yearly diminish,—not because it is a biennial, as has been often supposed, but because plants hardier, or more congenial to the soil, usurp its place: this shows therefore that at the same time that a good plant is introduced, it should be a powerful one, and such as is able to keep possession, and continue to be productive.”

It is scarcely necessary to say, that land which is intended for herbage should be perfectly free from weeds, should be very rich, and very finely pulverised. The natural grasses which experienced cultivators have found to possess, in the most considerable degree, some or other of the valuable qualities which have just been suggested, are the sweet-scented vernal grass (*anthoxanthum odoratum*); meadow fox-tail grass (*alopecurus pratensis*); smooth-stalked meadow grass (*poa pratensis*); rough-stalked meadow grass (*poa trivialis*); meadow fescue

grass (*festuca pratensis*); sheep's fescue (*festuca ovina*); hard fescue (*festuca duriuscula*); crested dog's-tail grass (*cynosurus cristatus*); ray grass (*lolium perenne*); meadow soft grass, or Yorkshire white (*holcus lanatus*); rough cock's-foot grass (*dactylis glomerata*); tall oat grass (*avena elatior*); meadow cat's-tail grass, or timothy (*phleum pratense*); yarrow (*achillæa millefolium*); white clover (*trifolium repens*); cow grass (*trifolium medium*); trefoil (*medicago lupulina*); rib grass (*plantago lanceolata*); grass leaved plantain (*plantago tenuifolia*); and burnet (*poterium sanguisorba*).

The following arrangement of grasses is recommended:

“*Clayey Soils.*—Marl or cow grass; rough cock's-foot grass; crested dog's-tail; meadow fescue grass; meadow fox-tail grass; rough-stalked meadow grass; tall oat grass; trefoil; meadow soft grass, or Yorkshire white; meadow cat's-tail, or timothy grass.

“*Loamy Soils.*—White clover; ray or rye grass; meadow fescue grass; meadow fox-tail grass; crested dog's-tail grass; poa, or common meadow grass; meadow soft grass, or Yorkshire white; meadow cat's-tail, or timothy grass; smooth-stalked meadow grass; sheep's fescue grass; hard fescue grass; yarrow; and lucern.

“*Sandy Soils.*—White clover; ray or rye grass; meadow soft grass, or Yorkshire white; sweet-scented vernal grass; sheep fescue grass; yarrow; burnet; trefoil; rib grass.

“*Chalky Soils.*—Yarrow; burnet; trefoil; white clover; saintfoin.

“*Peaty Soils.*—White clover; crested dog's-tail grass; rough cock's-foot grass; rib grass; meadow soft grass, or Yorkshire white; ray or rye grass; meadow fox-tail grass; meadow fescue grass; meadow cat's-tail or timothy grass.”

As with the natural grasses, so with the artificial ones, some are suited to one soil, some to others, and each has its peculiar excellencies. Those in general cultivation, are red clover, lucerne, saintfoin, tares, &c. Dr. Dickson has discussed the advantages and disadvantages both of the natural and artificial grasses, has given plates of them from the drawings of Mr. Salisbury, and enlarged on the culture and management of most of those of which we have had any experience.

The twelfth section is on “the cultivation of grass land.” The subject of irrigation is comprehended here: the authorities principally confided in are

Mr. Boswell, and Mr. Wright, and Mr. Young, who have written with great ability and precision on this useful branch of agriculture. Mr. Marshall's work was not early enough in its publication to be consulted by Dr. Dickson: these, together with one or two other treatises which we alluded to in our notice of Mr. Marshall's section on irrigation, embrace a satisfactory body of instruction as to the theory and practice of it. We could have wished Dr. Dickson, who has quoted a most remarkable fact relative to the fatal effects of watered meadows upon sheep in the autumn of the year, to have investigated the particulars minutely, and have endeavoured to account for so singular a circumstance as that the grass of watered meadows should be nourishing to sheep in the spring, and destructive to them in autumn. The fact alluded to is recorded in the Sussex report: "Eighty ewes, from Weyhill fair, were turned into some fields adjoining a watered meadow: a score of them broke into the meadow for a night, and were taken out in the morning and kept till lambing; they produced twenty-two lambs, all which lived, but every one of the ewes died rotten before May-day. The remaining sixty made themselves fat, nor could a rotten sheep be discovered among them."

The remaining subjects noticed in this section are principally, hay-making in every part of its process; pasture lands; the methods of managing them, and circumstances to be attended to in stocking and feeding them down; cow-keeping; manner of foddering the animals in winter and summer, by soiling or by stall-feeding; the various and most profitable sorts of food; suckling of calves; rearing them and weaning them; and the management of the dairy in general. Of the subject of planting (which is also introduced in this section) we are glad to see Dr. Dickson recommending that land which can bear corn should be made to bear corn, and that plantations, generally speaking, should be confined to those soils which cannot profitably be brought under arable cultivation. For what relates to the plantation of timber trees, Dr. Dickson is chiefly indebted to Mr. Nicol's valuable treatise on planting, and to a communication which we have read in the 7th vol. of the Bath papers, by Mr. Davis. On the management, &c. of the apple and pear, Dr. Dickson has with great propriety consulted Mr.

Knight's very ingenious and scientific treatise on the culture of those fruits.

The last section (xiii.) treats "on live stock," a subject which, of late years, has certainly received its full share of attention. The first noblemen of the land now divide their time between the senate and the sheep-fold, are as happy in the hog-sty as the drawing-room, and can examine the points of a bullock as dexterously and as knowingly as a Clare-market carcase butcher. Time may decide upon the degree of obligation we are under to gentlemen of rank and fortune who condescend to be umpires on the rival and disputed beauty of two Southdown wethers, or Herefordshire oxen. Zealous to promote the interests of agriculture, we have nevertheless our suspicions whether the public at large is benefited by the sale of a Leicester or Merino ram for a hundred and fifty guineas; nor do we see the advantage to be derived from making sheep and bullocks so fat—probably by the help of corn too—that no stomach but that of a Cherokee or a Bosjesman Hotentot can digest the meat from them. Mr. Bakewell, we believe, first introduced the fancy breeds of stock, and did unquestionable service in calling the attention of graziers to those qualities of disposition and shape, &c. which incline an animal to fatten on the least quantity of food, and in the shortest space of time, bearing also the smallest proportion of bone to the weight of its carcase.

The treatises which have been written on the methods of improving live stock by crossing the various breeds so as to supply the defects of one by the perfections of another, or by continuing to breed from the best and most perfect animals in the same "line, family, or blood," and thus uniting in the progeny the perfections of the parents; the treatises also which have been written on the properties to be considered in shape, size, tameness, hardness, early maturity, &c. &c. are almost innumerable. Dr. Dickson has evinced great industry in consulting, and powers of condensation in gutting the several authorities which are considered as worthy of esteem on the breed and management of oxen, sheep, horses, swine, poultry, and in short of every animal, immediately or even remotely connected with rural economy. An appendix, containing a compendious view of the principal laws relating to agriculture (selected and di-

gested by Mr. Walter Williams), closes these volumes.

We have now entered as much into the minutiae of Dr. Dickson's work as our limits will allow, and we gave our opinion on its general merits at the beginning of this article. It is clearly to be considered as a compilation, and in

this light we estimate its value highly: the possessor of these volumes will rarely have occasion to extend his inquiries beyond the limits of their pages, unless he is ambitious of entering with more minuteness into any particular branch of agriculture than the ordinary purposes of practice require.

ART. VI. *The Shooting Directory.* By R. B. THORNHILL, Esq. 4to. pp. 466.

THOUGH very villainous shots we are still fond of the sport: it is a great treat to mark the covey into a hedgerow, and pick up the birds singly; to see the busy spaniel wagging his restless tail, whilst the cautious pointer, breathless, yet afraid to breathe, draws upon the game, and his crouching companion backs him, motionless as a statue. We love the sport, though the rheumatism gets more hold of us now than it did some twenty years ago, and as we happen to have a merciless twinge just at this time, it is agreeable enough to accompany Mr. Thornhill, who is an excellent shot, over mountains, through woodlands, and among marshes, without stirring from the fireside.

Mr. Thornhill is full of anecdote as well as direction: in the breed and management of dogs, the choice of guns, &c. We must take for granted that his instructions, as they are derived from experience, may be safely depended upon. We shall content ourselves with inserting a few anecdotes and observations which throw light upon the habits and manners of some birds, and which, on that account, though extracted from a "shooting directory," are not unworthy the attention of the naturalist.

The grouse.—These birds begin to pair in January; if the weather is severe they collect in great numbers, thirty, forty, or fifty brace. Their principal food is the black whortle berry, the red whortle berry, and the common heath berry: they delight in the tops of heath, and are fond of gravelly ruts.

"When you intend to shoot grouse, you should be always guided by the barometer, for the birds can foresee bad weather and will shift their ground accordingly. When you are going out, and expect bad weather from the fall in the glass, you will usually find the birds about midway on the hills, and if it is very bad weather, the butts of the mountains are the places to resort to, but in fine weather they are near the tops; if you

are out in the morning, and you find them high, and in the evening very low, you may expect bad weather, except you have judgment to discern whether they are going to water or not. After grouse have fled in the morning, they regularly go to water, and therefore this time is the best to begin your day's sport; from that until twelve o'clock, and until the heat of the day comes on, you may have good sport, but after the scent sinks, and then, unless the birds are very plenty, your finding them is mere chance. When you are in a mountain, and beating at the dead time of the day, which is from eleven until three or four; hunt all the long deep black ruts you can find, for in these the grouse often shelter themselves from the heat; at this time of the day they also frequent mossy places; when you first find them, if you should meet with an old cock, (which you may know from the chucking noise he makes) if he goes off, it is a chance but he is an old stager, and that there are not any young birds at hand; but on finding the pook, he is generally the first bird that appears, and the first to take wing; if he has not been much disturbed, he will walk out before the dogs, making a chucking noise, and frequently gets up and shews himself, challenging the dogs, being seemingly under no apprehension for himself; by this he warns the hen and poults, which immediately begin to run and scatter, the hen generally runs down as far as she can from you, in order to draw you from the poults, if they are strong enough to shift for themselves, she will make off, and you may have good sport; for frequently it happens then that a sportsman will be able to pick up the birds one after another, as in the beginning of the season they lie very close, particularly if they hear the report of a gun, at which they are so terrified, as to lie until you can take them with your hand from under the dog's nose; you cannot, at this period, go over and round that ground too often, for they frequently escape dogs with the finest noses. When the birds are very young, the stratagem that the hen makes use of to protect the young ones, is wonderful; if she sees you coming she will get away from them directly, flying just before the dogs, making a dreadful screaming, and throwing herself on the ground with her wings extended, to all appearance as if

she were never to rise more ; but she always takes care that the dogs shall not come near enough to catch her ; at this time, the sportsman ought to draw off his dogs, and all that need be said, is, that a person who would fire at a hen, in that situation, would not be to be pitied, if his gun should burst. This frequently happens, at the time of breaking dogs on the moors, a practice that should not be permitted at this time of the year ; for it is astonishing to conceive, the number of young grous, that are generally destroyed by dog-breakers."

Grouse, like partridges, may be reared up so tame that when a dog is brought into a room with them, they will take not the slightest notice of him, or give any indication of fear.

Mr. Thornhill says, that at the pairing season, old cock-birds will drive off the young ones, and prevent their breeding :

" The late earl of Kingston, had a great quantity of grouse on his mountains in Ireland, before they were preserved ; who thought, by leaving them quiet for a couple of seasons, that he would have had an abundance, as he actually did not allow a shot to be fired on those mountains for two seasons, and it is well known they were carefully preserved : on collecting, however, a large party the third season, and going out to grouse, many of the gentlemen who had been in the habits of shooting there, prior to its being preserved, were surprised to find a great scarcity, the reason of which was, certainly, that the old birds drove the young ones off ; and all the mountains adjoining the earl of Kingston's, were swarming with game, although they had not been preserved. It is the same with partridges ; the late Colonel Hyde, of Castle-hyde, county of Cork, Ireland, who wished much to increase the breed of them on his grounds, pursued the following plan, which proved successful, having the desired effect. His game-keeper, in the early part of the season, netted a number of birds, reserving all the young ones with some old hens, and destroying all the old cocks ; he turned the young birds into a large place he had built purposely for them, and let them go again on the first of February following, and he had, in consequence, a great abundance about him."

The pheasant bears captivity ill : she lays fewer eggs than in her wild state, sits impatiently, and is less careful of her young. On the authority of a celebrated poacher, Mr. Thornhill tells us, that when pheasants roosting at night are fired at, the discharge of the gun alarms the cocks and they all fly away, but the hens remain, and allow themselves to be killed one after another.

" We are informed by Salerne, that the hen pheasant, when she has done laying, and sitting, will get the plumage of the cock, and after that, become so little respected by him, as to be treated with the same incivility as he would shew to one of his own sex.

" The circumstance of the hen acquiring the plumage of the cock, after a certain time, is not we find confined to the pheasant only : the instance of a pea-hen, belonging to lady Tynte, now or lately in the Leverian museum, evinces the contrary ; which, after having many broods, got much of the beautiful plumage of the cock, and what is more to be remarked, she had also the addition of the fine tail feathers : but their changes are said to be still more frequent, when these birds are in a confined state. The following curious circumstance, which happened within the memory of many of the inhabitants of, and near Bath, is well worth stating, respecting poultry changing their plumage. Major Brereton, of the above place, had a noted game-cock, entirely of a dark red, and after his great match, on which depended the sum of thirty-six thousand pounds, in hard cash, and winning the odd battle, he turned him to a walk, at a place near Bath, called Hogget's-bottom, the bird had not been long there, when the owner of the farm came to the major and informed him, he was all spangled with white ; in a few days after, when the major went to see him, he found him all over white, or, as it is termed by cockers, a complete sncock, not a red feather was to be seen. In the course of some time after, he resumed his former plumage. The major has his picture, which was taken at each time of his changing, and every feather, by the drawings, seems to have exactly preserved its own shape.

" A gentleman, who is a very particular acquaintance of the compiler (Mr. Tensdale, of the county of Lowth, Ireland) assured him, he had once a game hen, which changed her plumage every season : she was originally black, but every second year became white. He also added, that when she was changing her plumage, he observed its daily progress, which became more or less spangled, until the whole plumage was uniform.

" About a year since, a Mr. Law, of Sheffield, had a hen perfectly black, which has since changed her colour and plumage, and become perfectly white."

A milk white woodcock was shot (Jan. 1, 1804), by the gamekeeper of A. Ludlow, Esq. in the woods adjacent to Heywood-house, near Westbury, Wilts.—Snipes and woodcocks abound in Ireland : Mr. Thornhill says, " that if a sportsman is fond of cock shooting it will answer his purpose very well to take a trip" (to this seat as we conjecture of his birth,) there he will find plenty of cocks and plenty of claret ; it signi-

fies not one flash of the pan, where he goes, he will be every where welcome, and the longer he stays the more welcome will he be.

Mr. Thornhill says of the hare, that it lives in such a continual state of apprehension from its dangerous and innumerable enemies, that the poor animal cannot get fat. In hare-warrens, he informs us that the warreners stop the ears of the hares with wax, which prevents them from being alarmed at any sound: they are sure to grow fat in consequence of this fancied security, and "are often known to die from fatness." Before we had finished this sentence, we were struck with the remark that Providence should have afflicted any animal with such an anxious apprehensive disposition, that in the midst of abundance, it should not testify its enjoyment, as all other animals do, by thriftiness. The hare does not grow fat, and the reason is very obvious. Fatness would retard her speed; that speed which Providence has bestowed upon her as the only defence against her enemies: Hares, we have no doubt, enjoy good living, as we know that they will travel a long way to procure it: when they are preserved in covers or warrens, they grow tame and fleshy, in proportion as they are domesticated. In their wildest state they are found to be in good order, for the same reason, no

doubt, that in the most luxuriant pastures they rarely grow fat: namely, that a lean and weakly hare would be as little able to escape from the pursuit of dogs, as a fat one.

Mr. Thornhill says that a hare, when coursed, is not improvident or prodigal of her strength; she always pays attention to the force or swiftness of her pursuer, and regulates her motion and speed by his. If he is slow and sluggish she is not profuse of her strength, yet she takes care to avoid the clutches of her pursuer, and reserves her principal strength for the time of her greatest necessity. He assures us also that a hare can foresee the change of weather, and adapts her seat to it: if the weather is fine she sits facing the wind, and if she finds a change about to take place she will shift and sit with the wind in her back, and when started, will either run down the wind or sideways.

Mr. Thornhill has given an abstract of the game laws, with which professed sportsmen should certainly have some acquaintance. His observations on the construction of fowling pieces, barrels, breeches, locks, &c. and his remarks on the range of barrels, gunpowder, shot, &c. will be found useful.

The compilation is altogether entertaining, and we doubt not instructive to those who are ambitious of being good shots.

CHAPTER XV.

NATURAL HISTORY.

THE British naturalist will observe with pleasure, that in the course of the last year many valuable additions have been made to the natural history of his own country. Six of the articles in the present chapter relate entirely to British animals and vegetables, and several of the papers in the new volume of Linnæan Transactions have, as might naturally be expected, the same object. The field of general natural history has been also in some degree extended. Dr. Shaw's great work continues, as it began, to promise as complete a system of animated nature as the present state of our knowledge will afford; and, from the attention which is now paid to botany as a science in some of the universities of North America, we have reason to expect a growing acquaintance with the vegetable riches of its very various climates. We have the satisfaction to add, that every work which has occurred in the present department of our annual labours has received from us our cheerful tribute of honest praise.

ZOOLOGY.

ART. I. *General Zoology; or, Systematic Natural History.* By GEORGE SHAW, M.D. F. R. S. &c. Vol. 5; in two Parts.

IT is with lively satisfaction that we report to our readers the regular progress of our excellent English naturalist in his great work on the animal kingdom; and we think ourselves happy in the promise which it affords us that, for some years to come, each of our volumes, as it successively appears, will be enriched with the fruit of his skilful labours. The public are already well acquainted with the plan of the General Zoology, and have given decisive proof that they approve the manner in which it is executed. All that remains for us to do, is to state the steps by which it has advanced, and to make such observations as seem to ourselves likely to promote its nearer approach towards perfection. In a work of less merit we should be not solicitous to point out minute inadvertencies and deficiencies; but in the systematic natural history of Dr. Shaw nothing should be passed over as immaterial or of little consequence.

The fourth volume contained the first

three orders of fishes; the present one, which like all the others is divided into two parts, completes that great natural class. The first part is devoted to the order abdominales; the second, to the cartilaginei, which had been arranged by Linnæus with the amphibia, but have been brought back by Gmelin and others to the rank assigned them by former naturalists. Dr. Shaw, in concurrence with Gmelin, has placed them at the end of the class: the count de la Cèpede and other French authors at the beginning, preserving the order of succession, though not the systematic arrangement of Linnæus.

In the order abdominales, Dr. Shaw has retained all the Linnæan genera except teuthis, which had already been abolished by Bloch and Cèpede, and one of its two species, the *hepatas*, referred to *acanthurus*; the other, the *janus*, to *chatodon*, but Dr. Shaw doubts whether it be the *chatodon guttatus* of Bloch. The new genera introduced are an-

bleps, platystacus, acanthonotus, and polypterus; the first three instituted by Bloch, the fourth by Geoffroy.

Anableps in the present work consists of a single species, the cobitis anableps of Linnæus. Dr. Bloch has connected with it the heteroclitia; but this latter Dr. Shaw has continued under cobitis, at the same time expressing a doubt whether it be of that genus. Cope has formed, for it and the cobitis japonica of Gmelin, another new genus which he calls fundulus, expressive of its usual residence at the bottom of rivers, and analogous to its American name mud-fish; but this name would apply equally to all the species of cobitis. Generic names, when they are intended to be significant, should by all means be taken from some peculiar, discriminating circumstance. The two species of fundulus differ from their former congeners in being beardless, on which Cope has founded their generic character; but this is surely a distinction of too little value to warrant the formation of a new genus. Dr. Shaw, we think, has shewn greater judgment in keeping them, at least for the present, in their original situation. We even doubt whether the anableps itself should have been separated. The protuberant eyes with apparently double pupils, are certainly striking features; but if the single species in which they appear, be found to answer to the essential characters of cobitis, it is in our conception a legitimate cobitis, and the structure of the eyes will constitute an admirable specific difference.

Platystacus contains four species:—The first two were considered by Linnæus as one, and called silurus aspredo; and though Dr. Shaw has followed Bloch in separating them, he suspects that the difference may be merely sexual. All the species have the habit of silurus, and differ from that genus in having their mouth beneath, instead of terminal; their body depressed; and their tail long and compressed: characters which might, perhaps, have stood more properly as the head of a subdivision. The genus silurus is enlarged by eight species taken from Bloch and four from Gmelin, but is curtailed of the costatus, callichthys, and cataphractus, which are annexed to the genus loricaria under their former trivial names. The original loricaria cataphractus of Linnæus is divided into two, the accipenser and

dentata, both corresponding with his specific character, but differing essentially in the former being destitute of teeth. Admitting that the disposition of Linnæus ought to be altered, instead of introducing a new genus we should rather have abolished loricaria, and thrown all the mailed species into another subdivision. We are more rigidly scrupulous on this head, because we wish to do all in our power towards checking the prevailing rage for forming a new genus on account of one striking singularity; which in our judgment has a tendency not to facilitate, but to impede the progress of true science, and to bury it under an accumulated mass of hard names. The foreign naturalists, and Cope in particular, are in many cases inclined to make as many genera as species. In this abdominal order no less than forty-three new genera have been introduced since the year 1802, when the first volume of the Nouveau Dictionnaire was printed, of which thirty have been created for the accommodation of single species.

The silurus anguillaris, and undecimalis, are inadvertently ascribed by Dr. Shaw to Gmelin, though the specific characters are quoted precisely as they stand in the twelfth edition of the Systema Naturæ. A few more instances of the same kind occur under the other genera. We have pointed out the error, because we think it of importance to preserve the history of each genus, in order to ascertain the original idea of its founder, and to account for the alterations which, on the subsequent addition of new species, have been properly made in the generic character.

Under the genus salmo Dr. Shaw has inserted all the Linnæan species, except the anastomos, which he seems to have overlooked, with the addition of the cyprinus dentex and clupea sterculus of Linnæus, the clupea villosa of Gmelin, and various other species chiefly from Bloch. As far as we know, he is the first who has suggested a suspicion that Mr. Pennant has erred in supposing the gwiniad of the Welsh lakes to be the salmo lavarettus of Linnæus. We are a little surprised that when the suspicion had once occurred, it did not soon become a certainty. To us it appears abundantly evident that the gwiniad was unknown to the great Swedish naturalist; and that Mr. Pennant, anxious to find the fish of his native country in the

Systema Naturæ, eagerly seized on the correspondence in the rays of the branchiostegous membrane, and of the dorsal and anal fins, in addition to the silvery colour of the abdomen, as sufficient indications of identity; and without hesitation pronounced it the lavarettus; in direct defiance of that part of the specific character which attributes to the latter species a prolonged upper jaw. *Maxilla superiore longiore*, says Linnæus: "the head is small and very taper in front," says Dr. Shaw, "the upper lip being produced very considerably beyond the lower, in form of a bluish, fleshy snout, so that the mouth, which is small, appears placed beneath." This description is taken, as we presume, from Bloch; unfortunately the splendid work of the Prussian naturalist is not within our reach. It belongs exclusively to the real lavarettus; for Mr. Pennant clearly and decidedly says of the gwiniad that its nose is blunt at the end and its jaws of equal length. And with this account his figure exactly agrees. Dr. Shaw's, on the other hand, probably likewise copied from Bloch, coincides as exactly in this important feature with the description of the lavarettus. A slight inspection of both will be sufficient to convince any one, that they do not represent the same species. But independent of this decisive character, the magnitude and general appearance of the scales are strikingly different. In the General Zoology, the dusky speck at the base of each scale is a conspicuous distinction: Mr. Pennant does not mention it, and there is not a vestige of it in his figure. It is many years since one of our associates dined on gwiniad, at Bala, in North Wales. At that time engaged in the study of botany and *totus in illo*, he had paid no attention to ichthyology, and saw nothing in the gwiniad but a damper to a ravenous appetite, produced by a bleak ride of more than twenty miles over the mountains; but he well remembers that it was not strongly marked by black spots, and that he thought its general appearance aptly denoted by its Welsh name, which, as the landlord of the inn informed him, signifies whiting. The manners of the two fishes are, moreover, altogether unlike. Bloch's lavarettus and, as we take for granted, that of Linnæus, is a maritime species, which, like the common salmon, enters the rivers at the time of spawning, and forces its way up the most

violent streams; generally advancing in two ranges, and forming in front an acute angle, the whole conducted by a single fish. Dr. Shaw's abridged extract from the British Zoology may lead his readers to suppose that the gwiniad, at some seasons of the year, is also a maritime species. "According to Mr. Pennant," says he, "it is a gregarious fish, approaching the shores in vast multitudes in spring and summer." But the latter part of the sentence, which he has unluckily omitted, removes the ambiguity, and clearly demonstrates that Mr. Pennant had no such idea: "which proves," continues the latter author, "in many places a blessed relief to the poor of inland countries, in the same degree as the annual return of the herring is to those who inhabit the coast. It has long ago been observed by Camden, that the gwiniad never wanders into the Dee, and that the salmon never ventures into the lake: this must be allowed to be generally the case; but, by accident, the former have been known to stray as far as Llandillo, six miles down the river; and a salmon has now-and-then been found trespassing in the Lake." For this fact the authority of the honourable Daines Barrington is quoted, and the assertion was confirmed by the communicative Bala landlord, who knew nothing of Daines Barrington, and had no system to support. He added, what is not mentioned by Mr. Pennant, that the gwiniad has never been known to take any kind of bait, and can be caught only by a net, at the particular season when it comes in swarms to the borders of the lake. Upon the whole we are fully convinced that the gwiniad of North Wales, the schelly of Hulse water, and the ferra of the Lake of Constance, and other Swiss lakes, is the *salmo wartmanni* of Gmelin and Bloch, and specifically distinct from the *salmo lavarettus*; and we greatly regret that Dr. Shaw, not having due confidence in the soundness of his own discernment, has blended Pennant's description of the gwiniad with Bloch's of the lavarettus, and has thus drawn a picture which does not resemble either of the species.

Linnæus, in the generic character of *salmo*, ascribes to it teeth both in the jaws and on the tongue; but has, nevertheless, included in it several species, which he has thrown into a subdivision called *corregoni*; *denticulus vix corregonus*, one of which, the *silurus*, is specifically dis-

scribed *maxillis edentulis*. Mr. Pennant, judging that the qualifying adverb *vix* cannot be properly applied to those cases where the teeth are absolutely inconspicuous; and, perhaps, recollecting the maxim of the old logicians, *de non apparentibus & non existentibus eadem est ratio*; judiciously omitted that part of the generic character. But Dr. Shaw has restored it to its original place, and has, notwithstanding, admitted a section for such species as have inconspicuous teeth, in which he has placed several which are said to have no teeth at all. In this instance we cannot but allow that the count de la Cèpede has properly made the corregoni a distinct genus.

Acanthonotus differs from *salmo* in having no dorsal fin, but a number of strong short spines instead of it, with similar ones between the vent and the caudal fin.

To the two Linnæan species of *fistularia*, no addition is made, except the *paradoxa* of Gmelin, first described by Seba, and afterwards more accurately by Pallas; a native of the Indian seas, and apparently allied to the *syngnathi*, among the cartilaginous fishes. *Rostrum cylindricum*, *apice maxillatum*, is the most important part of the generic character in the *Systema Naturæ*: Dr. Shaw has translated it, but we think not with sufficient clearness, *mouth terminal*. Dr. Turton has been little, if it all, more happy. In his English edition of Gmelin he has rendered it, *snout cylindrical, jaws distant from the eyes*. It appears to us that *jaws at the end of a long cylindrical snout* would give a more precise idea of its form.

Polypterus, though it consists only of a single species, is well entitled to generic rank, on account of its single-rayed gill-membrane, and numerous dorsal fins. As it is one of the greatest novelties in this part of the work, and as Dr. Shaw's account of it is remarkably perspicuous and elegant, we shall transcribe the whole article for the gratification of our readers.

“*Polypterus*.

“*Mem: branch: uniradiata—Gill-membrane, single-rayed,*

“*Pinnæ dorsales, numerosæ—Dorsal fins, numerous.*

“*Nilotia Polypterus,*

“*Polypterus Niloticus. P. viridis, abdomine nigro maculato.*

“*Green Polypterus, with the abdomen spotted with black.*

“*Polyptere Bichir. Geoffroy, Annales du Muséum d'Histoire Naturelle, i. p. 57, pl. 5.*

“The fish which constitutes this new and highly remarkable genus, appears to have been first scientifically described by Mons. E. Geoffroy, who considers it as forming in some degree a connecting link between the osseous and cartilaginous fishes. Mons. Geoffroy's observations relative to its form and nature, may be found in the work mentioned at the close of the specific character.

“In point of general affinity, it seems most nearly allied to the genus *Esox*, and especially to those species which are furnished with large, strong, and bony scales. Its shape is long and serpentiform, the body being nearly cylindrical: the head is defended by large bony pieces or plates, and the body covered with large and strong scales, very closely affixed to the skin, so that it may be considered as in some degree a mailed fish: the pectoral and ventral fins, but particularly the former, are attached by a sort of strong and scaly base or cubit, allowing the same kind of motion as in those of the genus *lepius* among the cartilaginous fishes: the pectoral fins are placed immediately beyond the head; the ventral at a vast distance beyond it, the abdomen in this fish being of a very unusual length; the anal fin is scaled at some distance beyond the ventral very near the tail, and is of an ovate, but slightly pointed, shape; the tail, which is rather small and short for the size of the animal, is of a rounded or ovate form, and consists only of soft, straight, articulated rays, so dispersed in the membrane, as to allow but little freedom of motion in this part: at a small distance beyond the head, along the whole length of the back, runs a continued series of small dorsal fins, to the number of sixteen, seventeen, or eighteen, the number varying slightly in different individuals; each of these fins is of an ovate shape, erect, or but very slightly inclining backwards, and is furnished with a very strong spine at its base or origin, while the remaining part consists of four or five soft and branched rays connected by their uniting membrane: the first or spiny ray, at about two thirds of its height from the base, sends off a small secondary point or spine; the lateral line commences at a small distance from the gill covers, from which it slightly descends for a small space, and then runs straight to the tail: the eyes are small and round; the mouth of moderate width; the jaws furnished with a row of small, or rather sharp, teeth, and the upper lip with a pair of small and short tentacula at its tip: the vent is placed very near the tail, at the commencement of the anal fin: the branchial aperture is large, and, in place of a membrane, there is only a single bony plate, or semicircular arch. The usual length of this fish is about eighteen inches, and its colour sea-green, paler or whitish on the abdomen, which is

marked by some irregular black spots, more numerous towards the tail than towards the head. In the pectoral fins are usually about thirty two rays, in the ventral twelve, in the anal fifteen, and in the tail nineteen. The stomach is long and large, measuring about four inches and a half; the liver long, and composed of two unequal lobes; the swimming bladder double and loose; the ovaries long, and the eggs about the size of millet-seeds.

"This fish is known to the Egyptians by the name of bichir, and is considered as a very rare animal: it is supposed in general to inhabit the depths of the Nile, remaining among the soft mud, which it is thought to quit only at some particular seasons, and is sometimes taken in the fishermen's nets at the time of the decrease of the river. It is said to be one of the best of the Nilotic fishes, having a white and savoury flesh: and as it is hardly possible to open the skin with a knife, the fish is first boiled, and the skin afterwards drawn off whole."

We could have wished that Dr Shaw had given us at large the observations of Geoffroy on the form and nature of this remarkable fish, instead of referring to a French work which is not attainable by many who possess the General Zoology. On account of its single-rayed gill membrane, we ourselves should be inclined to agree with the French naturalist as to its proper situation in the system, and should place it at the latter end of this order, immediately before mormyrus.

The shorter upper jaw, attributed by Linnaeus and Pennant to the esox as part of its generic character, is properly omitted by Dr. Shaw; some of the species having the jaws equal, and others the upper jaw rather longer than the lower. The latter is said to be the case in the Cepedian pike, but in the figure it is evidently shorter.

Elops still remains with only a single species. No figure is given; though one might have been copied from sir Hans Sloane, Bloch, or Delaterville in the continuation of Buffon; or an original drawing might have been taken from the fine specimen in the British Museum. In a work like the present, one species at least of every genus should be figured; and particular care should be taken to render all the parts mentioned in the generic character conspicuous. According to Bloch, in *Nouveau Diction-*

naire, elops differs from salmo chiefly in the want of an adipose dorsal fin.

In the genus atherina, by some strange oversight, there is no correspondence between the letter-press and the figures. Five species are described, called by Dr. Shaw the *Mediterranean*, the *Jamaica*, the *Sihama*, the *Japanese*, and the *transparent*. Three are figured, under the names of *Commersonian*, *banded*, and *oily*. We have always lamented that the English, and not the Latin, names have been adopted by the engraver throughout the work. But hitherto we have always found it easy to refer from the description to the delineation. In the present instance, the English names of the author and of the artist are totally at variance. Nor is any assistance to be derived from the descriptions. The Mediterranean, or Hepsetus of Linnaeus, figured by Pennant, is certainly neither of the three figured in the General Zoology. The trivial name pinguis, given by Cope to the transparent of Dr. Shaw, would have induced us to refer to it the oily of the engraver, as they agree in the silvery transverse band of the pectoral fins: but the oily has two dorsal fins, and it appears from the description that the transparent has only one. As the transparent has been taken up by Cope from the MS. of Commerson, it seems not improbable that it may be the figured Commersonian; the single dorsal fin strengthens the conjecture, but there is no trace in the figure of the transverse band, which constitutes nearly all the specific character of the transparent. The situation of the ventral fins nearly under the pectoral in the figured oily atherine agrees with the described sihama; but the sihama also, as appears from Forskal, has only one dorsal fin.* In the English specific character of the sihama, the dorsal fin is by mistake said to have twenty-three rays. In the Latin it is rightly stated to be the anal. We learn from Forskal that the dorsal has eleven. As far as we are able to judge from the documents before us, none of the figured species are described in the work; and we can account for it only by supposing that the descriptions intended for them have been unfortunately overlooked by the printer, or by Dr. Shaw himself, in transcribing his rough notes.

In the genus mugil three species have

* This, however, admits of a doubt. According to the French naturalists, it has two.

been inserted since the time of Linnæus, which, in opposition to the generic character formed by him and continued by Dr. Shaw, have only one dorsal fin. The number of dorsal fins ought therefore to be no longer considered as essential to the genus, and if we may venture to give our opinion in opposition to prevailing practice, it should in no case aspire to a higher rank than the head of a subdivision.

Dr. Shaw considers the *exocætus volitans* and *evolans*, the only two species in the *Systema Naturæ*, as one and the same. For three out of four of the present species, excellent specific characters are drawn from the situation of the ventral fins, with respect to the middle of the abdomen: but if the figure be exact, he should have said that the ventral fins of the oceanic, his *evolans*, are much shorter, instead of much smaller, than those of the Mediterranean or *exiliens*. This, we apprehend, is merely an error of the pen; and we are persuaded that we shall not be charged with hypercriticism in pointing it out. We are far from doing it in the way of censure: we ourselves have too often experienced how difficult it is to keep our attention always alert during the tedious hours of transcribing, how easily one word may be written for another in a technical description, and how little assistance is derived from the general sense of a passage in the most careful revision for the purpose of correction. No naturalist who has written for the press, can possibly be severe on mistakes of this kind.

“—hanc veniam petimus damusque vicissim.”

The *os edentulum* of Linnæus is judiciously excluded from the generic character by Dr. Shaw, the mouth of the *exiliens* being edged on both jaws with minute pointed teeth. Much confusion would have been prevented in botany, as well as in zoology, if similar care had always been taken on the admission of new species. Generic characters, in most cases at present, incontestably are, and we believe must always be, in a great degree, artificial. They consist of select particulars which appear pre-eminent and entitled to distinction, and in which, for the most part, several species agree. But as they are formed for present convenience, they may always be modified, enlarged, or brought within narrower limits, as subsequent conveni-

ence shall render desirable. It is the work of a master genius to fix them on solid principles, and to construct them of such materials as are most important and least liable to change.

Dr. Shaw represents the genus *polynemus* as holding the same station among the abdominal fishes, as the *trigla* does among the thoracic; and resembling it in being furnished on each side, near the base of the pectoral fins, with several separate processes, or *articulated rays*. Linnæus, on the contrary, states that it differs from *trigla*, not merely in the situation of its ventral fins, but also in having the processes *not articulated*. Has the word *articulated* slipped from Dr. Shaw's pen through inadvertence, or was Linnæus mistaken? Nothing occurs in the descriptions of species to determine the point.

To the numerous Linnæan species of *cyprinus*, Dr. Shaw has added thirty-three new ones, from Gmelin, Bloch, and other late writers. He has thrown them into two subdivisions: the first containing those which are of a broad or deep shape; the second, those which are of a more lengthened shape. These characters do not seem to us happily chosen for the purpose, on account of the evident impossibility of describing a determinate boundary line between them. Linnæus has divided the species into the *bearded*, the *entire tailed*, the *trifid tailed*, and the *bifid tailed*. The fault of this distribution is, that the character of the first division does not exclude either of the other three. Cope de has distinguished them as having either four beards, or two beards, or no beards, and an entire tail, or no beards and a divided tail. It appears to us the best division of the three; but it would have been more logical if the last two had been thrown into one, and the shape of the tail been mentioned only in the specific characters. This large genus has been fortunate enough to escape the scalpel of the French naturalist. Even he, with all his rage for dissection, has left it entire. But if he had adhered to the principle which induced him to institute the genus *fundulus*, he would have split it into at least two genera.

The genus *mormyrus*, hitherto but obscurely understood, and differently disposed of by different ichthyologists, has been lately illustrated by Mons. Geoffroy; and, on account of its single-rayed gill membrane and want of gill cover,

made a connecting link with the cartilaginous fishes, among which Gmelin, differing from Linnæus, had before actually placed it. The two original species of Linnæus are increased to nine. They are all inhabitants of the Nile.

The cartilaginous fishes have been arranged by Dr. Shaw in a single order, without regard to the division into chondroptingious and branchiostegous, suggested first by Artedius, adopted by Linnæus in the earlier editions of the *Systema Naturæ*, but afterwards discarded, and at length restored by Gmelin and most other foreign ichthyologists. It has been much improved; and more clearly explained, by Cope; but as it still stands in need of elucidation with respect to some genera, it should not perhaps for the present be admitted into a systematic arrangement.

All the Linnæan genera are retained, with the addition of *gastrobranchus*, *spatularia*, and *cephalus*: but the *gastrobranchus* is only the *myxine glutinosa* of Linnæus, raised to a higher rank in the system. The history of this transplanted genus will be new to many of our readers.

"The fish which constitutes this genus has long since been described by Linnæus and others, under the title of *myxine glutinosa*, and considered as belonging to the tribe of *vermes*, in which situation it ranks in the latest editions of the *Systema Naturæ*. Dr. Bloch, however, from accurate examination both of its external and internal structure, has very justly considered it as a legitimate cartilaginous fish. The usual length of the European specimens is from four to six inches, but in the Indian Ocean it appears to arrive at a far superior size, nearly equaling in this respect the common eel. In its general appearance it bears a near resemblance to the lampreys, with which by Kalm, its first describer, it has been associated. It is remarkable for the total want of eyes, not the least vestige of any such organs being discoverable by the most attentive examination: the mouth, which is situated beneath, as in the lampreys, is of an oblong form: on each side are two beards, or cirrhi, and on the upper part four: in front of the top of the head is a small spout hole, furnished with a valve, by which it can at pleasure be closed; the teeth, which are situated very deep in the mouth and are of an orange colour, as in the lamprey, are disposed on each side into a double row, in form of a pectinated bone; each upper row consisting of nine, and each lower row of eight teeth, and in the middle of the roof of the mouth is a single, sharp-pointed, and curved tooth; no nostrils are discoverable; the body is destitute of scales,

lateral line, and every kind of fin, except the which forms the tail; this fin is shallow, and commencing at the lower part of the back, runs round the extremity of the body, and is continued beneath as far as the vent; the extremity of the body, where it is surrounded by the caudal fin, is taper or pointed: beneath the body, from head to tail, runs a double row of pretty conspicuous pores, through which, on pressure, exude a viscid fluid, and at somewhat more than a third of the animal from the head, are situated, beneath the body, the two spiracula, which consist of a pair of oval apertures. On laying open the fish, it appears that each of these apertures communicate with a series of globular red cells, or vesicles, disposed to the number of six on each side the body; every one of these twelve cells, or vesicles, communicates on its exterior side with another duct leading into the mouth; below these cells is situated the heart, which is of a roundish or but slightly cordate shape: the liver is large, and consists of two lobes, or divisions, of which the upper is smallest; the ovarium is of a lengthened form, and the ova appear to arrive at a very considerable size before they are excluded from the body, and it is doubtful whether they may not hatch internally, as in some other fishes, before exclusion. The general colour of the animal is whitish, with a dusky blueish cast above, and reddish towards the head and tail; the fin surrounding the tail part is yellowish brown.

"The manners of this fish are represented as highly singular: it is said to enter the bodies of such fishes as it happens to find on the fishermen's hooks, and which consequently have not the power of escaping its attacks, and by gnawing its way through the skin, to devour all the internal parts, leaving only the bones and the skin remaining. Another particularity in this animal consists in its uncommonly glutinous nature: if put into a large vessel of sea-water, it is said in a very short space to render the whole so glutinous, as easily to be drawn out in the form of threads; when taken out of water, the *gastrobranchus* is said to be incapable of living more than three or four hours. It is an inhabitant of the northern seas, and appears also to occur in those of the southern hemisphere, where it arrives at a much larger size. This idea is grounded on a drawing by Dr. Forster, in the collection of sir Joseph Banks, which appears to represent a gigantic specimen of the *gastrobranchus cæcus*. In the British Museum is also a specimen of equal size, but not in such a state as to admit of very accurate examination. Perhaps it may rather belong to a species, observed by Dombey in the South American seas, and described by Cope from the dried skin in the Paris museum. The head of this new species differs from that of the *cæcus*, in being rounded and broader than the body. On the upper lip are four beards; the number on the

lower uncertain, from the imperfection of the specimen; teeth pointed, compressed, triangular, and disposed in two circular ranges, the exterior of which is composed of twenty-two, and the interior of fourteen teeth; a single tooth, longer than the rest, and of a curved form, in the roof of the mouth, as in the European species: eyes and nostrils imperceptible: tail rounded at the extremity, and terminated by a very shallow fin united with the anal."

The new generic name well expresses the peculiar situation of the spiracles, but we question whether any advantage is gained by it, equivalent to the confusion unavoidably occasioned by a change of the ancient appellation. Against the new trivial name we must strongly protest. When the species stood alone, none was necessary. When a genus has only a single species, that species is sufficiently designated by the generic name, with the peculiar advantage of conciseness. In the present case the appellation *cacus* is descriptive, but it does not discriminate, and if it had not been already given, it certainly would not now be adopted. The same objection may possibly lie against the Linnæan *glutinosa*, but the impropriety has not yet been proved.

The grotesque genus *raja*, subdivided by Linnæus according to its teeth, as they are either sharp or blunt, is thrown by our author into four sections, founded on the general form of the several species, as they are either rhomboid, slender tailed, rounded, or lengthened. Its striking peculiarities are well described.

"This genus is distinguished by the remarkable breadth and thinness of the body, the pectoral fins appearing like a continuation of the sides themselves, being covered with the common skin; their rays are cartilaginous, straight, and furnished with numerous swellings, or knots; the teeth are very numerous, small, and placed in ranges over the lips or edges of the mouth; the eyes are furnished with a nictitating membrane, or skin, which can at pleasure be drawn over them like an eyelid, and at some distance above the eyes are situated the nostrils, each appearing like a large and somewhat semilunar opening, edged with a reticulated skin, and furnished internally with a great many laminated processes, divided by a middle partition; they are guarded by an exterior valve: behind the eyes are also a pair of holes, communicating with the mouth and gills; these latter, taken together, present a vast extent of surface: the young are contained in oblong square capsules, with lengthened corners, and are discharged at distant intervals, the young

animal gradually liberating itself from its confinement, and adhering for some time by the umbilical vessels. The rays in general feed on the smaller kind of crabs, testacea, marine insects and fishes; they are constant inhabitants of the sea, lying concealed during part of the winter among the mud or sand, from which they occasionally emerge, and swim to unlimited distances."

In the genus *squalus* Dr. Shaw has not adopted the division of the sawfish, the pristis of Linnæus and the ancients, into four distinct species, as suggested by Mr. Latham; and though he mentions the paper of that gentleman in the Linnæan Transactions, he has taken no notice of his proposal to separate them from the squali, and form them into a distinct genus, augmented by the cirratus, a new species from New Holland. He thinks, however, as Klein had done before him, that the long snouted sharks are considerably allied to the long bodied rays, and may be said in some degree to connect the two genera. In conformity with this idea, they should have been placed immediately after *raja*, at the head, and not at the end, of their own genus. In the account of the *Beaumaris* shark a supposed error of Mr. Pennant is corrected. "In the British Zoology," says Dr. Shaw, "the upper lobe of the tail is said to be ten, and the lower thirteen, inches long; but it is clear from the plate, engraved from Mr. Davies's drawing, that this is an error." We know not how the calculation has been made out, but the error is certainly not Mr. Pennant's, who says clearly that the upper horn, or lobe, of the tail in Mr. Davies's specimen was one foot ten inches, and the lower one foot one, sufficiently corresponding with the representation in the figure.

The new genus *spatulana*, polyodon of Cope, is allied to the sharks, especially those of the sawfish tribe, but is decisively distinguished from them by having a single spiracle on each side of the neck, with a large operculum or cover. The generic name is taken from its long spatule-shaped snout. That given it by Cope would have done equally well for *squalus*. It consists of one species, of which the particular history, and even the usual residence, are unknown.

Cope has also a new genus, which he calls *aodon*, containing three species, two observed in the Red Sea by Forskal, and the other described by Brunich. In

many respects they resemble the sharks, and were at first placed in that genus, but are incontestably to be separated from them on account, as the generic name imports, of their having no teeth. They seem to have escaped Dr. Shaw's notice.

The new genus cephalus has been instituted by Dr. Shaw, at the expence of the genera tetrodon and diodon, for those species in which the body terminates so abruptly as to resemble only the head of a fish. He formed it to avoid the confusion occasioned by a mistake of Linnæus concerning the true genus of the short sunfish, his tetrodon mola, which, according to his own principles of arrangement, ought to have been a diodon. It would have been easy to change its place; but another species of diodon has been introduced by Gmelin, with the same trivial name; "so that the restoring the short sunfish, even under a different title, would but have increased the confusion." We cannot think a difficulty of this kind a sufficient reason for the appointment of a new genus. But in the present case a much better might have been alleged. All the four species differ so essentially from diodon and tetrodon in the union of the dorsal, caudal, and anal fins, in the truncated form of their bodies, and their inability to inflate themselves at pleasure, that there can be no doubt of their right to constitute a separate genus. Cepede has suffered the short sunfish to retain its original place in the genus tetrodon, and, as usual with the French naturalists, has attributed the diodon mola of Gmelin to Linnæus.

To the genus syngnathus a very singular species is added, of which the following account is given.

"Foliated Pipe-fish.

"*Syngnathus foliatus*. *S. olivaceo-nigricans*, *albido-punctatus*, *appendicibus foliaceis*.

"Blackish-olive pipefish, with white specks, and leaf-shaped appendages.

"A most extraordinary species, far exceeding all the rest of the genus in the singularity of its appearance, which is such as at first view rather to suggest the idea of some production of fancy than of any real existence. In its general shape it is greatly allied to the sea-horse pipe-fish, but is considerably longer in proportion, or of a more slender habit: its greatest particularity however consists in the large leaf-shaped appendages, with which the back, tail, and abdomen are fur-

nished; these appendages are situated on very strong, rough, square spines or processes, and, were it not for the perfect regularity of their respective proportions, might be mistaken for the leaves of some kind of fœtus adhering to the spines. The colour of the whole animal is a dusky or blackish olive, (perhaps greener in the living subject), thickly sprinkled on all parts, except on the appendages, with small round whitish specks, and accompanied by a kind of metallic gloss on the abdomen: the fins are soft, tender, and transparent. This curious species is a native of the Indian seas. The specimen from which the description was drawn, and of which a representation is given in the work, was taken on the coast of New Holland. Nothing particular is known relative to its habits, or natural history."

Most of the other genera are considerably enlarged by the accession of new species from Bloch, Cepede, and others, which are described in our author's usual perspicuous and elegant manner: but they do not afford matter for animadversion, and it would be useless to give a mere catalogue of their names. We therefore take leave of Dr. Shaw for the present year, sincerely wishing him health and spirits to go through the remainder of the work. We observe with pleasure that as he proceeds, he not only feels more the strength of his own powers, but has almost entirely avoided the little inaccuracies of style which we occasionally remarked in the former volumes. But we are fearful that his general readers will think this part of it contains more of science than of entertainment. This was in a great degree unavoidable from the nature of the subject. Ichthyology, in most cases, admits only of dry description: for nothing more is known. We wait with impatience for the time when we shall have the gratification to accompany him into the fertile field of entomology, where wonders abound on every side, which cannot fail to fix the attention of the curious, which will liberally repay the labours of the most diligent inquirer, and which can never be exhausted by the unwearied researches of the most skilful naturalist. The animals, indeed, are minute, and cannot always be accurately described or seen without the aid of magnifying powers; but many of them are completely within our reach, and give us a full opportunity of observing their general economy, and of tracing their progress through the various stages of their being.

ART. II. *History of British Birds. The Figures engraved on Wood, by P. BEWICK.*
In Two Volumes. 8vo.

THE publication of the general history of quadrupeds in the year 1790, with figures engraved on wood by Mr. Bewick, forms a new æra in the history of the elegant arts. This kind of engraving was nearly coeval with that on copper; and, for some time after it was invented, was practised by several of the most eminent painters as an easy and expeditious method of multiplying copies of their works. Most of the earlier writers of natural history also employed similar figures of plants and animals. Some of these did honour to the artist: but the greatest part of them were rude and inexpressive, and could boast of no kind of merit. The superior beauty and splendour of copper-plate engravings gradually obtained a decided preference, and, during the greater part of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, wooden cuts were of little use but to embellish half-penny ballads and school-books for little children.

It was reserved for Mr. Bewick to revive and restore to its original dignity, a nearly forgotten art. Educated for the profession of an engraver, but endowed with a painter's eye, he could not confine his attention to the mechanical operations of his regular business; and though placed by the accident of birth in a provincial town, at a great distance from the capital and from extensive patronage, his native genius burst through every impediment and pointed out to him the way to celebrity and honour. His particular turn of mind led him to observe and to delineate the form and manners of the animal creation; and he soon found that the yielding consistence of wood is better fitted to express the ease, freedom, and spirit which ought to characterize portraits of animated beings than the stubborn surface of a metallic substance. He accordingly engraved wooden blocks of all the domestic and most of the wild British quadrupeds, and neglected no opportunity of drawing such foreign animals as were exhibited in the itinerant collections which visited Newcastle-upon-Tyne. These universally shew the hand of a master. There is in them a boldness of design, a correctness of outline, an exactness of attitude, and a discrimination of general character, conveying at the

first glance a just and lively idea of each different animal, to which nothing in modern times has ever aspired, and which the most eminent old artists have not surpassed. But Mr. Bewick's merits as an artist extend far beyond the simple delineation of the animal. The landscapes which he sometimes introduces as a back ground and relief to his principal figures, as well as the greater part of his numerous vignettes, have a similar excellence; and though the parts of which they consist are extremely minute, there is in them a truth and nature which admits of the strictest examination, and will be admired in proportion as they are more attentively observed and better understood. Many of them are adapted to the work, and exhibit several of our domestic animals in various situations and modes of action.

Mr. Bewick had no just reason to be apprehensive for his reputation as an artist; but he distrusted his talents as a writer. He therefore applied to a friend, brought up like himself to one of the more elegant manual arts, and possessing a taste congenial with his own. The descriptions which it was desirable, if not absolutely necessary, should accompany the figures, were drawn up by Mr. Beilby, chiefly from the works of Buffon and Pennant, but with the addition of so much original matter as clearly demonstrates, that the author has been accustomed to survey the objects around him with the ardour and penetration of a real naturalist. Urged to the study of nature by the impulse of native genius, he has readily seized those prominent features which group the distinct species of quadrupeds into large families, without tying himself down to any of the methods prescribed by systematic writers; and has produced, beyond all comparison, the best book which has hitherto been published in the English language for the use of young persons of both sexes in an early period of their education.

The work, when completed, was published at the joint risk of the engraver, the writer and the printer. And its success was such as from its various merits might well be expected. A second edition with improvements soon appeared, and a third was afterwards demanded. The authors, having thus abundant rea-

son to be satisfied with the fruits of their labours, were encouraged to proceed to another undertaking. In 1797 the first volume of the work more directly before us was published. The former was a general history comprehending all the known quadrupeds in every part of the world: but as Bewick's talents are best displayed when they are employed on living subjects, he judiciously confined himself to British birds, and as far as living ones are actually before him, his figures have all the spirit and characteristic expression which distinguish his former performances. This publication is also a partnership production. "While one of the editors was engaged in preparing the engravings, the compilation of the descriptions was undertaken by the other, subject, however, to the corrections of his friend, whose habits had led him to a more intimate acquaintance with this branch of natural history." The language and general composition are, therefore, avowedly Mr. Beilby's, and he modestly deprecates the "severity of criticism on the production of hours which could be spared from a laborious employment." But such a plea is by no means necessary. The general history of quadrupeds did him credit; and the history of British birds is in our opinion a much better composition. It has also more of a scientific form, and is drawn up with a stricter regard to the arrangement of other writers. In the interval that had passed since the first publication it is probable that both the editors had applied more seriously to the study of natural history as a regular science; and in particular had profited by the masterly works of Pennant and Latham. But they have too much genius to suffer themselves to be led in trammels, and not to follow the direction of their own judgment with respect to natural affinities.

The first volume contains the great division of land birds. In conformity with Linnæus, and in opposition to Pennant, the shrikes, on account of their natural propensities and modes of life, are placed in the rear of those birds which subsist by rapine and plunder; though in the opinion of our authors "they bear no small resemblance to the harmless and inoffensive tribes of the passerine kind."

The pies of Linnæus constitute a very irregular tribe, widely differing from each other in every respect except the

structure of their bill; and even in that the correspondence is founded on a character which has little or no influence on the general habits of the animals. We have, therefore, long wished to see it skilfully divided into two, so as to separate the parrot and the raven, from the bee-eater and humming bird, and to draw a well marked line between those genera in each section, which most nearly approximate to each other. As the heterogeneous nature of the birds in this order is less remarkable in the British than in some of the foreign species, nothing has been taken from it but the kingfisher, which, "as it lives entirely on fish, and is constantly found on the margin of still waters, may with greater propriety be denominated a water bird than many which come under that description." But in return an addition is made of the chatterer, the stare, the thrush, and the other British species of *turdus*, as more nearly allied to it than the birds of the passerine order. On what consideration this opinion is founded, unless it be their superior size, we cannot determine: but even if we set aside the configuration of their bills, most of them appear to stand, with at least as much propriety, where modern naturalists have usually placed them, at the head of the singing birds. The water ouzel, *turnus cinclus* of Linnæus, is removed to the water birds.

Our authors consider the snow flake, *emberiza nivalis* of Linnæus, and the tawny bunting, *montana* of Albin, as the same bird in its winter and summer dress, and suppose that the mountain brambling of Pennant, the lesser mountain finch or brambling of Willoughby, is also the same bird, in a somewhat different dress. Linnæus in the *Fauna Suecica* had made the second a variety of the first, with some hesitation whether it may not be a distinct species, acknowledging however that Leche had determined them to be the same; and to this decision he appears afterward to have fully acceded, for in the 12th edition of the *Syst. Nat.* the variety is omitted. Mr. Pennant in his *British Zoology*, vol. i. no. 121, 122, has separated them without assigning a reason, or noticing the different opinion of Linnæus, and has added the lesser mountain finch of Willoughby as a third distinct species. Mr. Latham has adopted the same opinion, and has added the following note: "Linnæus has comprized the whole of the foregoing (the snow bunting, the

tawny bunting, and the mountain bunting) under one species, our first mentioned, supposing all the others either in the summer dress, or in their approaches towards it. Mr. Pennant is of a different opinion, *from his own observations*; and we have not hesitated a moment to depend on so good authority." Our great ornithologist could not have had the British Zoology before him when this remark was made, and must have had a very imperfect recollection of what it contains on the subject. The fact is, that with respect to his tawny bunting, the 3 of the Fauna Suecica, Mr. Pennant relates nothing on his own authority, but the weight, and the measure, and the colours. The weight of the tawny bunting and the snow flake do not, according to his own account, materially differ: the measure of the snow flake is not mentioned; no comparison, therefore, can be made; and it is evident that the difference of colour, which is allowed on both sides, cannot decide the matter in dispute. With the breeding places and history Mr. Pennant confesses himself unacquainted. Of the lesser mountain finch he knew less. "We are obliged," he says, "to borrow the following description from the account of Mr. Johnson transmitted to Mr. Ray, having never seen the bird." Unfortunately for Mr. Latham's ready dependence on such good authority, Mr. Pennant himself soon after yielded to superior authority, and retracted his former opinion. In his Arctic Zoology, vol. II. p. 42, having given a description of the *emberiza nivalis* entirely corresponding in sense, though not in words, with that which is attributed to his tawny bunting in the British Zoology, he adds: "These birds have a summer and a winter dress. Against the rigorous season they become white on their head, neck, and whole under side: great part of their wings and the rump assumes the same colour: the back, and middle feathers of the tail are black. But Linnæus, who was very well acquainted with this species, says, that 'they vary according to age and season.' Mr. Graham sent to the Royal Society two specimens, one in its summer feathers, which exactly answered to our tawny bunting, no. 121; the other, to our snow bunting, no. 122, in the winter feathers. On this evidence, I beg the readers of the British isles to consider the above, as one and the same species."

After this detail, our readers, we doubt not, will agree with Mr. Beilby and Mr. Bewick in reducing the three species of Mr. Pennant and Mr. Latham to one. In making these observations we by no means intend to detract from the character of Mr. Latham as a naturalist. His merits are too well known for us to question their reality, and are far above our praise. Many an oversight like the present is to be found in the writings of the best authors. We only mean to point out the fact, and thereby contribute our mite towards the advancement of natural science. If our author's opinion stood in need of further support, it might be added, that Vieillot in *Nouveau Dictionnaire* has no doubt of the three being only one species. Part of Mr. Beilby's account of the tawny bunting is worth transcribing on account of the sensible and valuable observation at its close. "We are perfectly of opinion with Mr. Pennant (see Arctic Zoology), that this and the former are the same bird in their summer and winter dress. It is certain that no birds of the same species differ from each other more than they: amongst multitudes, that are frequently taken, scarcely two being alike. In the winter of 1778-9 they came in such multitudes into Birsá, one of the Orkney Isles, as to cover the whole barony; yet of all the numbers, it could hardly be discovered that any two of them agreed perfectly in colours. It is probable that the mountain bunting or lesser mountain finch of Pennant and Latham is the same bird in a somewhat different dress; it has sometimes been found in the more southern parts of England, where the little stranger would be noticed, and without duly attending to its distinguishing characters, has been considered as forming a distinct kind, and adding one more to the numerous varieties of the feathered tribes. We have frequently had occasion to observe how difficult it is to avoid falling into errors of this sort; the changes which frequently take place in the same bird, at different periods of its age, as well as from change of food, climate, or the like, are so considerable, as often to puzzle, and sometimes to mislead, the most experienced ornithologist; much caution is therefore necessary to guard against these deceitful appearances; lest by multiplying the species beyond the bounds which nature has prescribed, we introduce confusion into our system; and, instead of satisfying

the attentive inquirer, we shall only bewilder and perplex him in his researches into nature."

Our authors, by affixing the Linnean specific name *linaria* both to the grey linnet and the lesser redpole, seem to intimate that Linnaeus confounded them together. Certain it is that our common grey linnet was either unknown to Linnaeus, or that he supposed it only a variety of one of the redpoles. The lesser redpole is indisputably his *linaria*; but its size will not allow us to think it possible that he could suppose it the same as the grey linnet. The lesser redpole is said by Latham to be about half the size of the greater, and that to be rather smaller than the common linnet. It is the greater redpole, *fringilla cannabina*, which some of the French naturalists are inclined to regard as the common linnet in its highest beauty and perfection: Montbeillard, in particular, thinks it incredible that the grey linnet, if a distinct species, should not have been noticed either by Gesner, Olina, Linnaeus, or Belon, all of whom mention only the redpole. He asserts, moreover, that the brilliancy of colour by which the redpole is distinguished is most conspicuous at the time of pairing, and is greatly diminished or totally lost by such birds as are brought up by hand, and pass their lives in a state of captivity: that it is not possessed by females, nor by the males when young, or at any period of their lives during the season of moulting; that grey linnets, as is well known, are seldom taken in summer, and that, when thus taken, they are either females or young birds; and finally that no redpoles are seen in their gay livery from the time of moulting to the ensuing May. From all these facts, which he says are sanctioned by the authority of the most experienced dealers in birds, he concludes, that the grey linnet, existing as a distinct race from one generation to another, is entirely the produce of human interference, and the effect of an unnatural domesticated state. Brisson, Latham, and others, on the contrary, maintain that they are two distinct species, which, though in some respects resembling each other, have sufficiently distinguishing characters in their size, the colour of their eggs, the situation of their nests and the different tints of their plumage, especially in the blood-coloured spot on the forehead, which is said to be peculiar to the redpole.

In agreement with Pennant and Latham the proper wagtails are separated from the warblers, the remaining Linnean species of motacilla, now known under the generic designation, *sylvia*; a name given by Linnaeus to the white-throat one of the species.

The late Mr. White of Selborne, is, we believe, the first who mentions three distinct species of willow wrens, *motacilla trochilus* of Linnaeus. Mr. Markwick, in his notes on the posthumous works of that author, remarks that notwithstanding his utmost endeavours, he could never make out these three species. Mr. Bewick appears to have been more fortunate; for he assures us that he has procured specimens of each kind, taken at the same season of the year; and has had an opportunity of noticing the difference of their song. He has given descriptions of all the three, but has figured only the common willow wren.

To the gallinaceous order is annexed, in the present work, the land rail, corn-crake, or daker-ben, *rallus crex* of Linnaeus, as differing in all its habits from the water fowl, and being in the judgment of the authors, nearest allied to the quail. For the same reason there is also subjoined, under the English generic name, plovers, an assemblage of birds taken likewise from the grallæ or waders, and containing the pewit, *tringa* (not *fringella*, as misprinted) *vanellus*; the grey plover, *tringa squatarola*; the golden plover, *charadrius plevialis*; the dottrel, *charadrius morinellus*, and the ring plover or sea lark, *charadrius hiaticula*. The long legged plover, *charadrius himantopus*; and the sanderling, *charadrius calidris*, are left with the water fowl.

A separation of interests having taken place between the editors soon after the publication of the first volume, the compilation of the second, and completion of the work, devolved upon Mr. Bewick alone. This circumstance, added to the difficulty of procuring specimens of some species, has occasioned the long delay for which he apologizes to the purchasers of the former part. We are sorry to learn from private information that an alliance so honourable to the parties, and so beneficial to the public, was dissolved upon not the most friendly terms. Mr. Bewick, we understand, has purchased Mr. Beilby's interest in the concern; but through a disagreement with the other partner or his executors, the first volume has

for some time been out of print, and is not likely to be republished. We cannot but consider this as a public loss. Mr. Bewick has struck off an edition of the figures without the letter-press; but such an impression, though it may gratify the curious, cannot be used as a substitute for the original work in those places where we are most solicitous to have it introduced, and where it would be sure of a constant, regular sale, the numerous superior seminaries in which youth now begin to be taught the knowledge of things as well as of words, and in which they are furnished with mental resources and amusements which will never fail them, whether they are destined to a life of business or leisure, and are to take their place in the higher or middle ranks of society. As Mr. Bewick has republished the figures, his right in them must remain entire: if, therefore, he cannot come to a settlement with those who retain a property in the former volume, we trust that he will be induced to compose it anew, or in other words to make a compilation differing in form and language from the first. That he is equal to the task the second volume is a sufficient proof, which is altogether a respectable composition, and with the corrections acknowledged to be received from the hand of a learned friend, is certainly in regard to its style more accurate and elegant than some works in natural history that have come before us, from persons who have had the advantage of a liberal and classical education. The introduction to this volume is peculiarly excellent, and, if we mistake not, is indebted to more than the correcting pen of the reverend Mr. Cotes. We have seldom met with a passage which pleased us so well as the following, whether we regard the matter or the manner:

“The ornithologist, who does not content himself with bare names and appearances, in examining the economy of the various kinds of birds, and the structure of their several parts, will find ample room for the exercise of his labours in the most minute investigation; and although he can scarcely overlook the slow, and almost imperceptible degrees, by which nature has removed one class of beings from another, yet in his attempts to trace the relationship, or affinity, which one bears to another, he will, with his utmost care, find himself at a loss to ascertain that precise link in the chain, where the doubtful crossing line is drawn, and by which the various genera and species are to

be separated. But, however, after he shall have examined a few gradations, upwards or downwards, he will more readily discover the modes of life which the several kinds are destined to pursue; and their ability to perform the various evolutions necessary for the procuring their food in that exactitude to which the Author of nature hath formed them. In some of those which run on the surface of the soft mud, and can occasionally take the water, the indications of their ability for swimming are furnished very sparingly: these indications first appear in the breadth of the undersides of the toes, with the two outer toes joined by a small web. The scalloped membranes attached to the sides of the toes form the next advance: some are webbed to the nails, with deep indentations in the middle, between each toe; others have only 3 toes, all placed forwards, and fully united by webbed membranes: some have the addition of back toes, either plain, or with webbed appendages to each; and others again have the four toes fully webbed or together. The thighs, in the most expert divers, are placed very far back; their legs are almost as flat and thin as a knife; and they are enabled to fold up their toes so closely, that the least possible resistance is made while they are drawing them forwards to repeat their strokes in the water. Many of these divers are provided internally with a receptacle, seated about the windpipe, for a stock of air, which serves the purpose of respiration, whilst they remain under water: and the whole of the tribe of swimmers have their feathers bedded upon a soft, close, warm down; and are furnished with a natural oil, supplied from a gland in the rump. This oil they press out with their bills from a kind of nipple, and with it preen and dress their plumage, which is thereby rendered impenetrable to the water, and in a great degree, to the most extreme cold.”

At the head of the water birds stand the two British species of charadrius, which had not been placed with their Linnæan congeners, as the termination of the land birds, at the end of the first volume. We are almost inclined to think that Mr. Bewick's sentiments have since wavered on the subject, for he now says of the sanderling, *charadrius caladris*: “it wants the hinder toe, and has in other respects the look of the plover and dotterel to which family it belongs.” But if it be of the same family, it surely should have remained united with them. This circumstance, however, appears to have occasioned the removal of it and the long-legged plover from the particular situation in the series of water birds assigned by Linnæus to the genus *scolopax*, that they and their former congeners may be next door neighbours, though no

longer permitted to reside in the same house. The remaining rails, the porzana and the aquaticus, the latter of which in conformity with Pennant and Latham is considered as distinct in generic character from the former, are also brought forward, probably on the same account: but the common gallinule, *fulica chloropus* of Linnæus, is somewhat unnaturally left behind. The water ouzel and kingfisher, removed from the land birds, succeed. Of the nest of the latter the following curious relation is given.

"The author was favoured with a stuffed specimen of this bird, together with its nest and six eggs, by G. W. Wentworth, of Wolley-hall, near Wakefield, Esq. In the compactness of its form, the nest resembled that of the chaffinch: it was made entirely of small fish bones, cemented together with a brown glutinous substance." Of the truth of this account there can be no doubt; and it completely verifies the description of Aristotle, which has generally been represented as fabulous. Mr. Pennant remarks, that every one who has seen the nest of the kingfisher must have observed it strewn with the bones and scales of fish; but no modern writer that we know of, has said that the nest itself is composed of fish bones cemented together with a glutinous substance, a circumstance which in some degree assimilates it to the celebrated edible nest of the Chinese *hirundo esculenta*.—Whence this gluten is derived is an enquiry worthy the attention of the naturalist.

Our author not only agrees with Pennant and Latham in separating the curlews from the snipes, but is also inclined to make a distinct genus of the godwits. Mr. Pennant tells us that the flesh of the common curlew, *scolopax arquata*, is very rank and fishy, notwithstanding an old English proverb in its favour. Mr. Bewick supports the credit of the proverb, and shews, that, like most others, it has a foundation in truth.

"The curlew is met with by travellers in most parts of Europe, from Iceland to the Mediterranean islands. In Britain their summer residence is upon the large, heathy, boggy moors, where they breed. Their food consists of worms, flies, and insects, which they pick out of the soft mossy ground by the marshy pools, which are common in such places. In winter they depart to the sea-side, where they are seen in great numbers, and there live upon the worms, marine insects, and other fishy substances which they pick up on the

beach, and among the loose rocks and pools left by the retiring tide. The flesh of the curlew has been characterized by some as very good, and of a fine flavour; by others as directly the reverse: the truth is, that, while they are in health and season, and live on the moors, scarcely any bird can excel them in goodness; but when they have lived some time on the sea-shore, they acquire a rank and fishy taste."

The woodcock, as in the works of our other British ornithologists, stands at the head of the snipes; and in the present work, the knot, *tringa canutus*, on account of its resemblance to the woodcock, brings up the rear. The account of the woodcock is so well drawn up, that we shall make no apology for extracting part of it, as a valuable addition to our review.

"The woodcock measures fourteen inches in length, and twenty-six in breadth, and generally weighs about twelve ounces. The shape of the head is remarkable, being rather triangular than round, with the eyes placed near the top, and the ears very forward, nearly on a line with the corners of the mouth. The upper mandible, which measures about three inches, is furrowed nearly its whole length, and at the tip, it projects beyond, and hangs over the under one, ending in a kind of knob, which, like those of others of the same genus, is susceptible of the finest feeling, and calculated by that means, aided perhaps by an acute smell, to find the small worms in the soft moist grounds, from whence it extracts them with its sharp pointed tongue. With the bill it also turns over and tosses the fallen leaves, in search of the insects which shelter underneath. The crown of the head is of an ash colour, the nape and back part of its neck black, marked with three bars of rusty red: a black line extends from the corners of the mouth to the eyes, the orbits of which are pale buff; the whole under parts are yellowish white, numerously barred with dark waved lines. The tail consists of twelve feathers, which, like the quills, are black, and indented across with reddish spots on the edges: the tip is ash-coloured above, and of a glossy white below. The legs are short, feathered to the knees, and, in some, are of a bluish cast, in others, of a sallow flesh colour. The upper parts of the plumage are so marbled, spotted, barred, streaked and variegated, that to describe with accuracy would be difficult and tedious. The colours, consisting of black, white, grey, ash, red, brown, rufous and yellow, are so disposed in rows, crossed and broken at intervals by lines and marks of different shapes, that the whole seems to the eye, at a little distance, blended together and confused, which makes the bird appear exactly like the withered plants and leaves of ferns, sticks, moss and lichens, which form the back ground of the scenery

by which it is sheltered in its moist and solitary retreats. The sportsman only, by being accustomed to it, is enabled to discover it, and his leading marks are its full dark eye, and glossy silver-white tipped tail. In plumage the female differs very little from the male, and, like most other female birds, only by being less brilliant in her colours."

"The woodcock is migratory, and in different seasons is said to inhabit every climate: it leaves the countries bordering upon the Baltic in the autumn and setting in of winter on its route to this country. They do not come in large flocks, but keep dropping in upon our shores singly, or sometimes in pairs, from the beginning of October till December. They must have the instinctive precaution of landing only in the night, or in dark misty weather; for they are never seen to arrive, but are frequently discovered the next morning in any ditch which affords shelter, and particularly after the extraordinary fatigue occasioned by the adverse gales which they often have to encounter in their aerial voyage. They do not remain near the shores to take their rest longer than a day, but commonly find themselves sufficiently recruited in that time to proceed inland, to the very same haunts which they left in the preceding season.* In temperate weather they retire to the mossy moors, and high bleak mountainous parts of the country; but, as soon as the frost sets in, and the snows begin to fall, they return to lower and warmer situations, where they meet with boggy grounds and springs, and little oozing mossy rills which are rarely frozen, and seek the shelter of close bushes of holly, furze, and brakes, in the woody glens, or hollow dells which are covered with underwood: there they remain concealed during the day, and remove to different haunts and feed only in the night. From the beginning of March to the end of that month, or sometimes to the middle of April, they all keep drawing towards the coasts, and avail themselves of the first fair wind to return to their native woods; should it happen to continue long to blow adversely, they are thereby detained; and, as their numbers increase, they are more easily found and destroyed by the merciless sportsmen."

"When the woodcock is pursued by the sportsman, its flight is very rapid, but short, as it drops behind the first suitable sheltering coppice with great suddenness; and, in order to elude discovery, runs swiftly off in quest of some place where it may hide itself in greater security.

* In the winter of 1797, the gamekeeper of E. M. Pleydell, esq. of Whatcombe, in Dorsetshire, brought him a woodcock, which he had caught in a net set for rabbits, alive, and unhurt. Mr. Pleydell scratched the date upon a bit of thin brass, and bent it round the woodcock's leg, and let it fly. In December, the next year, Mr. Pleydell shot this bird, with the brass about its leg, in the very same wood where it had been first caught by the gamekeeper.—(Communicated by sir John Trevelyan, bart.)

"To describe the various methods which are practised by fowlers to catch this bird would be tedious; but it may not be improper to notice those most commonly in use, and against which it does not seem to be equally on its guard as against the gun. It is easily caught in the nets, traps, and springs, which are placed in its accustomed runs or paths, as its suspicions are all lulled into security by the silence of the night, and it will not fly or leap over any obstacles which are placed in its way while it is in quest of its food; therefore, in those places, barriers and avenues formed of sticks, stones, &c. are constructed so as to *weir* it into the fatal openings where it is entrapped: in like manner, a low fence made of the tops of broom stuck into the ground, across the wet furrow of a field, or a runner from a spring which is not frozen, is sufficient to stay its progress, and to make it seek from side to side for an opening through which it might pass, and there it seldom escapes the noose that is set to secure it.

"At the root of the first quill in each wing is a small-pointed narrow feather, very elastic, and much sought after by painters, by whom it is used as a pencil. A feather of a similar kind is found in the whole of this tribe, and also in every one of the tringas and plovers which the author has examined."

The specimen from which our author's figure and description of the scolopax calidris were taken, differed so little from the chevalier rayé of Planches Enluminées, the striated sandpiper of Pennant (Arctic Zoology) and Latham, referred by them to the tringa striata of Linnæus, that he has no doubt of their being the same species; and farther observes, that "ornithologists differ much in their descriptions of the redshank, scolopax calidris, and probably have confounded it with others of the red-legged tribe, whose proper names are yet wanting, or involved in doubt and uncertainty. Latham, he continues in his supplement, describes this bird as differing so much in its summer and winter dress, and in its height, as to appear to be of two distinct species. There is reason to believe that several species of the scolopax and tringa genera, which have not yet been taken into the list of British birds, appear occasionally in Great Britain; and that this circumstance, together with the difference of age and sex, has occasioned

much confusion." As a proof of this confusion, he introduces a tringa, which he calls erythropus, or red-legged sandpiper, which, as it is supposed by him to be new, we shall transcribe.

"RED-LEGGED SANDPIPER.

(*Tringa Erythropus*.)

"This bird measures, from the tip of the beak to the end of the tail, ten inches; the bill is an inch and three-eighths long, black at the tip, and reddish towards the base; the crown of the head is spotted with dark brown, disposed in streaks, and edged with pale brown and grey; a darkish patch covers the space between the corners of the mouth and the eyes; the chin is white; the brow and cheeks pale brown, prettily freckled with small dark spots; the hinder part of the neck is composed of a mixture of pale brown, grey, and ash, with a few indistinct dusky spots; the fore part, and the breast are white, clouded with a dull cinnamon colour, and sparingly and irregularly marked with black spots, reflecting a purple gloss; the shoulder and scapular feathers are black, edged with pale rust colour, and have the same glossy reflections as those on the breast; the tertials are nearly of the same length as the quills, and are marked like the first annexed figure; the ridges of the wings are a brownish ash colour; the coverts, back, and rump, are nearly the same, but inclining to olive, and the middle of each feather is of a deeper dusky brown; the primary quills are deep olive brown; the exterior webs of the secondaries are also of that colour, but lighter, edged and tipped with white, and the inner webs are mostly white towards the base; the tail coverts are glossy black, edged with pale rust colour, and tipped with white; but in some of them a streak of white passes from the middle upwards, nearly the whole length, as in the second figure. The tail feathers are lightish brown, except the two middle ones, which are barred with spots of a darker hue; the belly and vent are white; legs bare above the knees, and red as sealing wax; claws black. The female is less than the male, and her plumage more dingy and indistinct: an egg taken out of her, previous to stuffing, was surprisingly large, considering her bulk, being about the size of that of a magpie, of a greenish white colour, spotted and blotched with brown, of a long shape, and pointed at the smaller end.

"The foregoing figure and description were taken from a pair, male and female, which were shot on Rippengale fen, in Lincolnshire, on the 14th of May, 1799, by major Charles Dylke, of the Warwickshire cavalry, who also obligingly pointed out several leading features of these birds, in which they differ materially from the *scolopax calidris* of Linnaeus, called here the redshank, or pool-sniper. He says, 'this bird is a constant inhabitant of the fens, and is known to sportsmen by its singular notes, which are very

loud and melodious, and are heard even when the bird is beyond the reach of sight.'

"The description of this bird, which, it seems, is common in the fen countries, has been more particularly attended to, because it has not been described by any of the popular works on ornithology; at least, not so accurately as to enable a naturalist to distinguish it by the proper name."

Latham has a bird under the same name, taken up from Scopoli, the native place of which he says is uncertain, and which, as far as can be gathered from his brief description, does not appear to be the same with that described above.

In the whole of the Linnæan order anseres, Mr. Beilby follows the steps of Pennant and Latham, agreeing with them in the division of it into fin-footed and web-footed birds, and adopting all their alterations of the Linnæan genera. But he does not servilely copy their words, or confine himself to their matter. The greater part of the descriptions in particular are entirely new, and in most cases formed by himself from recent specimens. These, though little entertaining in a straight-forward reading, will always be esteemed of the highest value by the consulting student; and they fully prove the truth of an observation which he frequently makes, that ornithologists have hitherto relied too much on characters drawn from the plumage for the discrimination of species. The grand desiderata in this part of natural history are, a construction of genera, founded on permanent differences which regularly influence the animal economy and general habits of all their respective species; and a description of species confined to such particulars as are constant in their appearance, and common to all the individuals of both sexes in every period of their lives.

For the entertainment of our general readers we shall select part of the account of the tame duck.

"This valuable domestic owes its origin to the mallard, the last described species; but has long been reclaimed from a state of nature. Many of them appear in nearly the same plumage as the wild ones; others vary greatly from them, as well as from each other, and may be said to be marked with almost all colours; but all the males (drakes) still retain the unvarying mark of their wild original in the curled feathers of the tail. Long domestication has, however, deprived the tame duck of that keen, quick, and brightly look and shape which distinguish the mallard, and substituted a more dull, and less

elegant form and appearance in their stead. In the wild state they pair, and are monogamous, but become polygamous when tame."

"That these, and such like watery places, which their health requires for them to wash, dive, feed, rest, and sport in, are not better tenanted by these useful and pretty birds, is much to be regretted, and marks strongly a falling off—a want of industry* in those females to whose lot it falls, and whose duty it is to contribute their quota of attention to these lesser, but not uninteresting, branches of rural economy. Were this done, and ponds made in aid of the purpose in every suitable contiguous situation, there can be no doubt but that a multiplied stock of ducklings, to an inconceivable amount, might be annually reared with a comparatively trifling additional expence; for the various undistinguishable animal and vegetable substances upon which they chiefly live, and for which they unceasingly search with their curiously constructed bills, sifting and separating every alimentary particle from the mud, unless fed upon by them, are totally lost. When older, they also devour worms, spawn, water insects, and sometimes frogs and small fishes, together with the various seeds of bog and water plants, of which they find an abundant supply, when left to provide for themselves in those wet places.

"When they, with other kinds of fowl, are busily employed in picking up the waste about the barn-door, they greatly enliven and beautify the rural scene.

"A snug thack house, before the door a green:

Hens on the midding, ducks in dubs arg seen.

On this side stands a barn, on that a byre:
A peat-stack joins, and forms a rural square.†

"To this may be added, the no less pleasing peep at the mill and mill-dam, when well furnished with these their feathered inhabitants. The village schoolboy witnesses with delight the antic movements of the busy shapeless little brood, sometimes under the charge of a foster-mother, who, with anxious fears, paddles by the brink, and utters her unavailing cries; while the ducklings, regardless of her warnings, and rejoicing in the element so well adapted to their nature, are splashing over each other beneath the pendant foliage; or, in eager pursuit, snap at their insect prey on the surface, or plunge after them to the bottom: some, meanwhile, are seen perpendicularly suspended, with the tail only above water, engaged in the general search after food.

"Scenes like these, harmonized by the clack of the mill, and its murmuring waterfall, afford pleasures little known to those who have always been engaged in mere worldly pursuits; but such picturesque beauties pass not unnoticed by the young naturalist; their charms invite his first attentions, and probably bias his inclinations to pursue studies which enlarge and exalt his mind, and can only end with his life."

ART. III. *Lepidoptera Britannica; sistens digestionem novam insectorum Lepidopterum que in magna Britannia reperiuntur, larvarum pibulo, temporeque pascendi; expansione alarum; mensibique volandi; synonymis atque locis, Observationibusque variis. Autore A. H. HAWORTH, Linn. Soc. Londini-ocio, atque Prodromi Lepidopterorum Britannicorum, genu-que ad mesembryanthemum Observationum autore.*

IN our first volume we noticed the prodromus to this work, in which the author concealed his name, and announced himself only as a member of the Linnæan society. It now appears that this valuable addition to our British fauna is the production of Mr. Haworth, a gentleman well known to the lovers of natural history, who devotes a considerable portion of his time to this extensive and interesting science. When a person of independent fortune, instead of leading a life of indolence, dissipation, or vice, employs himself in studying the marks of infinite wisdom and goodness which are manifested in every part of the visible creation, we know not which we ought most to congratulate, the public or the

individual. Self-taught naturalists are often found to make no little progress in knowledge, and to strike out many new lights, by the mere aid of original genius and patient application. But the man who has possessed the advantage of a liberal education, engages in these pursuits with peculiar advantage. He takes more comprehensive views, is able to consult a greater variety of authors, and, from the early habits of his mind, is more accurate and more methodical in all his investigations. The world at large, therefore, cannot fail to be benefited by his labours; and the value of the enjoyments, which at the same time he secures to himself, is beyond all calculation. No tedious vacant hour ever makes him wish

* "The thirsty housewife is aye weel kend by her sonsy swarms o' bonny chucky birdies."

SCOTCH PROVERB.

† Allan Ramay.

ANN. REV. VOL. III.

for he knows not what—complain, he knows not why. Never does a restless impatience at having nothing to do, compel him to seek a momentary stimulus to his dormant powers in the tumultuous pleasures of the intoxicating cup, or the agitating suspense of the game of chance. Whether he be at home or abroad, in every different climate, and in every season of the year, universal nature is before him, and invites him to a banquet richly replenished with whatever can invigorate his understanding, or gratify his mental taste. The earth on which he treads, the air in which he moves, the sea along whose margin he walks, all teem with objects which keep his attention perpetually awake, excite him to healthful activity, and charm him with an ever varying succession of the beautiful, the wonderful, the useful, and the new. And if, in conformity with the direct tendency of such occupations, he rise from the creature to the creator, and consider the duties which naturally result from his own situation and rank in this vast system of being, he will derive as much satisfaction from the anticipation of the future, as from the experience of the present and the recollection of the past. The mind of the pious naturalist is always cheerful, always animated with the noblest and most benign feelings. Every repeated observation, every unexpected discovery, directs his thoughts to the great source of all order, and all good; and harmonizes all his faculties with the general voice of nature:

“——The men

Whom nature's works can charm, with God himself

Hold converse; grow familiar, day by day,
With his conceptions, act upon his plan,
And form to his the relish of their souls.”

Such a man is the author of the present work. “Many years,” he tells us, “have now elapsed since, with enthusiastic pleasure, he began to collect, arrange, and describe the natural productions of this our fertile and happy island; but more especially its birds, insects, and vegetables. For these purposes he has diligently examined many parts of England personally, and usually on foot and alone; but sometimes accompanied with pedestrian friends of congenial sentiments and taste. Industrious has he sought, and never once in vain, a great variety of woods and lawns, hills and vales, marshes and fens; one summer

only, travelling in various journeys, not fewer than a thousand miles, in spite of heat and cold, wet and drought, and various other concomitant impediments.”

While he was thus employed he was desirous to become, like the late excellent Stillingfleet, “thoroughly imbued in divine philosophy, and to obtain an insight into the uses of every part of natural history, that he might give a sanction to those studies, which, by trivial observers, are held most contemptible.” And with this view he adopts the beautiful apostrophe of that great and amiable naturalist;

“Almighty Being!

Cause and support of all things, can I view
These objects of my wonder; can I feel
These fine sensations, and not think of thee?”

As a specimen of the manner in which he combines the sublime disquisitions of religion with his researches into natural science, we shall transcribe part of his observations on the hombyx lanestrus.

“The parental cares of nature, which are so conspicuously manifested towards the most insignificant of her productions, (if any can be called such), are extended towards this poor insect in a very extraordinary and interesting manner. Doomed to a regular appearance in the winged state at the termination of the cold, and ungenial month of February. Nature (that it may not fail and become extinct) reserves a small portion of it annually in the puppa state, until the February following that of its puppation, and sometimes even until the third occurrence of that frigid month; denying their emancipation all the intermediate time, and thus effectually securing, by these unusual means, the safety and perpetuation of an animal, small it is true, but whose annual existence at that inclement season in the winged state is probably of more consequence in the efficacy of its great creator's plans, than we are at present aware of, although he constantly exposes it to the dangerous vicissitudes of winter.

“This insect is probably of great service to many of our soft-billed birds, at a season when little and insufficient quantities of food are to be procured; especially in severe and rigorous winters, in which the ground remains a long time covered with snow, when the poor birds and some other species of lepidoptera, (as well as escaped from the puppa), stick torpid in the trunks of trees, where these birds readily find, and devour them; and thus escape from hunger at a time when worms or other terrestrial food are either difficult or impossible for them to procure. These birds, thus saved,

are of incalculable service the following spring, in restraining within due limits the insect despoilers of the vegetable kingdom; during which, they never fail to cheer us with their charming songs, and lessen the destructive number of caterpillars in our orchards and gardens, until in their turn they become the prey—the necessary prey, of some insidious weasel, or birds more powerful and rapacious than themselves. I repeat necessary prey, because they themselves would become too numerous if never destroyed: to the total extirpation of various insects, whose existence in the scale of beings is as essential as their own, to keep within appropriate bounds certain vegetables, which otherwise would multiply to the total exclusion of other weaker and smaller, but equally necessary species; and so on *ad infinitum*: until at length the head, and prince and king of all created beings, man himself, would feel the chasm and experience inevitable woe.

“When an Aurelian possesses a brood of this moth, he readily learns, on the arrival of the month of February, which of his *pupæ* will become winged that year. This always happens to by far the greater number, and its approach is denoted by the swelling of the tæts of the pupæ. Those which are intended to rest until another season, do not swell until that season approaches. How is this swelling accomplished, and whence is the additional matter (if any) acquired? Or, is the swelling only a dilatation of the substance already there, and from what cause? It cannot be heat, because all the pupæ, those which do not, as well as those which do swell, are kept in an equal temperature, and experience the very same treatment. Perhaps they are endowed *ab ovo* by some differing principles, which require the differing periods of one, two, and three seasons, to ripen them, and bring them to complete maturity, and render them capable of accomplishing the full intentions of their beneficent creator.”

In our review of the *Prodromus* we gave a sketch of the general plan which Mr. Haworth has adopted to facilitate the investigation of the British lepidoptera. In the mature work he has advanced beyond his own original conceptions, and as made a few more deviations from theomenclature and arrangement of Linnæus. That our readers may form a 1st idea of the whole, we shall lay before them his divisions, with their several characters; and, as we cannot do it more clearly or concisely, for the most part in his own language.

The genus *papilio*, as to its general disposition, remains as it came from the last end of Linnæus; except that the subordinate divisions of his *danai*, *nympheales*, and *plebei*, are elevated to the rank of primary ones; and that, in concurrence with the views of Fabricius, a new family

is added at the expence of the *beliconii*, which, under the designation of *Parnassii*, has for its character—*alis rotunda is denudatis*. The advantage of the first alteration, we confess we do not perceive. The arrangement appears to us neater and more logical as it stands in the last edition of the *Systema nature*. As there is no European species of the present *heliconii*, that family could not find a place in the *Lepidoptera Britannica*. The only British species of the *parnassii* is *papilio crategi*. We have observed no change in the disposal of the species, besides the removal of *papilio pamphilus* from the *plebei rurales* to the *nympheales geminati*.

The sections in this genus are stated by Mr. Haworth to be not entirely to his liking, but very nearly so; and he asks—would not the ocellated species (not belonging to the equites) form a good section with two divisions, thus?—

* OCELLÆ. *Alis ocellatis*.

† *Alis dentatis*.

†† *Alis integris*.

The first division would take in none but what are at present in the *nympheales geminati*; but the second would include all my British *danai festivi*, and all my *plebei rurales*, except the first division *caudate*.

The genus *sphinx* has, for its generic character, *antenna utroque fine attenuata*. It has two grand divisions:

1. LEGITIMÆ (hawk moths). *Abdomine percrasso acuto imberbe, alis opacis delabriformibus volatu nocturno. Pupæ subterranea*. They are subdivided into *integrales* (intire-winged), and *dentate* (dentated). The first coincide with the Linnæan *Legitimæ alis integris, ano simplici*; the second with the *Legitimæ alis angulatis*.

The whole division corresponds with the *legitima alis integris, ano barbato* of Linnæus.

2. SESSÆ (humming birds, and clear wings). *Abdomine (apiforme) & crabroniforme exceptis valde barbato. Alis (stellatarum exceptis) fenestratiss, volatu diurno*. They are subdivided into *tectæ* (humming birds). *Alis squamis minutis tectis, & inde opacis*; & *denudate* (clear-wings). *Alis plus minuse denudatis, & inde fenestratiss*.

We have on other occasions taken the liberty to suggest, that all general characters are imperfectly formed into which any exceptions are introduced. In the present case the first parenthesis might have been avoided, by leaving out the adverb *valde*. The failure of the character *alis fenestratiss* in the *stellatarum* is po-

cularly unfortunate in a British lepidoptera, as it is the only native species of the subdivision.

The last division of Linnæus, which he called *adscitæ habitu & larva diversæ*, and which appeared also as a family of sphinges, in the *Prodromus*, under the Fabrician name, *Zygæna*, is promoted in the work itself to the rank of a genus, with the same name, and the following generic character. *Antennæ medio vel potius versus apicem valde incrassatæ, apice subulatæ. Alæ tectæ squamis, opacæ. Abdomen uniforme cylindraceum, crassum, apice vix barbatus. Larva obesa.*

The divisions of the original genus, *phalæna*, as it was formed by Linnæus, were drawn chiefly from the position of the wings of the living insects as they rest. This is certainly an important character; and, if we had an opportunity of observing all the species in this state, would be entitled to primary notice. But of the prodigious number which have been brought into Europe from the remotest parts of the globe since the death of Linnæus, comparatively few are seen by our entomologists till they have been long dead; and, in most cases, no account of their habits and modes of life has been transmitted with them. Collectors too, both scientific and curious, "for the sake of adding artificial to natural elegance, are now universally in the practice of expanding the wings of the lepidoptera, preserved in their cabinets, in an horizontal and uniform manner; so that the principal characters on which our great master founded the divisions of his moths are effectually destroyed." It has become necessary, therefore, to construct new divisions derived from other characters. After mature consideration, and frequent contemplation of the most extensive collection of British lepidoptera yet made, Mr. Haworth has deemed it expedient to divide the genus *phalæna* of Linnæus into nine distinct genera, by characters taken from the structure of the *antenna*, aided by others drawn from the *larvæ*; and has divided and subdivided each of these genera, either according to the exterior outline of their wing, or some other peculiarity depicted upon their exterior surfaces. He has thought it necessary to apologize for introducing larvæ

into the generic characters, and to shelter himself under the respectable authority of the learned author of the *Monographia Apum Angliæ*, who has said, "in these small animals," he might have said, in every department of natural history, "I call that a generic character which is constant through a genus, from whatever part it is taken." The name of Mr. Kirby is a host; but in the present instance its aid was not wanted; Mr. Haworth might have securely depended on his own good sense and extensive knowledge of the subject. We ourselves are, we readily acknowledge, by no means competent to give a decided judgment; but we have long thought that entomology, as a science, will always be very far from perfection, till the larvæ, the pupæ,* and the imagines, are all combined in one harmonious and luminous arrangement. This is the grand desideratum to which the scrutinizing naturalist should steadily and invariably direct his attention; and we are happy to learn from Mr. Haworth, that generical and sectional characters of the most invariable and unerring kind, are deducible from the lepidopterous larvæ. Our pleasure, indeed, is diminished by the conviction, that this "consummation, so devoutly to be wished," is still at an unmeasurable distance. As far as the larvæ alone are concerned, it cannot be completed till we have discovered that which belongs to every known species of insect. And who must not feel discouraged when he considers that many, even in our British entomology, remain undiscovered? *Sed nil desperandum*: every single step is progress, and gives a flattering earnest of further advances. In this view we report with satisfaction the characters attributed to the nine new genera in the laboured and meritorious work before us.

Antennis basi ad apicem sensim attenuatis, seu basi paullo crassioribus.

BOMBYX. *Antenna masculinæ plerumque valde pectinatæ. Corpus sæpissime crassum. Larvæ grossa, sæpius hirta.*

NOCTUA. *Antennæ omnino setacæ, vel in lente rarius minutissime setatæ. Abdomen sæpissime crassum. Larvæ grossa, sæpe nuda.*

HEPIALUS. *Antennæ thoracæ breviores. Alæ omnes subantepectatæ. Larvæ grossa, subteraneæ.*

* This word, we know not why, is spelt by Mr. Haworth throughout the work, pupæ, contrary to general usage, and, as we suppose, to its real derivation.

GEOMETRA. *Antenna* masculinæ plerumque valde pectinatæ. *Abdomen* sæpissime gracile. *Larva* semper gracilis & geometra.

PHALÆNA. *Antenna* omnino setaceæ, vel in lente rarius minutissime serratæ. *Abdomen* semper gracile. *Larva* semper gracilis & geometra.

PYRALIS. *Antenna* masculinæ setaceæ, vel rarius pectinatæ. *Abdomen* semper gracile. *Larva* gracilis, non geometra.

TORTRIX. *Antenna* semper setaceæ. *Statura* semper parva, & pro ratione magnitudinis robustula. *Alæ* apice rotundatæ vel retusæ.

TINEA. *Antenna* (bombyciformibus exceptis) setaceæ. *Statura* semper parva & gracilis. *Alæ* rarius rotundatæ sæpius acutæ & convolutæ & profunde ciliatæ.

ALUCIA. *Antenna* semper setaceæ. *Alæ* inferiores semper fissæ. *Corpus* & *pedes* gracilissime elongati.

Some observations have occurred to us concerning these generic characters, but as the present volume goes no farther than the end of the genus bombyx, we shall defer them till the publication of the remainder shall put us in full possession of the author's ideas; a gratification which we hope to enjoy after no long interval of time.

The bombyces comprehend the attaci and bombyces of Linnæus, and are distributed in six sections.

1. *Maximi.* *Antennis* (gracilicornibus exceptis) valde pectinatis. *Alis* integris, femineis triuncialibus vel ultra. (B. plantaginis solum excepto); subdivided into *grisei*, *atr-undati*, and *gracilicornes*; the first two founded on the colour of their rings; the last on their deviation from a part of the sectional character.

2. *Dentigeri* (prominents). *Alis* dentatis vel dorso dentigeris; subdivided into *dentati* and *integri*, founded on the alternative expressed in the sectional character.

3. *Cinerei* (cinereous). *Antennis* valde pectinatis. *Alis* plus minusve cinereis, strigis fasciisve saturioribus.

4. *Albi* (whites). *Alis* albis vel albidis sæpius nigro punctatis, rarius maculatis: subdivided into *arbores* & *terrestres*, chiefly founded on the food of the larvæ, as it consists either of the leaves of trees or of grass.

4. *Tristigmatiferi* (darts). *Alis* sæpe griseiscentibus strigis duabus geminatis, & inter has stigmatibus 2 ordinariis,

præterea tertia teliforme striga antica enata. *Puppa* subterranea: subdivided into *geminati* (twin striped) and *albinotari* (antlers), distinguished by the colour of their wings, and by the distinctness or evanescence of the twin stripes.

5. *Bistigmatiferi* (two ringed). *Alis* sæpe griseis stigmatibus duobus ordinariis sæpe margine solo conspicuis, strigaque rectiuscula rarius undulata versus marginum posticum. *Puppa* subterranea.

6. *Extigmatiferi* (ringless). *Stigmatibus* propriis nullis. *Alis* plus minusve cervinis, ferrugineis vel luteis: subdivided into *cervini* (fawns), *apicati* (chocolate tips), apteri (vapourers), females wingless and full-bodied, males slender bodied, *dentistrigati* (feathered rushes) and *graciles* (slender bodied).

These divisions are equal proofs of the acuteness and of the diligence of the author. We are persuaded that he would esteem our praise of little value were we to pronounce them absolutely faultless. Those systematizing naturalists who have laboured with the most assiduity and with the greatest previous knowledge of the subject, are always most sensible of the imperfections that attend their happiest efforts. It is much easier to discover defects than to produce a better arrangement. The former is within the capacity of any one who possesses moderate talents. The latter is the work of a master.

It cannot be expected that divisions, founded on the exterior outline of the wings, or from some peculiarity depicted upon their superior surfaces, should correspond with those of Linnæus founded on the attitudes of the wings when the insect is alive and at rest. But a circumstance which makes so distinguishing a figure in the system of the great naturalist should surely be carefully observed and recorded whenever there is an opportunity; and should be particularly attended to in every local work, which of course describes species that have in most cases been frequently seen by the author in their living state. We are sorry to remark that this character is passed over without notice in the detailed descriptions of the present work, which in all other respects are full and perspicuous, formed, with a very few exceptions, by the author himself, from subjects which he had seen alive.

These, whatever alterations future investigations may occasion in the arrangement of species, will always possess a

standard value, and are indeed the materials which future formers or improvers of systems must necessarily employ in the construction of their edifices. They, as well as the specific characters, are written in Latin; and, after the example of Mr. Kirby, in his *Monographia Apum Angliæ*, miscellaneous observations are occasionally added in English.

The following extracts will give equal information and entertainment to many of our readers who are not scientific naturalists.

“ The purple emperor of the British oaks (*papilio iris*) is not undeservedly the greatest favourite of our English aurelians. In his manners likewise, as well as in the varying lustres of his purple plumes, he presents the strongest claims to their particular attention.

“ In the month of July he makes his appearance in the winged state, and invariably fixes his throne upon the summit of a lofty oak, from the utmost sprigs of which, on sunny days, he performs his aerial excursions; and in these ascends to a much greater elevation than any other insect I have ever seen, sometimes mounting higher than the eye can follow; especially if he happens to quarrel with another emperor, the monarch of some neighbouring oak: they never meet without a battle, flying upwards all the while, and combating with each other as much as possible; after which they will frequently return again to the identical sprigs from whence they ascended. The wings of this fine species are of a finer texture than those of any other in Britain, and more calculated for that gay and powerful flight which is so much admired by entomologists. The purple emperor commences his aerial movements from ten to twelve o'clock in the morning, but does not perform his loftier flights till noon, decreasing them after this hour, until he quite ceases to fly about four in the afternoon: thus emulating the source of all his motions, the sun. The females, like those of many other species, are very rarely seen on the wing: the reason of which is both interesting and very little known. It is their being destitute of a certain spiral socket, which the males possess near the base of the main tendon of their upper wings; which socket receives and works a strong elastic spring, arising from the base of the under wings, thereby enabling them to perform a stronger, longer, and more easy flight than it is possible for the females to do. The males usually fly very high, and are only to be taken by a bag-net, fixed to the end of a rod, twenty or thirty feet long. There have been instances, though very rare, of their settling on the ground near puddles of water, and being taken there. When the purple emperor is within reach, no fly is more easily taken than him; for he is so very bold and fearless, that he will not move from his

settling place, till you quite push him off; you may even trip the ends of his wings and be suffered to strike again.”

The observation on the *bombyx quercus* is no less curious.

“ It is a frequent practice with our London aurelians, when they breed a female of this and some other day-flying species, to take her whilst yet a virgin, into the vicinity of woods, where, if the weather is favourable, she never fails to attract a numerous train of the males, whose only business appears to be an incessant, rapid and undulating flight, in search after their unimpregnated females. One of which is no sooner perceived, than they become so much enamoured of their fair and chaste relation, as absolutely to lose all kind of fear for their own personal safety, which at other times is effectually secured by the reiterated evolutions of their strong and rapid wings. So fearless indeed have I beheld them become on these occasions, as to climb up and down the sides of the cage which contained the dear object of their eager pursuit; in exactly the same hovering manner as honey-bees, which have lost themselves, climb up and down the glasses of a window.”

“ Whilst under this enervating fascination, if you even handle them, or suffer them to creep buzzing through your hands, they are not alarmed, as they would be at another time; but continue to urge their pursuit as before; endeavouring to gain admittance into the cage. Of course any quantity of them may be readily taken and secured. In about four hours after the aurelians have thought proper to admit a male of their liking into the cage, to the poor drowsy object of all this anxiety, she will not fail to deposit a great quantity of large impregnated eggs, of an oval shape, and whitish colour, blotched with darker marks; in miniature pretty much resembling those of a common sparrow. The manners of this quiet captive female do not in any respect resemble those of her violent and restless partner; her disposition being sluggish and torpid in the extreme: she very rarely uses her wings, and appears much more inclined to repel than encourage the advances of her rival.”

“ The aurelians call such a wedding as the above, a *sembling* (assembling) match, and never succeed with any but a virgin female! By what unknown and perhaps unnamed power the males distinguish between a married female, and one that has never been impregnated, I know not, and should be glad to learn. But that they can and do make an unerring discrimination between the two, is well known to most aurelians. They avoid the latter and never approach her; while for the former they display the solicitude and anxiety I have above fully explained. There was once an instance

of a male creeping into the pocket of an aurelian, which contained a virgin female in his pocket-box."

Lepidopterous insects are in general so conspicuous in point of size, and have been so greedily sought after by collectors on account of their beauty, that fewer indigenous nondescripts are likely to be found in this order than in any other of the class. A few however appear, especially in the last three sections of bombyx, for which there is no reference but to the author's *Prodromus*, or to the aurelian cabinet. The latter is a collection chiefly, as it seems, formed by Mr. Haworth, with the assistance of the members of the aurelian society, who are admitted into it on the express con-

dition, that if they possess a collection, they shall give up at least one specimen of every species and variety which is not already in the aurelian cabinet, and for which they are to receive the fullest value, either in rare insects or in money. The society consists at present of ten members, who are all collectors of British insects, and every one of whom has contributed articles to the cabinet, which could not have been procured from any other source whatever. When the society consists of twenty members, Mr. Haworth intends to give to them the whole cabinet, *bonâ fide*, and without fee or reward, to be kept by them and their successors, as a standard and permanent collection of British insects.

ART. IV. *The Natural History of British Shells, including Figures and Descriptions of all the Species hitherto discovered in Great Britain, systematically arranged in the Linnean manner, with scientific and general Observations on each.* By E. DONOVAN, F. L. S. *Author of the Natural Histories of British Birds, Insects, &c. &c.* 8vo. 5 vols.

ACCURATE figures are of great advantage to the student in every branch of natural history. They do not, indeed, supersede the necessity, or diminish the value of clear technical description. This must always have a claim to primary regard, as without it there can be no true science. But though they can be admitted only in the humbler rank of auxiliaries, in this subordinate view the most experienced naturalist will not disdain their aid. They are not merely of use to identify, with less trouble, species which are discovered in distant countries, but convey many particulars to the eye which no language can express. Just definitions can explain to the understanding the general outline of a whole, with the relative situation and proportion of its parts; but they do it only by degrees, and, as they present no distinct image to the mind, they easily escape from the memory. A skillful artist, on the other hand, effects his purpose by a single instantaneous impression: he gives at once the air, the character, and the spirit of the subjects which employ his pencil, introduces them to our knowledge in something like an embodied form; and enables us to recognise them as old acquaintance, whenever they fall under our actual observation.

In no part of natural history is the want of them more sensibly felt than in testaceology. The distinct parts of a

shell are so few and so simple; and, in many cases, not only kindred species, but even different genera diverge from each other by such minute and almost imperceptible gradations, that no terminology can be invented which will decisively discriminate one of them from another. Of the truth of this observation the discrepancies and doubts which perpetually occur in the works of the best writers on the subject, are an incontestable proof: nor can it be concealed, that, notwithstanding the assistance of good figures, every occasion of hesitation is by no means entirely removed. Mr. Donovan, however, has done much to facilitate the investigation of this popular department of natural history, and has performed an acceptable service to the British conchologist, in giving coloured figures of our native species.

When he began to publish this work in numbers, he had calculated that all the British shells might be comprized in five volumes, or about 180 plates. But in its progress he found his materials so much increased upon his hands, by new acquisitions from various quarters, as to make it necessary for him either to extend his designed limits, or to exclude those species, which, from their extreme minuteness, are usually denominated microscopic shells. He has chosen the latter alternative, that he might not deviate from his original proposals to his subscribers; and offers the present vo-

lume to the public with an assurance, that nothing of material consequence, either in his own collection, or the cabinets of his friends, has been omitted. It appears from several incidental passages in the work that he has had the good fortune to come into possession of Dacosta's collection, from which the British conchology of that author was formed: he has likewise had an opportunity to inspect many of the shells from which Mr. Pennant made his descriptions in the British Zoology, and has in consequence been able to detect several mistakes of both those writers in the application of synonyms. On this perplexing part of the science Mr. Donovan has bestowed much labour, and at the close of the work has candidly acknowledged, and desired his readers to correct an error into which he himself, in common with other British naturalists, had fallen with respect to the *murex despectus* and *antiquus* of Linnæus. The history of these species is so curious, and so clearly proves the rigid examination which ought to precede the quotation of any figure, that we shall lay it before our readers.

The *murex costatus*, figured by Mr. Pennant, in the frontispiece to his fourth volume, and again in a different position in the body of his work, is at present an unique in the collection formerly belonging to the late duchess of Portland, and has been thought by some conchologists to be merely an accidental variety of what has been taken in England for the Linnæan *murex antiquus*. To justify the insertion of it as a distinct species Mr. Donovan thought it advisable to give an additional plate of what he also then thought *murex antiquus*, that the difference between the two shells may be more easily discriminated, though the claim of the latter to be received as a British species is rather dubious. But on a closer investigation of the subject he became convinced that the species bearing that name in several British authors is not the *antiquus* of Linnæus, but a species not known to him, which Mr. Donovan now calls *duplicatus*, with the following specific character: "Shell patulous, tailed, oblong, the whorls light, tuberculated, striated with two raised ridges." The *antiquus* of Linnæus turns out to be what British authors have hitherto erroneously called *despectus*. Mr. Pennant's *antiquus* appears to be different from both. The account

of the real *despectus* we shall give in our author's own words.

"The present shell, it must be tacitly acknowledged, is inserted among the rarer shells of this country on very slight authority; namely, that of a friend, who believes he once saw a few specimens of this *murex* that were fished up in the sea at a short distance to the north of the Orkneys.—On this suspicion only we could not have presumed to insert the species in this work, were it not to avail ourselves of the opportunity afforded by that means to correct an error very generally admitted, concerning the true *murex despectus* of Linnæus, the shell at this time under consideration.

"To the English conchologist it need be scarcely said, that another shell, somewhat similar to the present, although specifically different, has been hitherto received as the *murex despectus* of Linnæus, by every writer in this country who has had occasion to speak of that shell. The origin of this mistake, it will be perceived from the following particulars, rests in a great measure, if not entirely, with Linnæus himself. The *murex despectus* of this writer is noticed, for the first time, in the account of his travels through part of Sweden: a small octavo volume, written in the Swedish language, with notes, relative to natural history in Latin. At page 200, he describes this shell in these words, "*cochleæ spiris octo oblonga utrinque producta lineis duabus elevatis*," referring to plate 8, fig. 5, of the same work, for a delineation of the shell; the figure quoted in every respect agrees with our specimen, not only in the general outline, but most exactly in having the slight carinated ridges that pass spirally round the whorls, a character not observable on the *murex despectus* of English authors. So far therefore we are convinced that the present shell is the *murex despectus* of the Linnæan *Iter Westrogothicum*.

"The work above mentioned appeared in 1746, the year in which Linnæus published the first editio of his *Fauna Suecica*. In the latter, *murex despectus* is again described with a reference to his *Iter W. Goth.*; and in addition to that synonym, a shell figured by Lister, is also quoted for the same species. This is the source of that very confusion which has since arisen concerning the Linnæan *despectus*, and should be fully stated. Lister's *Angl.* t. 3, f. 1, is the reference given by Linnæus. Adverting to this, we find the following definition of the shell given by Lister, "*hæccinum album læve maximum septem spirarum*."—He further adds, in the general description, "*testæ pars exterior ex toto lævis est, i. e. sine striis quævis sæpius vel rugis quibusdam vel aliis rebus extrinsecus adnatis exasperetur*." From this account, and from the figure he has given of the shell, there is not the smallest reason to dispute that Lister means the shell which English

writers have heretofore considered as the *murex despectus* ;* but it is not less certain that Linnæus was wrong in quoting Lister's figure for his Swedish shell, since they are not the same. However, on the authority of this reference to Lister, which afterwards appeared in the *Systema Naturæ*, this shell has continued to be considered as the species meant by Linnæus.

"Nor was this the only oversight which appears to have been committed by that eminent naturalist ; by continuing to refer, in the *Systema Naturæ*, to Lister's figure for his species *despectus*, no one scarcely could imagine that Lister's shell should be the *m. antiquus* of Linnæus, instead of his *despectus*, and yet we are persuaded, after attentively comparing his description of the shells with his synonyms, that such is the fact : the description agrees with it, and the figure given by Gualteri is surely of the same kind as that which Lister speaks of.

"The Linnæan shell, *m. despectus*, is well described, and the figure in his *Iter W. Goth.* is expressive : the two elevated spiral lines, together with the roundity of the wreaths, are strikingly characteristic of this species. At the first glance this shell appears to be an intermediate kind, between Lister's shell and the *murex carinatus* of Pennant, and ourselves : indeed the principal difference we perceive between the true *m. despectus* and Lister's shell, is, that the former has the whorls of the spire rather more ventricose, and distinctly marked with two slightly elevated spiral lines ; from *murex carinatus* it differs principally in the very prominent angulations of the anfractus (*anfractus*), where the ridges appear, and more particularly in the strong depression between the upper ridge, and the suture of the whorls.

"The *murex despectus*, at present under consideration, is certainly very rare, except in the north of Europe, where we are led to suppose, from what Linnæus says, it is not uncommon."

We are sorry to observe, that, though Mr. Donovan sometimes quotes the twelfth edition of the *Systema Naturæ*, he much more frequently refers to that of Gmelin, for species which were known to Linnæus, and of which the specific characters are taken from him verbatim : a practice which we have censured on another occasion, and which, were the edition of Gmelin much better than it is, cannot be too strongly reprobated. In all other respects he pays a religious deference to the authority of his great master : and though he sometimes does not perfectly approve the place assigned to some species, the removal of *voluta pallida* to the genus *bulia* is the only instance in which he has ventured to oppose it ; this he has done in defiance of

the plaits or wrinkles of its pillar-lip ; chiefly, as it should seem, on account of its great resemblance to the *bulia cylindrica* of Gmelin, the *cylindræa* of Pennant, which having the pillar-lip perfectly smooth, is incontestably a *bulia*. Linnæus himself, probably on account of its general habit, had made the *pallida* a *bulia* in his descriptive catalogue of the museum reginæ.

We were surprised to find that the genus *chiton* is entirely omitted in this natural history of British shells, notwithstanding three species, not known to Linnæus, have been figured by Pennant ; and three Linnæan ones, with a non-descript, have been added to the British catalogue by Mr. Montague. We ourselves have found the *marginatus* on the north sands at Scarborough.

The species hitherto undescribed are *lepas costata*, "Shell somewhat conic ; ribs equidistant and diverging from the aperture ; operculum sharp pointed ;" found by the late Mr. Adams, of Pembroke. *L. conoides*, "Conic ; smooth, valves pointed at the apex ; aperture very small ;" found by Mr. Bryer of Weymouth. *L. borealis*, "Shell erect, sub-conic, aperture quadrangular, operculum acute, and striated transversely ;" found by dredging in Portsmouth harbour ; though probably not indigenous, it is now become a naturalized species.—*Tellina inquistriata*, "Shell ovate, compressed, and rather flattish, rosy, very finely striated transversely ; the striae fewer and larger at the anterior end ;" communicated to Da Costa after his conchology was published, found by Dr. Pulney. *Mya ovata*, "Shell oblong-ovate, posterior part roundish, and very slightly gaping ; first tooth at the hinge crenulated ;" found in the New River near London, and the Froome in Somersetshire. *M. depressa*, "Somewhat ovate, anterior part rather wedge shaped and sloping ; a slight depression across the middle ; posterior part roundish, gaping. Teeth at the hinge crenulated ;" found with the *ovata*, and perhaps only a variety.—*Mactra radiata*, "Shell thin, fragile, somewhat triangular, compressed, whitish, and finely striated with testaceous rays ;" found upon Langston beach near Portsmouth, after a severe storm.—*Venus lactea*, "Shell lentiform, somewhat compressed, with thick, elevated, obtuse concentric striae, and slightly truncated anteriorly."—*Arca emudata*, "Oblong oval, one end rotundated, the

* In Lister's plate the shell is reversed by mistake, most likely of the engraver. Google

other produced or lengthened out, angulated and truncated at the end:" a minute species found on the Kentish coast.—*Pinna levis*, "Shell nearly triangular, horn colour, smooth; valves rugose on the posterior part:" dredged up on the coast of Shetland.—*Bulla resiliens*, "Shell oval, pellucid, elastic, spire somewhat depressed and canaliculated, or grooved along the margin:" found lately on the coasts of Devonshire and Hampshire, but first discovered by Mr. Cordiner on the shores of Barmf.—*Voluta triplicata* (Walker fig. 50?) "Shell ovate, smooth, and brown; spire rather pointed; whorls six; pillar with three plaits." *V. edentula*, "Shell rather ovate, very smooth; spire obtuse; two plaits on the pillar lip; lip gibbous and slightly denticulated: dredged up in deep water on the coast of Weymouth. — *Buccinum brunneum*, "Shell taper, brown, whorls transversely striated, and longitudinally undulated; aperture toothless:" found on the coast of Cornwall.—*Murex angulatus*, "Shell oblong; whorls depressed, angulated, transversely striated, sulcated longitudinally, aperture toothless:" from the sands at Brighton and Weymouth. *M. bamffius*, "Shell ventricose, white, ribbed longitudinally, with acute plaits:" communicated by Mr. Cordiner to the late duchess of Portland. *M. emarginatus*, "Shell somewhat elongated, pale, with a white band; wreaths striated with longitudinal undulations; on the posterior part of the lip a single notch:" from the western coast. *M. elegans*, "Spiral, rough, aperture ending in a straight and somewhat produced gutter, or canaliculation: discovered by Miss Pocock on the coast of Cornwall. *M. septem-angulatus*, "Shell oblong, acute, pale, with seven longitudinal angles:" from Weymouth. — *Trochus conicus*, "Shell conic, smooth, whitish, obliquely lined with brown, whorls flattish, and finely striated:" from the coast of Devonshire.—*Turbo fontinalis*, "Shell umbilicated, subconic, wreaths ventricose, smooth." *T. reticulatus* (Walker 3, 48?) "Shell tapering, reticulated with granules, testaceous, whorl reversed, aperture straitened:" found on the coast of Cornwall by Miss Pocock. *T. mamillatus*, "Shell imperforate, subovate, whorls striated with raised dots, and slightly angulated by a few of the striae, the dots of which are larger:" from the Scilly rocks. *T. vitatus*, "Shell smooth, taper, whitish,

whorls subobsolete; on the first three chesnut bands, one on the rest:" from the Menai. *T. interruptus*, "Shell smooth, taper, whitish, fasciated with an interrupted ochreous band:" from the Menai. *T. costatus*, "Shell taper, snowy white, with numerous obtuse longitudinal ribs:" found at Margate. *T. pallidus*, "Shell somewhat taper, pale, whorls very slightly bicarinated:" from the western coast. *T. acutus*, "Shell taper, acute, snowy white, whorls about twelve, with numerous oblique obtuse ribs:" from Cornwall and Guernsey. *Helix pallida*, "Shell inflated, slightly umbilicated, fragile, pale; whorls six, convex; aperture semilunar:" found in some parts of Kent, and on the great Roman vale of Caerwent, Monmouthshire. *H. bullacoides*, "Shell ovate, smooth, glossy, horny, brittle, whorls reversed, spire short:" from Lincolnshire. *H. fontinalis*, "Shell imperforate, ovate, and pointed, glabrous, horny, volutions five, the first and second ventricose:" common in some of the rivulets of Devonshire.— *Nerita intricata*, "Shell smooth, spire somewhat pointed; umbilicus large, nearly heart-shaped, with a small carinated lobe:" from Weymouth, variety of *N. carrena*? — *Patella albida*, "Shell fragile, entire, subrotund, whitish; vertex somewhat central, and slightly pointed; lip within lateral:" from the coast of Cornwall. — *Dentalium octangulatum*, "Shell white, somewhat curved, with eight ribs or angles, and three intermediate striae:" from the coast of Cornwall. Variety of *D. striatulum*?

As the shells are unavoidably published without regard to systematic arrangement, the plates are numbered accordingly. But all naturalists will doubtless be desirous, now the work is completed, to bind them up in a scientific order; and they will have the satisfaction to find, that where two or more species are given in the same plate, they are always of the same genus, except in plate 179, which unfortunately contains species of three different genera. If the letter press belonging to it were not absolutely incapable of being duly distributed, we ourselves should be inclined to cut the plate itself into three, and to paste the several parts on separate leaves. The matter of periodical publications in natural history, should always be so disposed as finally to admit of a systematic arrangement.

BOTANY.

ART. V. *Elements of Botany: or Outlines of the Natural History of Vegetables.* By BENJAMIN SMITH BARTON, M. D. Professor of Materia Medica, Natural History, and Botany in the University of Pennsylvania. Revised and corrected, with the addition of British Examples, and Occasional Notes, by the English Editor.

AN elementary work on natural history from the United States of America, is a novelty which cannot fail to receive from us a hearty welcome. The first European settlers in that vast wilderness, towards the close of the 16th, and during the first half of the 17th century, embarrassed and almost overcome by the complicated difficulties of their situation, subject to continual attacks from the original savage inhabitants of the country, and scarcely able to procure the necessities of life, had neither leisure nor inclination to engage in literary pursuits; and though surrounded by a multitude of natural objects which they had never seen in their native land, were under no temptation to attend to any which did not promise to relieve their immediate and pressing wants. Having obtained from these all the accommodation which their first appearance directly indicated, they felt no inducement to consider them in any other point of view. It was only by slow degrees that they began to acquire the conveniences of life, and to experience a state of ease and comfort. The inhabitants of the larger commercial towns at length attained to comparative opulence, and possessed the means of much additional enjoyment. But sensitive indulgence, and splendour of appearance, are universally the first gratifications to which riches are devoted in the advancing course of civilized society. Intellectual improvements are the last stage of the progress, and never become the objects of general attention, till the manners of a people are polished and refined by the means of a free and easy intercourse, and till a pleasing consciousness of security and peace suggests and allows the full exertion of the mental faculties. To this honourable height our brethren of the western continent are now arrived. Brethren we will still esteem them; and brethren in affection we ardently hope they will long continue, notwithstanding they are no longer subject to the same sovereign, and have risen to the manhood of political independence: for they are of the same stock and lineage with ourselves; they

retain many of our sentiments and habits; and what is of still greater consequence, they speak the same language. And we cannot help indulging what we trust is an honest national pride, when we consider that nearly the whole of North America is now, or will finally be, peopled with a British race; and that through all its extensive and remote regions, works of genius and of science will hereafter be produced in our now classic tongue, to instruct and delight the latest posterity.

As yet we see only the dawn of this splendid day. The native productions of the American press have hitherto been few. But the united efforts of their growing universities and philosophical societies will give an impetus to the public mind, and cause it to proceed with an accelerated velocity. And there is no part of science, in which the benefit of indigenous writers will be more sensibly or more extensively felt than natural history. Almost all that we at present know of the animals, plants, and fossils of this wide and highly diversified country, has been derived from foreign travellers, who have passed through a few of its districts in a single journey, and of course have seldom seen them at more than one season of the year. It is by residents alone that the natural history of a country can be completely, or even tolerably, investigated. We shall be little acquainted with the treasures of this new world, till we have Faunas and Floras of its different states, published, and repeatedly republished with the constant addition of new discoveries, by persons who have full opportunity to explore their mountains, their vallies, their marshes, and sea coasts.

But before a man can read Virgil and Horace, he must learn the Latin grammar. In like manner, before a native of America can communicate to the world a knowledge of its natural productions, he must study the principles of natural science, must be able to arrange his materials by the rules of some received system, must be acquainted with the peculiar characters of the species which have

already been described, and must designate those which he himself first introduces to the public, either by an old or a new generic name. In these respects Dr. Barton's *Elements of Botany* will be highly useful to his countrymen. The work, as we are told by an advertisement annexed to the author's preface, "was put into the hands of the English editor, with a request that he would look it over, and give his opinion, whether, if the American plants were exchanged for English ones, it might not be made a better introduction to botany than any we now have; and was found by him, on a cursory perusal, to be written in so popular a manner, and with so much greater variety of matter than is contained in our present elementary treatises on the subject, that he had no doubt of its proving acceptable to the public."

We take it for granted, that he did not mean to deny or to disparage the merits of several introductions to botany which have been published by English authors. Mr. Lee has given a pretty accurate translation of the *Philosophia Botanica* of Linnæus, the bible of almost all modern botanists. The *Elements of Botany* by the late Mr. Rose, of Norwich, are a translation and epitome of many of the most useful theoretical writings of Linnæus; and, in the opinion of an unexceptionable judge, "are highly valuable, full of solid information, and not superseded by any other English publication." Rousseau's *Letters on Botany*, translated into English by professor Martyn, are an excellent illustration of some of the principal natural families; and the additional letters of the professor himself are an equally perspicuous and faithful guide to the knowledge of the Linnæan artificial system. The *Elements of Botany*, by Dr. Hull of Manchester, contain much valuable matter, and are greatly enriched by the view which he has given of Hedwig's works on mosses, Persoon's on fungi, Gærtner's on the fruits and seeds of plants, and Giske's on the natural orders of Linnæus, none of which have appeared in the English language. Three of these authors have adopted that dry skeleton form which distinguishes the writings of their great master, and which, though of inestimable use in the way of reference, and occasional examination, is not the most happily calculated to attract and fix the attention of the youthful mind. The

letters of Rousseau and Martyn are easy and familiar, and skilfully combine entertainment with instruction: but they were not intended to comprehend the whole of the technical elements, or what may be called the grammar of the system. One of Dr. Barton's excellences, if we mistake not, arises in a great degree from the diffuse didactic style to which he has been accustomed, in the frequent delivery of his professional lectures. It has often been observed that the best method of becoming completely acquainted with any subject, is to teach it to others. And it is equally true that no one can justly appreciate the difficulties of a subject, and discover how they may most easily be removed or lessened, till he has experienced the necessity of endeavouring to explain them to those who know less than himself. In a solitary course of study, men of the most vigorous minds are sometimes tempted to pass over, or slightly examine, what is obscure, that they may the sooner have the satisfaction of contemplating what is clear and incontrovertible. But when they are sensible that every branch of the subject must be discussed in its due order, and delivered in intelligible language, and that questions may be asked for the elucidation of what is doubtful, they are convinced that every difficulty must, if possible, be surmounted, and that the whole force of their faculties must be exerted in the task. It is in fact generally found that all the particulars of a subject are most minutely and strictly examined by those who are called to lead the ignorant and unexperienced, step by step, to a comprehensive and complete knowledge of the whole.

Dr. Barton divides his work into three parts. The first contains a pretty extensive delineation of a plant, beginning with the root, and ending with the various organs of fructification; the second relates to vegetable physiology; and the third is confined to an explanation of the classes and orders in the Linnæan system.

The terminology of Linnæus is stated and illustrated in the first part, in as easy and pleasing a manner as the nature of the subject would admit; and the whole is enlivened, as well as rendered more instructive, by occasional remarks, pointing out its imperfections, and proposing what in the author's ideas would be improvements. The advantage of these critical observations is obvious.

The pupil is formed by them to the important habit of reflecting on what he learns, and of exercising his reason and judgment, at the same time that he employs his understanding and memory, in the elementary part of his studies.

Thus in the section on what are called by Linnæus *fulcra*.

"The *fulcra*, or *fulcres*, are defined by the Swedish naturalist to be helps of the plant, for its more commodious sustentation, or support. Of these *fulcres*, Linnæus, at different times, enumerated a very different number. In the *Fundamenta Botanica*, published in 1736, they were six in number, and stood in the following order; viz. *bractea*, *cirrhus*, *spina*, *aculeus*, *stipula*, and *glandula*. In a subsequent edition of the same work, Linnæus enumerated nine *fulcres*, the three additional to those just mentioned, being the *scapus*, the *petiolus*, and the *pedunculus*, which our author had formerly considered as species of trunks. In his immortal work, the *Philosophia Botanica*, published in 1750, we find but seven species enumerated; viz. *stipula*, *bractea*, *spina*, *aculeus*, *cirrhus*, *glandula*, and *pilus*. In the *Termini Botanici*, published in the *Amoenitates Academicæ*,* by John Elmgren, one of the pupils of the great naturalist, and in the *Delineatio Plantæ*, which is prefixed to the second volume of the *Systema Naturæ*, the *fulcres* were to experience one more revolution. In these works, the terms *aculeus* and *spina* give way to the general term of *arma*; and *pilus* is supplanted by the less delicate, and less determinate, term *pubes*, by which Linnæus means every species of pubescence, or hairy appearance, on the surface of plants. *Glandula* also is swallowed up in *pubes*, and the partial trunks; *petiolus* and *pedunculus*, are again to appear among the *fulcres*. The list now stood as follows; viz. *Petiolus*, *stipula*, *cirrhus*, *pubes*, *arma*, *bractea*, *pedunculus*.†

"I find it not a little difficult to satisfy my mind, as to the parts of the plant which

ought to be introduced under this general head of *fulcres*. I do not think the science of botany would lose much of its value, by the entire abolition of the term. Certain it is, that several of the articles enumerated by Linnæus cannot, with any degree of propriety, be considered as proper, for the more commodious sustentation of the plant. Upon what principle can we denominate the *spina*, the *aculeus*, the *glandula*, and the *pilus*, species of props? Perhaps *bractea* and *stipula* have not a much higher claim to this title. But I dare not think of abolishing a term, sanctioned by the authority of so many able botanists; though one† of the most distinguished of them has confessed, that the term is rather 'forced!'

Thus also on the subject of pubescence.

"Linnæus asserts, that an experienced botanist will often find it easy to determine, from an inspection of plants, whether they belong to Africa, Asia, America, or the Alpine countries; though he may not be able to say, by what feature, in the general physiognomy, he has made the distinction. The Swedish naturalist, however, speaks of the American plants as being verdant, and smooth.§ I do not doubt, that to the vegetables of extensive tracts of the three portions of the world which Linnæus has mentioned, a kind of national physiognomy often belongs: as we observe, that even the human inhabitants of such countries have a set of features exclusively belonging to them. Thus an Anglo-American may, very generally, be distinguished from an Englishman. But I suspect that there is much more difficulty than Linnæus seems to have imagined, in deciding, with certainty, from the mere facies, or aspect, of vegetables, upon the native countries of those vegetables. How, indeed, can this be doubted, when it is considered, that the very same species of vegetables are common to two, and even three quarters of the globe? Thus, the northern

* Vol. VI. *Dissertatio cxlii*.

† Perhaps no man of real celebrity in science was so much in the habit of making essential alterations in the different editions of his works, as Linnæus was. Mr. Pennant, speaking of the Swedish naturalist's arrangement of the mammalia, has, with delicate severity, used the following words: "The variations in his different systems may have arisen from the new and continual discoveries that are made in the animal kingdom; from his sincere intention of giving his systems additional improvements; and perhaps from a failing (unknown, indeed, to many of his accusers), a diffidence in the abilities he had exerted in his prior performances. But it must be allowed, that the naturalist ran too great a hazard in imitating his present guise; for in another year he might put on a new form, and have left the complying philosopher amazed at the metamorphosis." *History of Quadrupeds*. Preface.

‡ Dr. James Edward Smith.

§ "Primo intuitu distinguit sapius exercitatus botanicus plantas Africæ, Asiæ, Americæ, Alpiumque, sed non facile diceret ipse, ex qua nota. Nescio quæ facies torva, sicca, obscura Afris; quæ superba, exaltata Asiaticis; quæ læta, glabra Americanis; quæ coarctata, indurata, Alpinis." *Philosophia Botanica*, &c. p. 117, 118.

parts of North America, and the northern parts of Europe, possess a considerable number of vegetables in common with each other. Many species are common to Siberia, Kamtschatka, Japan, &c. and to the north of America. A considerable number are common to the United States and to Hindoostan; and even a few are common to the Cape of Good Hope and North America.

"That the American plants are peculiarly smooth, I am far from being convinced. Linnæus might have found, in our woods, very many species covered over with all the various kinds of pubes, pubescentia, or pilus, which he has mentioned.* I can not but suspect, that the great naturalist, misled by the phantom of a false analogy, conceived the plants of America very smooth, partly, at least, because the man of America has been so generally deemed, and by Linnæus†, among other writers, beardless, and smooth-skinned. But we now know, that the Indians of America are not more smooth than are the Japanese, the Chinese, the Koriaks, and many other nations or hordes of Asia.†"

And thus with respect to the second Linnæan kind of calyx.

"It is difficult to say in what very essential circumstance the involucre of those plants which are not umbelliferous, such as cornus or dogwood, some species of anemone, &c. differs from the bractea, or bracte. It would seem, indeed, that Linnæus's principal reason for separating the involucre from the bracte was this, that he might make use of the former part in drawing his generic characters of the umbelliferæ.§"

As a specimen of the entertaining information intermingled with this part of the work, we shall select the observations on the first appearance and fall of deciduous leaves.

"The precise time of the year and month

in which any given species of vegetable unfolds its first leaves, is denominated, by Linnæus, frondescentia.¶ To this subject, the Swedish naturalist has paid much attention. He made a great number of observations, in eighteen different provinces of his native country, situated between the sixtieth and seventieth degree of north latitude, in the years 1750, 1751, and 1752. It was his object to discover, which species of trees begin to open their buds, and unfold their leaves, at the most proper time for the sowing of barley. The result of his enquiries was, that the birch-tree (betula alnus) gave the most proper indication for this purpose. He justly imagined, that in every province of Europe, there exist other trees, which will, in like manner, indicate the proper time for sowing grains of different kinds, and also esculent herbs. This is, certainly, a subject worthy of the attention of naturalists, whose inquiries are directed to utility. Much important information would result from an extensive investigation of the subject. The agricultural rules of savage nations are frequently founded, in a great measure, upon the frondescentia, together with the time of flowering of different vegetables, indigenous in their countries. Thus, the Indians, in different parts of North America, are of opinion, that the best time for planting the maize, or Indian corn, is when the leaves of the white oak¶ first make their appearance, or rather, as they express it, when the leaves of this common tree are of the size of a "squirrel's ears. I shall have occasion to touch again on this subject, when treating of the calendarium Floræ, or calendar of Flora.††

"4. By the term defoliation‡‡, or defoliation, Linnæus means the season of the year at which the vegetables of any particular country shed their leaves. Thus, this term is directly opposed to that of frondescentia. With respect to the defoliation of vegetables, it is proper to observe, that the same species does not always drop its leaves at the same time,

* Such, not to mention many others, are rhus typhinum, epigæa repens, spiræa tomentosa, sida abutilon, many of the oaks, walnuts, or hickories, and a very considerable number of species in the great class of syngenesia.

† Systema Naturæ, tom. i. p. 39.

‡ See New Views of the Origin of the Tribes and Nations of America. Preliminary Discourses, p. 55, and Appendix, p. 32.

§ Linnæus is said to have adopted the present distribution of the umbelliferous plants in the second order of his fifth class, in deference to the authority of Arædus, by whom it was first proposed; and having adopted it, he was obliged, in defiance of all analogy, to call the involucre a species of calyx; he must otherwise have violated his established principle of drawing his generic characters from some part of the fructification. If it had not been for this unfortunate predilection, he would surely have ranked the leaves of the involucre with the bractes. The involucre does not cover or enclose the rest of the fructification previous to the opening of the flower, as is the case with the proper calyx.—EDITOR.

¶ From frons, a leaf.

¶ Quercus alba.

** Sciurus cinereus, the most common species of squirrel in North America.

†† See part ii.

‡‡ From de, and folium, a leaf.

even in the same district of a country; but, in particular, that the same species sheds its leaves at very different periods, in different countries. In both instances, the difference of the time of defoliation seems to depend, principally, upon a difference of season, or of climate. Extreme heat and extreme cold are both observed to be favourable to the fall of the leaf. In the hot summers, the leaves of many plants lose their verdure, and fall a full month earlier than they do in milder seasons.

"5. The fall of the leaf is almost always preceded by a very essential change in its colour. Yellow, red, and brown, are the most common colours of the dying leaf. About the close of September (sooner or later according to the season), the forest trees in Pennsylvania, and other middle parts of the United States, begin to lose their verdure. The leaves assume new colours, particularly yellow and red, or crimson. Nothing can be more picturesque than an American forest at this season. The beauties of the scenery will be described by some future Thomson; or exhibited on canvas by the pencil of an American Salvator Rosa. It will be sufficient for me to observe, that the leaves of almost all the species of *juglans* (walnuts and hickory) and maple, assume different shades of yellow; whilst those of *nyssa integrifolia*, called gum, the *laurus sassafras*, the *cornus florida*, or dogwood, and others, are clothed in a livery of crimson or red."

If the author had completed his original design, the second part would have been considerably extended: but having been drawn out, in the first and third parts, to discussions of greater length than he expected, he was obliged to restrain himself within narrower limits in the second, which, for reasons which do not appear, were sent last to the press. In consequence of this alteration of his plan, there were several references in the first part to future explanations and enquiries which are no where to be found. These the English editor has properly expunged; though one instance at least has escaped his notice. And as "probably, in the ardour of composition, Dr. Barton had sometimes anticipated himself, and introduced into the technical part of the work several things, which, as he himself at the time was not insensible, more properly belong to the physiology, they are removed in the English edition to this part of the work, and the whole placed in a connected series, from a persuasion, not only that they will be read with greater pleasure and advantage, but also that the elementary part will be consulted

with greater readiness, when freed from this foreign matter." The anatomical structure of the trunk and leaves is explained at large, and the opinions of the best authors on the subject are distinctly detailed. But the sections that relate to the bractes, the calyx, the corolla, the nectary, the pollen, the pistillum, and the pericarp, consisting entirely of the observations which were incidentally introduced by the author into the first part, are much less full and comprehensive, and are confined to the uses to which these organs are supposed to be subservient in the vegetable economy. The same imperfection, however, does not attach to the section on the anatomy of the seeds, which also stood originally in the first part. It is extended to a considerable length, and contains a well digested summary of Gærtner's ideas on this essential and important part of a plant.

In the explanation of the Linnæan system, which constitutes the third and concluding part of the work, the author gives not only the character of each class and order, but also their relation to the natural orders of Linnæus, and sometimes of Jussieu, with the medical and economical uses of such species as have been made conducive to the health, food, or convenience of mankind. That our readers may form a judgment of the information they may expect to receive on these heads, we shall select what is said of the class *enneandria*, chiefly because it lies within a small compass.

"CLASS IX.

"ENNEANDRIA.

"Nine Stamens."

"This class is subdivided into three orders, viz. *Monogyniu*, *Trigynia*, and *Hexagyniu*."

"Character.

"With respect to the genera which belong to the class *enneandria*, they constitute different assemblages of vegetables, more or less natural. *Laurus*, *anacardium*, *rheum*, together with *callitriche*, *blitum*, *corispermum*, *rumex*, *polygonum*, and several others, which have already been mentioned, as belonging to preceding classes; and also certain genera which are arranged in the succeeding classes, constitute Linnæus's twelfth order, *Holoraceæ*, which I do not think entitled to the name of a natural order. The genus *laurus* gives name to an order in the system of M. de Jussieu. It is the fourth

order of his sixth class. In the system of the same learned naturalist, there is an order, entitled, *polygonææ*, which embraces one of the genera of the class enneandria: the genus *rheum*, (rhubarb), *butomus*, together with *calamus*, *juncus*, *triglochin*, and some others, belong to Linnæus's fifth order, *tripetaloidææ*.

"The class enneandria, though a very small class, contains a number of important vegetables. Different species of *laurus* are highly important for medical or domestic purposes. Camphor is the produce of the *laurus camphora*, cinnamon of the *laurus cinnamomum*, and cassia of the *laurus cassia*. To the *laurus benzoin*, the people of the United States have ascribed useful medical powers. The *laurus sassafras*, or *sassafras*, is entitled to the attention of physicians. The leaves of the *laurus borbonia* are used as a spice in some parts of the United States. The *laurus nobilis*, which the Greeks called *Δάφνη*, is the species which was dedicated to Apollo, and employed as a crown or garland for the heads of the Roman emperors, pontiffs, and poets.

"The different species of *rhubarb* are valuable cathartics, particularly the *rheum palmatum*, or palmated *rhubarb*. I think it not improbable that North America possesses some native species of this genus. Be this as it may, the cultivation of *rhubarb* ought to be attended to in the United States.

"The United States possess few plants of the class enneandria. It is true that several

species of *laurus* are natives of this great tract of country; but our species are by no means constantly furnished with nine stamens: thus, *laurus sassafras* is sometimes found dioicous, and *laurus borbonia* belongs to decandria. *Butomus* (flowering rush) is the only British plant."

Dr. Barton condemns, in pointed terms, Gmelin's junction of the classes icosandria and polyandria, and does not concur with Thunberg in abolishing gynandria, monœcia, and diœcia; but agrees with Dr. Smith and others in referring the genera of syngenesia monogamia to pentandria; is of opinion that the class polygamia ought to be suppressed; and cannot help thinking that the sexual system would be improved, if the genera of dodecandria, which have more than ten stamens, were removed to polyandria, and the rest disposed of in different classes, according to the number, insertion, &c. of the stamen.

The value of the work is considerably enhanced by the addition of thirty plates, most of them engraved from the original drawings of Mr. William Bartram, of Ringsessing, in the vicinity of Philadelphia, and chiefly representing American plants which have not before been figured.

ART. VI. *Miscellanea naturalia, sine Dissertationes variae ad Historiam naturalem spectantes. Autore A. H. HAWORTH, Linn. Soc. Londini socio.*

THESE dissertations are annexed to the *Lepidoptera Britannica* reviewed in a preceding article; but as the latter work, when completed, will be of size sufficient for a volume; and as the author intends to publish several other dissertations similar to the present, which, connected with them, will form another, we have been induced to consider them as distinct works, and on account of their subject, to place these dissertations in the botanical part of our present chapter.

The first, and most considerable, is a new arrangement of the genus *meibomia*, and descriptions of such species as were not described before, with their places of growth, duration, and times of flowering. This genus has long been a favourite with the cultivators of exotic plants, on account of the singularity of some species, and the beauty of others; but unfortunately they make no figure in the herbaria of botanists, owing to the impossibility of preserving most of them in a dried state, with any tolerable resemblance to the general form of the growing plant, and, still less, so as to

discriminate their minuter, but often essential, characteristic parts. Only forty-five were known to Linnæus; and no addition was made to the list by Reichard: Willdenow enumerates 86: our author has increased them to 211; more than 160 of which he himself possesses in a living state. Having long entertained a strong predilection for this curious genus, he published observations upon it about ten years ago. Since that time he has greatly increased his collection, and has had the satisfaction to see various species perfect their flowers, he believes, for the first time in Europe. He has now, therefore, published all the known species, describing distinctly the parts of fructification of such as are new, with specific characters, often improved, of those which he had before described; but referring his readers to his former work for particular details. We suppose that he was restrained by a delicate, and in itself laudable, unwillingness to make the lovers of a favourite science purchase the same matter twice; but we should have been better pleased if he had incor-

porated into this all that is essential in the former publication, and thus made one complete whole. In a course of study, every one must expect to be sometimes referred from one book to another for further information. But, even though the other book is at hand, which cannot always be the case, the trouble which it gives is so tedious and perplexing, and, with the utmost care, it is so often productive of mistakes, that we could wish to have it prevented as much as possible.

As some of the sections in the former observations were not universally approved, Mr. Haworth has re-arranged and new modelled the genus, in a manner which he conceives will not admit of farther improvement or alteration. His present divisions are thirteen.

1. *Minima*. Acaulia, obconica, seu obcordata, vel rarius sphæroidea; foliis retusissimis & usque ad apices connatis; floribus sessilibus.

2. *Subcaulia*. Caulibus nullis vel brevissimis, radice perenni.

Subdivided into *moniliformis*, *integrifolia*, *denticulata* & *lingueformis*; the last divided again into *disticha*, *crucata*, *abbreviata*, & *dolabriforme*.

3. *Prostrata*. Caulibus prostratis, foliis confertis elongatis, petalis vel utrinque, vel intus luteis.

4. *Capitata*. Foliis densissime alternis capitatis longissimis; caule senectute decumbente, petalis a basi ad medium ciliatis.

5. *Planifolia*. Foliis planis sæpe subcarinatis; caulibus sæpe decumbentibus prostratis effusis.

Subdivided into *annua*, which are either *undulata*, with undulated or pinnatifid leaves, or *integra* with leaves entire and not undulated; *biennia*, *perennia*, & *incognita*, seu radice ignota.

6. *Canaliculata*. Foliis linearibus, junctibus canaliculatis subtus convexis, ramis sæpe suffrutescentibus, radice sæpe perenni, rarius annua.

Subdivided into *annua*, *spinulifera*, & *varia*.

7. *Vesperflorea*. Caulibus suffrutescentibus gracilibus duris, & in hoc genere valde defoliatis, foliis teretiusculis imbricatis, calycibus quadrifidis, corollis odoratis intus albis, radicibus ætate carioso-incrassatis, fibris perpaucis.

8. *Rubicunda*. Ramis suffrutescentibus glabris, foliis (divisione prima excepta) compresso-triquetris nudis, apicibus rec-

tis: petalis (m. edule heterophyllo & dilatato exceptis) rubicundis.

Subdivided into *teretiuscula*, *compressa*, *falcata*, *scabrida*, *brevifolia*, & *repantia*.

9. *Flaviflora*. Caulibus suffrutescentibus sæpe erectis, foliis triquetris sæpe brevissimis, petalis flavis, aurantiis vel coccineis.

Subdivided into *perfoliosa*, *tardiflora*, & *frequentiflora*.

10. *Adunca*. Foliis distinctis (sine vaginis incrassatis) apicibus plus minusve aduncis, petalis rubicundis, caulibus suffrutescentibus, rarissime repantibus.

Subdivided into *claudentia*, with flowers closing at night, and *inclaudentia*, with flowers not closing.

11. *Perfoliata*. Caulibus duris lignosis, foliis valde connatis triquetris; vaginis carnosissimis, apicibus aduncis; floribus sæpius albis, rarius rubicundis.

Subdivided into *axillaria*, & *paniculata*.

12. *Aspericaulia*. Caulibus suffrutescentibus, ramulis plus minusve scabris.

13. *Hispida*. Ramulis vel foliis vel apicibus foliorum plus minusve hispidis.

Subdivided into *hispicaulia*, *hispidifolia*, & *barbifolia*.

We cannot refrain from entering a strenuous protest against the terms *rubicunda*, & *flaviflora*, employed as names of divisions. They are manifestly improper; first, because both of them contain species with flowers of different colours from those indicated by their names; and secondly, because there are flowers of those colours in the other sections. A similar objection may be made to the term *adunca*. All classical, ordinal, generic, and sectional significant names, should be strictly exclusive, and completely comprehensive.

The generic, essential, and natural characters, prefixed to the enumeration of the species, are entirely new, and are so drawn up as to include the whole; a work of no small labour, and at the same time of no less importance. It has been too much the practice, even of good botanists, to pay a superstitious regard to the generic characters of Linnæus, without attending to the alterations which are become absolutely necessary by the discovery of new species, evidently belonging to the same genus, though they differ from the former species in some of the parts of fructification. A generic character, comprehending the calyx, corolla, stamen, pistil, germen, pericarp, and

seed, must necessarily be lax in many particulars. The essential character, on the other hand, being formed from one or two, should not contain a single iota which does not exist in every species. A natural character, taking in all the parts of the plant, must, in every large genus, be unavoidably so prolix, and in many cases so perplexing, even when it is not in itself confused, that we have some doubt whether it be really worth the time and trouble required to draw it up. In all monographs, and local floras, it should, as far as practicable, be separately formed for each species.

The specific characters, descriptions, &c. are in Latin; the occasional observations, as in the *Lepidoptera Britannica*, are in English. Those annexed to *m. floribundum* contain so much new and curious matter that, though longer than we wish, we cannot resist the temptation to lay them before our readers.

“Obs. 1. The mature and exsiccated capsules of many, and probably of all mesembryanthema, but of this species in particular, possess, in a very lively manner, the properties of an hygrometer. In showery weather in autumn I have seen them expand, and contract themselves again, several times in the course of a day. When expanded, they have a pretty, but very unusual appearance; and resemble considerably the flowers of a stapelia; but their segments are more obtuse. If the dried capsules are well moistened with water, or any other fluid of equal tenuity, they will unfold themselves in the course of a few minutes; and, when dried again, they will spontaneously close up. The cause of this unusual sensibility, on the access of humidity or drought, is exceedingly interesting, and but little understood. In order to make it intelligible, I must first explain the interior structure of the valves of the capsule, and indeed of all its inner parts; for upon their conformation depend entirely the above mentioned motions. In the centre of the mature exsiccated capsules, when expanded, are seen five concave, obcordated, and somewhat trapeziform membranes; which are in close contact, and form the figure of a rose, that stretches horizontally, in the manner of an awning over (but not in contact with) the ripe seeds, which appear to lie beneath it in their proper cells; but are in this state easily dislodged by the smallest force. The five segments of the expanded capsules on their interior surfaces, are each *bisectirigenous*; that is, each of the segments is furnished with two parallel (but at their points divaricating) hatchet-shaped callosities, or springs, which are attached longitudinally, but edgewise, to the capsular segments; their bases are insert-

ed into the obcordated bases of the above-mentioned central membranes, and their apices are each joined to another membrane, nearly of a semilunar shape, which, (standing up perpendicularly in the centre of the capsular segments) surrounds the exterior and most erect part of their apices, and then unites them to the apices of the capsular segments. The semilunate membranes are themselves united at their tips; they stand up nearly erect, and form a pellucid connecting arch between the two hatchet-shaped springs, and enable them to dilate and contract in perfect unison. This membranous arch, from spring to spring, stands up almost perpendicularly, and nearly central on the capsular segments, and forms a very interesting appearance. Through the arch-way may be seen in profile (for it stretches over a perfect vacuity) the different parts above described.

“Now upon the dilatation and contraction of their hatchet-shaped springs, entirely depend the opening and closing of the capsules of *m. floribundum*. The springs being perfect and lively hygrometers are affected by the access of humidity or drought. In wet weather their component parts are dilated and extended; in dry they are tightened and contracted. When the springs are dilated, they forcibly push open the segments of the capsule in an horizontal manner; but when they are contracted, they draw them up and close with an equal force, and this often more than once (and that naturally) in the course of the same day.

“Obs. 2. In every stage of these extraordinary occurrences, I behold and contemplate the wise contrivances of an omnipotent creator. These humble vegetables are hereby enabled to sow their seeds, at that moment of time which is unquestionably the most proper for them; that is, when the sands deserts of their nativity are moistened with the seasonable blessings of rain, which not only assists in expelling the seeds from their expanded lodgements, but absolutely imbeds them in a soil prepared for their reception.”

The second dissertation relates to the genus tetragonia, nearly allied to mesembryanthemum. After a concise history of the genus, with the generic names by which some or other of its species have been distinguished in the works of different authors, nine species are enumerated, eight of which had been already admitted by Thunberg and Walldenow. Seven of these are technically described from living plants in the possession of the author: the *hirsuta* he has not seen either recent or dried, and the *apicata* only once in the royal garden at Kew, but without an opportunity of composing a description.

The third dissertation has for its sub-

ject the genus *portulaca*, uniformly misspelt, in the present work, *portulacca*. This genus has been divided by Jussieu, Willdenow, and others, into two, but, as Mr. Haworth thinks, not with sufficiently constant and appropriate generic distinctions. Willdenow in particular has confined the generic name *portulaca* to those which have a *capsula* 1-*locularis*, *circumscissa*; and has placed under the new genus *talinum* those which he conceives have a *capsula* 3-*valvis* & *semina* *arillata*. But that these are not real generic distinctions our author is convinced by four nondescript species, which induced him to study the genus, and occasioned the present dissertation, under the disadvantage of having had no opportunity of examining more than eight other species. These new species are so nearly allied to *p. anacampseros*, that they cannot with propriety be separated from it, and yet have not the 3-valved capsule attributed to *talinum*, under which it has been lately arranged. All five, indeed, agree in not having arillated seeds; but this, it is presumed, Willdenow himself cannot esteem a solid generic character, since, in the case of *hordeum vulgare*, and its variety, he does not allow it to form even a specific one. Mr. Haworth has therefore preferred keeping the genus, for the present, entire; but he thinks it may probably hereafter be divided into four at least. He has thrown them in the interim into two grand divisions, *dearillate*, *arillate*, and has subdivided them according to the difference of their leaves.

The fourth dissertation is a new arrangement of the genus *saxifraga*, as far as it is cultivated in the British gardens. It extends to forty-nine species, forty-seven of which are growing in Mr. Haworth's collection, and twenty-six of them are natives of Great Britain: the other two, which he has not seen either

living or dead, are taken up from the *Hortus Kewensis*. They are arranged under the following sections: *nudicaules*, *irregulares*, *ligulate*, *ciliate*, *lobate*, and *stolonifera*. The second section contains only the well known anomalous *s. sarmentosa*.

Of the last three genera, generic and natural characters are given; but to the genus *portulaca* he has not ventured to assign an essential character.

The fifth dissertation contains a description of twenty-four species which, as far as the author knows, have not been before described, viz.; three species of *crassula*, one of *ornithogalum*, four of *narcissus*, one of *cotyledon*, three of *oxalis*, four of *euphorbia*, one of *sempervivum*, six of *cactus*, and one of *calceola*. All of them are now alive in his possession, except the *ornithogalum*, for a sight of which, in a living state, he is indebted to Mr. Whitley, of Brompton, who received roots of it from the Cape of Good Hope in 1803.

The sixth and last dissertation consists of observations on several technical terms used by Linnæus, or others, in the science of botany, which are either obscure, and of difficult comprehension, or misapplied, or synonymous with others in actual use.

Mr. Haworth gives us reason to expect, in a future publication, dissertations on the following subjects: 1. *Aves Britannicæ*, seu *Synopsis avium Britannicarum*, with remarks. 2. *Reptilia Britannica*, with remarks. 3. An account of the genus *crassula*, of the genus *euphorbia*, and the genus *cactus*, with descriptions chiefly derived from living specimens in his own collection. We hope to be able in our next volume to announce their appearance. Original descriptions, with remarks, from so diligent and acute an observer, will always possess a sterling value.

ART. VII. *Flora Britannica*. Auctore JACOBO EDUARDO SMITH, M. D. Societatis Linnæanæ Preside. Imp. nat. Cur. Regiæ Londinensis. Holm. Upsal. Taurin. Olyssip. Philadelphia.—Physiogr. Lund. Berolin, Paris. aliarumque societatum socio. 8vo. vol. 3.

THE British naturalists, in general, and especially the lovers of botany, have great reason to congratulate each other on the singularly favourable combination of circumstances, which brought to this country the entire museum, and library, with all the MSS. of Linnæus. It is still more fortunate that they became the property of an ardent pursuer of natural science, who not only knows how to

make good use of them himself, but takes a pleasure in permitting a liberal use of them to all who are engaged in the same studies. It was probably this auspicious acquisition, made at a critical time in the fervour of youth, which fixed the character of his mind, and rendered the object of his early predilection the chief employment of his life. Besides numerous other literary labours, in which it has

induced and enabled him to engage, and which are incessantly increasing our acquaintance with the vegetable kingdom, we are indebted to it for a better national flora than we before possessed; and perhaps, with the exception of the Flora Lapponica and Suecica of Linnæus, than any other part of Europe can boast.

The late able and excellent Mr. Hudson, in the year 1762, first naturalized the sexual system in this country, by adapting it to our English plants. The ground-work of the Flora Anglica, as could not but be the case, was the well known Synopsis of Ray; and it aimed at little more than to dispose the species of that admirable author in the Linnæan method of arrangement, with the synonyms of Caspar Bauhin, and the old English botanists. In the second edition, which did not appear till the year 1778, after having been long and earnestly called for, many errors, unavoidable in a first attempt, were corrected, and many valuable particulars added. But still much was wanting to the perfection of a British flora; nor were the deficiencies supplied by the botanical arrangement of Dr. Withering, though at first respectably executed, and, in the second edition, by the aid of Dr. Jonathan Stokes, Mr. Woodward, and other friends of the author, greatly improved.

It was reserved for the possessor of the Linnæan herbarium to dispel the doubts, correct the errors, and lessen the difficulties which attended the study of British plants, notwithstanding the labours of these eminent botanists. The first two volumes of the Flora Britannica, published in the year 1800, are so well known to all naturalists both at home and abroad, that we should only tell our readers what they already know, were we to enter into a minute detail of its peculiar excellences, or to expatiate on the fullness and accuracy of the original descriptions by which almost every species is illustrated. We shall only observe, that Dr. Smith has a mind too firm, and principles too solid, to be smitten with every innovation which has been introduced into his favourite science; and, on the other hand, is too sincerely and warmly actuated by the love of truth, not to receive whatever appears to his sober judgment an improvement of the system of his great master; and that he has therefore steered a middle course, and in these volumes has only abolished the order monogamia in the class syngenesia,

and distributed in other classes those genera of the twenty-third, in which the complete and the perfect flowers have the same general structure.

The third volume, which is now directly before us, begins with the class gynandria; and in this class we find nothing entitled to particular notice, except that orchis coriophora, and *o. abortiva*, are discarded from the British Flora, the plant in Ray's Synopsis, which had been supposed a synonym of the former, being certainly not the coriophora of Linnæus, but, as far as a judgment can be formed from the imperfect character, a variety of *satyrium hircinum*; and that ascribed to the latter being beyond all doubt *orobanche cærulea* of the Flora Britannica.

In the class monœcia nothing new occurs but the introduction of *arum*, the flowers of which, Dr. Smith observes, are by no means gynandrous, and, in the relative situation of the stamens and pistil, exactly resemble the regular monœcium plants. *Carex* is the most difficult British genus of this class; but it has been so successfully investigated by Dr. Goodenough and Mr. Woodward, that nothing was left for Dr. Smith but to establish the *davalliana* as a British species, of which an imperfect specimen had been sent to those gentlemen from Scotland, and to add the four other species which also had already been described by himself, in a paper addressed to the Linnean Society, and published in their fifth volume.

The genus *salix*, in the class monœcia has long been numbered among the *probria botanicorum*. Linnæus has only thirty-one species: of these Hudson in his first edition, inserted seventeen natives of Great Britain, with the addition of *rubra* taken up from Ray. The second edition has the same number with some variation in the species. Withering, in his first edition, copied eighteen of Hudson, and in his third increased the number to twenty-two: though Linnæus acknowledged the difficulty of settling the species, the imperfection of all the descriptions then published, and the necessity of studying and arranging the genus anew, little was done to diminish the confusion till the publication of the present work. Dr. Smith has ascertained forty-five British species, of all which he has drawn original descriptions; and, though he does not offer it as a complete and perfect

accurate enumeration, it bears all the marks of his extensive knowledge, and discriminating judgment. Unfortunately he has, in some instances, been able to obtain the plants of only one sex, and has been obliged to leave the character of the species so far imperfect. It is possible, moreover, that some which he has published as new may prove varieties of species already described; and he himself informs us, in the addenda and corrigenda, annexed to this volume, that his *multifolia* is probably a variety of *s. hastata* of Linnæus; but, as he had not admitted that species, no diminution is hereby made of the British species. We learn also from a late number of English botany, that having seen only the leaves of a plant, found on the mountains of Scotland, he erroneously supposed it the *myrtilloides* of Linnæus; but the catkins, which have since been produced, prove it to be clearly a new species, which he now calls *Dicksoniana*, in honour of its first well-known discoverer. The true *myrtilloides* has not been found in Great Britain. Another new species has also been recently figured in that work, which has been found in Norfolk by Mr. Crowe, to which the trivial name *hirta* is given. Dr. Smith acknowledges his great obligation to the friendly communications of this gentleman, and Mr. Dickson, in his study of this intricate genus. The subdivisions of Linnæus, founded on the margin and surface of the leaves, are retained for the present; but Dr. Smith is of opinion that much better may be formed, taken from the germen, as it is either sessile, or pedicelled; the style, as it is either elongated, very short, or none; and the stigma, as it is either entire, or biparite.

In conformity with the principles which he had adopted, our author was obliged to leave *atriplex* alone in the class *polygamia*. We regret the necessity of separating it so widely from *cheopodium*, to which it is so nearly allied in habit and general characters: and, did not the numerous exotic genera stand in the way, we should be inclined to consider the different structure of the female flower as only a generic distinction, and place this new solitary British plant by the side of its natural relative.

It is in the class *cryptogamia*, where Linnæus had left the most to be done, that the greatest improvement was to be

expected from the good sense and acuteness of the president of the Linnæan society.

The filices he has divided into *annulata*, with capsules encircled by an elastic ring; and *exannulata*, without that appendage; and has thus abolished Schreber's very unscientific order, *miscellanæ*. He has admitted, of course, the new genera *gothea* and *hymenophyllum*, which was established by himself in his dissertation on ferns, printed by the Turin Academy; the former taken from *polypodium*, on account of the hemispherical calyx which bursts at the top without an operculum; the latter from *trichomanes*, on account of its two-valved involucre. Since the publication of that dissertation, he has adopted the opinion of Swartz in separating also from *polypodium*, under the name of *aspidium*, such species as have an umbilicated involucre, leaving, in the original genus *polypodium*, only those which have no involucre at all. He had already, in the Turin dissertation, taken *scolopendrium* and *ceterach* from *asplenium*, and united them under the old generic name *scolopendrium*. On the other hand, he considers *acrosticum septentrionale* of Linnæus, and other authors, as a true *asplenium*. *Pilularia* and *isoetes*, he conjectures, may not improperly be removed; the former to *monœcia polyandria*, and the latter to *monœcia monandria*.

It was not till after mature deliberation, and the caution suited to his character, that he has been induced to embrace Hedwig's system of mosses as a substitute for the acknowledged very imperfect one of Linnæus; and, after all, he has admitted only such of its parts as are the easiest in practice, and seem to have the best foundation in nature.

In consequence of his new generic characters, *anictangium* of Hedwig is absorbed in *gymnostomum*; *weissia*, in *grimmia*; *fissidens*, in *dicranum*; *barbula*, in *tortula*; *leskea*, in *hypnum*; *webbera*, *pohlia*, and *meesia*, in *bryum*; *didymodon*, and *cynodontium*, in *trichostomum*, with the exception of such species as have only sixteen teeth in the fringe, which are referred to *grimmia*.

The complex and irregular orders, *algæ* and *fungi*, remain yet unpublished; and we are sorry to learn from a recent periodical publication, that the excellent author has been interrupted in his stu-

dies by a painful disorder in his eyes,—a complaint peculiarly unpropitious to a student of cryptogamous plants. But we earnestly hope that it will not be long before we see this first-rate production completed; and we trust that he will then think of rendering another great and much desired service to the Flora of his native land. Hitherto he has written for the learned; and, considering that his work will be sought for by the botanists of all Europe, he has done well to communicate his knowledge in a language universally understood by men of liberal education. But his fair countrywomen have a claim upon him which, we are persuaded, he has too much gallantry to contemn or to neglect. We know that numbers of them impatiently wait for the time, when the access to this enchanting science shall be rendered more easy and pleasant to them than it has yet been. Dr. Hull's British Flora is a useful companion in their walks abroad, and when they travel to a distance in a postchaise; but it is too concise to afford them every needful assistance at home; and Dr. Withering's larger work is often more perplexing than instructive, owing to the different descriptions of the same plant, either translated from foreign authors, or communicated to him by English friends, which, in many places, do not exactly correspond with each other, and, in fact, do not always belong to the same species. The simple, but full and perspicuous descriptions of Dr. Smith are precisely what they want. A brief introduction to the science, written in his natural lively style, and with his original train of thought, would also be peculiarly acceptable; and we are persuaded that it would be drawn up by him in such a manner, as entirely to remove the objections which are often made to the admission of females into this part of the temple of science. The study of botany, it is generally acknowledged, would be admirably suited to the natural elegance of their taste, and to their quick sense of the beautiful, the curious, and the useful, if it were not for the indelicate terms which are thought to be inseparably attached to the sexual system. The complaint, we confess, has not been entirely without foundation. When almost every writer talks of the male and female organs of generation in plants, and when the prurient imagination of a Darwin is

tickled with the idea, that he had caught two anthers belonging to neighbouring flowers in the very act of adultery, it is no wonder that a prudent father, and a trembling mother, wish to exclude such shameless books from a daughter's small and selected library. But we assert with confidence, because we speak from experience, that the fault has not been in the science, but in those who profess to teach it. We are sure that all which is necessary to be known of the sexual system, may be taught to a circle of young ladies who have attained to the age of sixteen, without forcing a blush into the cheeks of the most modest, or producing a smile on the countenance of the most lively and sportive. The simple truth, that in this respect there is some analogy between the vegetable and animal creation, when told in a few guarded words, will excite in them no ideas which are not already familiar to their minds, and which do not daily occur to their notice, without hurting their sensibility, or awakening a single improper feeling. They speak continually of a horse and a mare, a ram and an ewe, a cock and a hen, with a vague idea of the difference, and with nothing more; and why may they not be told, that there is a similar distinction in every part of organized nature? If it can be done with innocence and propriety in the case of animals, it must be still less exceptionable in the case of vegetables; for, in fact, there is in these nothing more than a remote analogy, without the shadow of a resemblance; and, when the general statement has once been made, there is no reason why it should ever be repeated, or brought again into view. To the recurrence of the words *male* and *female* there could, perhaps, be no valid objection; but *hermaphrodite* is an ugly term, which cannot be decently explained, and which we should earnestly wish might never pass their lips, or meet their eyes. It is, therefore, in our judgment, best to banish all three from common use, and to speak only of stamens and pistils; stameniferous, pistiliferous, and complete flowers. We are well aware that our great master has offended, in this respect, at least as much as any of his disciples: but he wrote in Latin; and it is generally supposed that, since that language has ceased to be a living one, nothing written in it can be liable to the charge of gross obscenity, scarcely of a

departure from the just rules of a becoming modesty. We ourselves, however, are decidedly of opinion that Linæus sometimes wrote what should not have been written, even in Latin. From Dr. Smith we are in fear of no such abuse; and we take our leave of him for

the present, with a pleasing hope that he will not fail to remove the opprobrium; and that, arraying the British Flora in the chaste and delicate graces which are her proper character, he will prove that she is a fit associate for the fairest and most exalted part of the living creation.

ART. VIII. *Musculogia Hibernica Spicilegium. Auctore* DAWSON TURNER, A. M. Soc. reg. Ant. & Linn. Lond. Imp. Ac. nat. cur. phys. Gell. necnon Lit. nov. cast. socie.

WHEN we parted from Mr. Turner two years ago, he gratified us with an intimation that we should probably see him again; but we did not expect to find him on the other side of the Irish Channel. He is indeed so instructive and pleasing a companion, that we should rejoice to be accosted by him in any part of the world, except the deserts of Arabia. In that arid climate, and thirsty soil, not even a moss can continue to live. We can, therefore, have no objection to meet him in a country which we have long been accustomed to love as a sister kingdom, and with which, in defiance of the table of prohibited kindred, we have lately formed a more intimate union, so as to become one flesh; and we cannot help wishing, that the act of parliament, which made it part and parcel of the realm of Great Britain, had contained a clause to have it included in the name, that the term Flora Britannica might literally extend to this humid paradise of mosses and lichens.

Mr. Turner was first induced to write upon mosses, by a desire to familiarize to his countrymen the system of Hedwig, which is now generally received on the continent, that British and foreign botanists might employ the same terms, and readily comprehend each other's meaning. He also wished to comprise in a small compass, the chief of what has been published in different parts of Europe, in a great number of volumes, some of which cannot easily be procured, and others are too expensive to be generally purchased. He was led to choose the mosses of Ireland for the immediate subject of his work, by a grateful recollection of the pleasure he enjoyed, and the friendly reception he experienced during a short visit to that seat of generous hospitality. Illud, he adds, in the glowing language of enthusiastic rapture, etiam me multum impulit, ut insulæ, in qua, tantillum modo moratus, benevolentiae amicitiaeque plurimum sum expertus, insulæ, Imperio Britannico nuper

connexæ per arctissima conjunctionis vincula ("quod sit, O! felix quod & usque felix!") thesauri vegetabiles per me magis innotescerent. Est enim Hibernia nostra, terra quâ nulla magis muscorum ferax: excelsi montes, præruptæ rupes, profundi saltus, immensæque, quibus abundat, paludes, humilibus hisce regni vegetabilis civibus sedes dilectas præbent; mira quoque solî diversitas, aerque, ut in montosis, sæpius humidus. Hinc quæ rarissime in Angliâ, vel etiam in Cambriâ, capsules typnæ proferunt, ibi fructifera abundanter reperi; magisque, quam in regionibus nostris luxuriare species fere singulæ mihi visæ sunt.

He was not ignorant that Dr. Smith was at that time busily engaged in the same study for the work which has just passed in review before us. But he was too well acquainted with the liberal character of that great naturalist, to suspect that he should be regarded as a rival, and that his work would excite envy and dislike. The manner in which he expresses himself on the subject has afforded us such lively satisfaction, that we are desirous of sharing it with our readers. Illud jam tantummodò dicendum superest, me——in hoc opere scribendo, neutiquam amici suavissimi, Smithi, qui nunc jam Floræ suæ Britannicæ incumbit, æmulatione moveri. Id certe doleo, quòd ambo de iisdem plantis eodem tempore disserendo occupati, non quod vellemus uterque, auxilium mutuò conferre potuimus. Quantum id fieri potuit factum est; quâ de re spero sententias nostras in paucis modò esse discrepaturas; dulcissimum enim fructum profert historiæ naturalis cultura, dum virorum iisdem studiis ejusdemque veritatis indagatione conjunctorum commercium, benevolentiam, amicitiam comparat.

If we be not misled by too partial a fondness for a favourite science, such is the sincere language of every genuine naturalist; and such are the feelings which all his studies have a direct ten-

dency to excite. The frequent intercourse which subsists between these brothers in affection, as well as in taste, may be expected to have produced a general similarity in their views. We accordingly find that they concur in regarding the terminal or axillary situation of the flowers, and the delicate structure of the inner fringe, often too minute to be discerned by the naked eye, as not sufficient generic distinctions; but, as Mr. Turner apprehended must be the case, some differences have arisen, which we think it incumbent upon us to state, for the information of our readers, and we shall do it with all the clearness and brevity in our power.

The genera in the present work are arranged as follows:

- I. Capsulæ ore nullo. Phascum.
- II. Capsulæ ore nudo. Sphagnum, gymnostomum, anictangium.
- III. Capsulæ ore aucto peristomio.
 - A. Peristomio simplici, dentibus indivisis. Tetraxis, andræa, splachnum, encalypta, grimmia, pterogonium.
 - B. Peristomio simplici, dentibus bifidis. Trichostomum, tortula, dicranum.
 - C. Peristomio simplici; dentium apicibus membranâ connexis. Polytrichum.
 - D. Peristomio duplici; exteriore dentibus sedecim; interiore ciliis totidem. Orthotrichum, necera.
 - E. Peristomio duplici; exteriore dentibus sedecim; interiore membranâ. Buxbaumia, funaria, bartramia, bryum, hypnum, fontinalis.

Phascum multicapsulare (sphaerocarpon of Abbot) Mr. Turner thinks only a variety of *crispum*, with somewhat shorter leaves. *Serratum*, and *stoloniferum*, considered as distinct species by Dr. Smith, are also united in this work, with the approbation of Mr. Dickson.

Anictangium is admitted as a genus, though it differs from *gymnostomum* only in having axillary flowers. The *ciliatum* (*bryum apocarpum* Lin.) is the only species hitherto found in Ireland; and it differs, Mr. Turner says, so much from the *gymnostoma* in form and habit, that he could not avoid following Hedwig, and nature, in considering it as an *anictangium*, notwithstanding the female flowers sometimes proceed from the ends of the branches. But in our conceptions

this is rather a proof, that the two genera of Hedwig ought to be united, as they have been by Dr. Smith; and that general habit, in this artificial system, is not a matter of essential consequence.

Andræa, Mr. Turner conceives to be the connecting link between the *musci* and *hepaticæ*, sufficiently distinct from *jungermannia*, with which it was confounded by Linnæus, and at the same time very unlike the other *musci*.

Splachnum rugosum of Dickson and Smith he thinks scarcely different from *ovatum*; and the gracile of the same authors differs from *sphæricum* only in its shorter peduncle, the leaves of both being obsoletely serrated.

Though Dr. Smith, and all other authors, have separated *encalypta* from *grimmia*: Mr. Turner has followed them with great reluctance; and, as it appears to him, in opposition to nature, being fully convinced that the narrow, linear teeth of the peristome, and the lax campanulate calyptra, are not proper generic distinctions; the *bryum davisii* of Mr. Dickson, for instance, having the calyptra of *encalypta*, and the broad teeth of *grimmia*; and, on the other hand, the *bryum lanceolatum* of Dickson having the linear teeth of *encalypta*, and the calyptra of *grimmia*. As a proof of the uncertainty, we find that the former is considered as an *encalypta* by Dr. Smith, and as a *grimmia* by Mr. Turner; and the latter, as a *grimmia* by Dr. Smith, and as an *encalypta* by Mr. Turner. The *grimmia homomalla* (*didymodon* of Hedwig) Mr. Turner thinks not different from *g. heteromalla*.

Mr. Turner has altered the generic character of *pterogonium*, to admit *dicranum sciuroides* of other authors, which he says has no affinity to any of the real *dicrana*; for, though Hedwig's figure may create some doubt, in his own specimen the teeth are divided to the base, which, notwithstanding the number is thereby doubled, will fix it a *pterogonium*: sixteen, or thirty-two teeth, accordingly makes part of his generic character. Dr. Smith acknowledges that, in the form of the peristome, and in the teeth, being nearly divided to the base, it departs a little from the character of *dicranum*; and that it has the habit, but not the character, of *pterogonium*.

Trichostomum polyphyllum of Mr. Turner is the *t. cirratum* of the *Flora Britannica*. and the same plant with *dicranum polyphyllum* figured in English

botany, and since inserted under the same name in *Flora Britannica*, where it consequently occurs twice. The long brittle teeth of this trichostomum are often found broken short, so as to resemble those of dicranum, a circumstance which led Dr. Smith into the mistake, who says of his *t. cirratum*, that it has the habit of dicranum polyphyllum, but is larger. Mr. Turner has given a figure of the whole plant, with separate ones of the perfect and mutilated teeth of the peristome, which clearly prove its identity with *d. polyphyllum* of English Botany. *T. ericoides*, fasciculare, and canescens are, in Mr. Turner's opinion, only varieties of the same species.

Under the genus *tortula* two species are inserted, *humilis* and *apiculata*, which do not appear in the *Flora Britannica*; the former allied to *subulata*, the latter differing from specimens received from America only in its pedicells, being a little longer, and capsules more cylindrical.

Dicranum bryoides, and *viridulum*, Mr. Turner pronounces the same plant, not only on the authority of Swartz, but having himself found that the difference arises merely from difference of situa-

tion, and that one of them actually passes into the other.

To *buxbaumia foliosa* the very singular species *aphyllum* is now first added to the British Flora, of which, however, there is at present only a single specimen, found on rocks near the Lake of Killarney.

In the body of the work Mr. Turner has expressed a suspicion, that *bryum fasciculatum* of Mr. Dickson does not differ from *grimmia verticillata*, to which it is actually annexed as a synonym in the *Flora Britannica*; but he informs us in the preface that, having since received specimens from Mr. Dickson himself, he is convinced it is a distinct species.

Mnium is united with *bryum*, in opposition to the opinion of Dr. Smith, who considers the furrowed ripe capsule as a decisive generic distinction.

Through the whole work the characters which separate kindred species are carefully pointed out, and a laudable disposition is manifested not to increase the number of species, by raising minute differences to the rank of specific distinctions. Twenty-six of the rarer or more dubious species are figured, elegantly drawn, and beautifully coloured from nature.

ART. IX. *Gramina Britannica; or, Representations of the British Grasses: with Remarks; and occasional Descriptions.* By I. L. KNAPP, Esq. F. L. S. and A. S. 4to.

WE have here the satisfaction to meet with another man of fortune, who devotes the leisure arising from his rank in life to the study of nature. Mr. Knapp has the felicity to possess the skill of the designer, as well as the knowledge of the botanist; and having directed his attention particularly to the investigation of grasses, has traversed almost every part of our island, that he might contemplate the indigenous species of this curious and numerous tribe in their several places of growth, and catch their living forms and manners. Botanical figures are often unavoidably taken from specimens sent in tin boxes to a great distance from their native soil; and, though sufficiently recent to enable the artist to draw them with scientific exactness, cannot be represented by him as they appear in the fields, or woods: for no one can copy what he never saw: and yet each of them has a specific air and character, which an experienced eye discerns at a single glance, before it has time, or is come near enough to them to perceive their peculiar structure. We are informed by the

author, that most of the figures in the present work were taken from drawings made by himself "from plants of his own gathering in their native stations, and, to the best of his opinion, judiciously selected;" and, as far as we are acquainted with them, he has happily succeeded in his design to exhibit their living images, with respect to their general outline, and mode of growth. The inflorescence also is delicately and accurately finished; but in the larger grasses the *prima-facie* likeness is much diminished, by the smallness of the scale on which they are drawn. As Mr. Knapp intended to publish a costly work, we could have wished that he had given us all the plants in nearly their natural dimensions; and, for this purpose, it would not have been necessary to emulate Mr. Lambert's magnificent publication on the genus, *pinus*. The size of the *Flora Londinensis* would have been sufficient; and, as two of the smaller species might have been engraved on the same plate, the expence would not have been greatly increased. But we recollect that we are

too late with our advice, and even with our wishes: all that we can properly do is to state to our readers that the figures in general are faithful and elegant, and that the colouring in particular is remarkably chaste and natural. Mr. Knapp has also availed himself of his opportunities for personal observation, to describe the different appearance which plants of the same species frequently assume in different situations, and has thereby done an acceptable service to the investigating botanist, in a branch of his inquiries which has always been the source of much perplexity and confusion.

As the title page promises only representations of the British grasses, with remarks and occasional descriptions, we have certainly no right to expect more; but we cannot avoid repeating, that we are strenuous advocates for complete detailed descriptions in all provincial, and, as far as possible, in all national works on botany. The minute parts, and especially the fructification of a plant which has been gathered only a few hours, may be examined with so much greater ease and certainty than a dried specimen, that the advantage should by no means be neglected whenever it occurs. Two or more species have, in numerous instances, been thought to be the same, because their respective individuals all answer to some established artificial character, though they differ from each other in several essential particulars, and consequently require the formation of new specific distinctions. In examining the plants here figured, we have not been without suspicion that one or two of them are in this predicament.

The Flora Britannica of Dr. Smith is professedly our author's principal guide: but he laudably thinks for himself, and follows the path pointed out to him by his own observation and experience. The *panicum verticillatum* of this work, and that figured under the same name in English Botany, are evidently different plants, and, as appears to us, different species. In Mr. Knapp's, the involuelli are about twice the length of the flower, and their spines, as well as those on the upper part of the culm, point upwards. But he observes in a note, that "he is strongly of opinion that Britain possesses another species or remarkable variety of *verticillatum*, as he has seen in several collections plants of this panic, said to

be indigenous, in which the spines on the upper part of the culm are pointed downwards, and the involuelli catch and attach themselves to every passing body, by means of their strong inverted spines." This is certainly the *verticillatum* of the English Botany: but we are inclined to think that the plant described in the Flora Britannica is that figured by Mr. Knapp, for Dr. Smith expressly says, that the bractes or involuelli are twice the length of the flower, whereas in English Botany, he observes that they do not reach far beyond the flower, and that their different length will pretty certainly distinguish the *verticillatum* and *viride* at first sight. The direction of the spines is, however, the best specific distinction; but to this circumstance Dr. Smith's attention did not happen to be directed when he wrote that part of the Flora Britannica.

Mr. Knapp describes the *pedicelli* of both the *verticillatum* and the *viride* as "curiously hollowed out like a cup to receive the florets, which are so very slightly fixed in them that they are frequently detached by the expansion of the calyx;" and he thinks it probable that "the object of the third valve of the calyx is to accomplish this purpose, and elevate by its extension the florets from their stipes." It is worthy of enquiry whether the *verticillatum* of English Botany has similar cup-shaped *pedicelli*. *Panicum viride* is said by Leers to have *pedicelli vix conspicui nodoso-truncati*.

It is remarked by Mr. Knapp, that the corolla in *panicum verticillatum*, *viride* & *crusgalli*, "is remarkable, and a singularity in our grasses, nature having appointed it with three valves, the third valve being a fine transparent membrane, to be found attached to the inner valve of the corolla, and hidden by the inner valve of the calyx." Dr. Smith in English Botany (876) says, that "in *crusgalli* a thin elliptical membrane," clearly expressed in Mr. Sowerby's figure, and corresponding with Mr. Knapp's, "is clapped close to the inner valve of the corolla on the outside, which Dr. Stokes (Withering, ed. 2. 53) considers as a fourth valve of the calyx, no doubt justly, and mentions having seen it in the *viride* and some other species." "But," he adds, "we have not been equally successful in this respect," referring evidently to *viride*, &c. for it had certainly seen it in *crusgalli*. &c.

was, we believe, first perceived in England by Mr. Curtis in *p. crus-galli* and *sanguinale*, and considered by him as belonging to the corolla. Mr. Knapp in his account of the latter says, that he "thinks Mr. Curtis mentions the calyx as having four valves, and that he himself has occasionally found a minute membranaceous substance between the little valve at the base and the larger one, like an inner glume, but apparently so weak and small a membrane can scarcely afford the support that is the required office of the calyx." This, however, is not the situation assigned by Mr. Curtis to this membrane, and it seems surprising that Mr. Knapp did not suspect its similarity to what he had called a third valve of the corolla in his two preceding species. It had previously been observed by Leers, and called a third glume of the corolla, but with a conjecture that it may possibly be the rudiment of another floret. Leers found it constantly in glaucum, *crus-galli*, and *miliaceum*, but never in *viride*; whence, perhaps, it may be questioned whether his *viride* be that of other authors. Dr. Stokes in *Botanical Arrangements*, ed. 2, says that it exists, but in his idea as a fourth valve of the calyx, in glaucum, *viride*, *miliaceum*, *capillare*, *patens*, and even in *sanguinale*, where, preserving its proportion to the outer valve, it is with difficulty discovered.

Mr. Knapp supposes; that though the British, or rather Cornish specimens of *panicum dactylon* have only two valves to the calyx, contrary to the generic character, the continental ones have not that peculiarity. But this supposition is certainly erroneous. Linnæus, we believe, does not mention it in any of his works; but Haller placed this species with *sanguinale*, in which also he did not find the third valve, in a distinct genus, which he calls *digitana*: the genus was adopted by Adanson and Scopoli, and has been retained by Jussieu and Ventenat. Leers describes the third valve of the *sanguinaria* as *vix lente dignoscenda*, *sæpissime omnino nulla*, and, according to Mr. Curtis, it is so very small that it may be easily overlooked. Lamarck, and Paret, his successor in the alphabetical part of the *Encyclopédie Méthodique*, remove both species to the genus *paspalum*.

The generic character of *panicum* in the present work is taken from Dr. Smith's, in his *Flora Britannica*; but the term *coriicatum* applied to the corolla enclosing the ripened seed is uncouthly translated *cork-like*: in English Botany it is properly called the permanent, hardened corolla. If dactylon is to remain a *panicum*, we agree with Dr. Smith in thinking that this particular should constitute the whole generic character, for we cannot help regarding it as one of the greatest of all possible absurdities to admit an *essential* character which cannot be applied to every acknowledged species of the genus.

We should suppose that *alopecurus ovatus* of Mr. Knapp is a. *alpinus* of English Botany, 1126 (both being species recently discovered by Mr. G. Don, late of Forfar, now of the botanic garden at Edinburgh, and both gathered on the same mountains near Loch Nagarr, in Aberdeenshire), if it were not for the absolute inconsistency of their specific characters: that of *ovatus* in British grasses is "spike ovate; corolla *without an arista*:" that of *alpinus* in English Botany is "spike ovate; glumes of the calyx downy, without awns, and nearly as long as the awn of the corolla."* We can scarcely think it possible that the awn could be overlooked by Mr. Knapp, especially as he particularly mentions the want of it as a remarkable singularity among the British species; and yet it seems not a little surprising that neither of the English botanists, though both in actual correspondence with Mr. Don, should have been made acquainted with the plant figured and described by the other. Excepting this difference, the two figures exactly correspond; for the small spikelet at the base of the spike in Mr. Knapp's *ovatus* is, we presume, an accidental irregularity. Mr. Knapp has made a slight mistake in supposing *Loch-negar*, or *Loch Garr*, as it is spelt in Ainslie's large map of Scotland, to be a high mountain, the giant of Aberdeenshire: it is a small lake, or, as the Scotch spell the word, loch, at the head of, Glen Yalden, near the north-east termination of the Grampians.

In the difficult and much agitated genus *agrostis*, Mr. Knapp is of opinion that several British plants, which have

* *A. alpinus* was not known when the first two volumes of the *Flora Britannica* were published, but it appears with the same specific character among the addenda and corrigenda annexed to the third volume; and in the detailed description the awn is said to be subtorilis, scabra, purpurea, vix calyce longior.

been treated as distinct species, are nothing more than varieties; and he thinks the twelve species enumerated by Dr. Withering, in his botanical arrangement, may be thus reduced.

<i>A. spica-venti</i>	-	<i>spica-venti</i> .
<i>A. canina</i>		
<i>A. palustris</i>	}	- <i>canina</i> .
<i>A. pallida</i>		
<i>A. vinealis</i>		
<i>A. alpina</i>	-	- <i>setacea</i> .
<i>A. littoralis</i>	-	- <i>littoralis</i> .
<i>A. stolonifera</i>	}	- <i>stolonifera</i> .
<i>A. maritima</i>		
<i>A. vulgaris</i>	}	- <i>vulgaris</i> .
<i>A. nigra</i>		
<i>A. alba</i>	-	- <i>mutabilis</i> .*

The latter he has called *mutabilis* instead of *alba*, to get rid of a trivial name, which, as it is by no means discriminative, has created much confusion. In the appendix he has figured what he calls *semi-nuda*, the *capillaris* of Leers, as a variety of *vulgaris*; and another, which he calls *brevis*, as a variety of *stolonifera*. He has, however, added to the British species of this genus, by incorporating with it *phleum crinitum* of Schreber and Smith (*Alopecurus monspeliensis* of Linnæus) under the trivial name *triaristata*; and *miliun lenoigerum* of the species *plantarum*, and of Smith, under that of *ventricosa*. The former, he says, is without the peculiar truncated calyx of *phleum*, and has the valves acute as in *agrostis*: and the latter is so dissimilar, both in character and habit, to *miliun effusum*, that he has been reduced to follow the mantissa of Linnæus in preference to the species *plantarum*; and presumes that if this arrangement be adopted, the difficulty of forming a generical distinction between *agrostis* and *miliun* will no longer exist.

In opposition to the representation of Linnæus and most other botanists, Mr. Curtis and Dr. Withering have asserted that the florets of *holcus mollis* are by no means polygamous. Mr. Knapp has extended his examination of this plant to the productions of several countries, and both florets, in all the specimens, appeared to him to be invariably perfect. The generic character of *holcus*, if *mollis* continue in it, must therefore fall to the ground: and yet it would be doing violence to nature to separate this species from *lanatus*. But we have always thought that no less violence was committed when *avena elatior* was removed by Gmelin from its old station, and associated with them, merely on account of a character which, as now appears, does not exist in one of the old species. As the genus, when the foreign species are considered, is a very heterogeneous one, it should, in our judgment, be altogether abolished, and its species disposed of according to their respective affinities.

When Mr. Knapp states that, though the *poa distans* and *maritima* are in most cases obviously distinct, yet there are situations in which the two plants are found where the characters of the individual† (he should have said *species*) are almost lost, he does not seem to have been aware of the certain distinction in the creeping root of the former remarked by Dr. Smith, though it is clearly expressed in his figure.

In a note annexed to the account of *poa trivialis* an attempt is made to transfer from Mr. Curtis to Mr. Hudson the honour of discovering the universal and permanent difference between the stipulas of *poa trivialis* and *poa pratensis*; but, unwilling to impeach the established character of so eminent a

* When the above was transcribed, it did not occur to our recollection that Mr. Knapp's reformed list of species is precisely that of the *Flora Britannica*.

† We have formerly had occasion to animadvert on the careless and improper use of the terms individual and species into which several naturalists have been betrayed. We are sorry to observe in Mr. Knapp several instances of a similar oversight. Thus, under the article *sesleria*, he tells us, that it had for some time been arranged with *cynosurus*, till Scopoli removed it from that improper association, elevating it to the rank of a species. A moment's reflection would have convinced him that it was a species before. We cannot refrain from expressing our astonishment at the frequency of this palpable blunder. Since the former part of this note was written, we have accidentally met with the following passage, in a work published at Paris in 1799, entitled, *Introduction à l'Etude de la Botanique*, par J. C. Philibert. "Les divers corps d'armée sont les grandes divisions de la botanique; les régimens sont les classes; les bataillons sont les sections de classe, ordres ou familles. les compagnies sont les genres & les soldats sont les espèces." If the author were asked in what manner he would divide the body of a private soldier, so as to make the parts correspond with the innumerable individual plants which belong to a species, he would, we imagine, be not a little puzzled for an answer.

botanist, Mr. Knapp expresses his conviction, "that Mr. Curtis did not arrogantly assume this merit to himself, but overlooked the distinctions marked by Hudson." We, on our part, are convinced that Mr. Hudson actually copied them from the *Flora Londinensis*. His first edition was published in 1762, at which time he was certainly ignorant of this decisive difference. The second edition, which Mr. Knapp quotes, is dated 1778. The *Flora Londinensis* began to be published in numbers in the interval between the appearance of these two editions: the title page to the first volume was printed in 1777, and, if our recollection do not fail us, it accompanied the last number of the third fasciculus: the two poas in question were described and figured in the second. But, however that may be, we think it a decisive proof of their appearing before Mr. Hudson's second edition, that the first edition is referred to under *trivialis*, and that Mr. Curtis uniformly quoted the second from the time when it came into his hands. We have no object in this discussion but to settle the historical fact. The luxuriant wreaths which have so long adorned the brows of these excellent naturalists cannot be affected either by the addition or subtraction of so minute a sprig.

In admitting *stipa pennata* into the British Flora on the sole authority of Dr. Richardson and Mr. Lawson, Mr. Knapp follows the example of all English botanists who have written since their time; but we are sorry to see the former treated as an enthusiastic botanist, so open to imposition as to render his authority of little value. The circumstance of his having been an enthusiastic botanist will not, we are persuaded, sink his character in the estimation of Mr. Knapp; and, if we allow that he was imposed upon with respect to *epimedium alpinum*, it will not follow that he was so in any other instance, or that in his general character he was weakly credulous. But in the present case his veracity, and not his judgment, is called in question. Dillenius expressly says, in the third edition of Ray's *Synopsis*, where *stipa pennata* is mentioned for the first time as an English plant, that it was found by Dr. Richardson, in company with Thomas Lawson, on the limestone rocks hanging over a little valley called Long Sleedale, about six miles north of Kendal, in Westmoreland. Mr. Lawson was not, as Mr.

Knapp conjectures, gardener to Dr. Richardson, but lived a few miles from Long Sleedale, at Strickland, near Shap. He is mentioned as a contributor to the first edition of Ray's *Synopsis*, and said to be a diligent and industrious, and no less skilful botanist. He was dead when the third edition of that work was published: the information, therefore, concerning *stipa pennata*, probably came from Dr. Richardson himself, who, as appears from the preface to that edition, and from numerous passages in the *Historia Muscorum*, was in constant correspondence with Dillenius.

Mr. Knapp is in general averse to the change of specific names; but he thinks he may be justified in calling the rarer British species of briza, *aspera* instead of *minor*, as the latter conveys the delusive idea of its being a small plant, whereas it is as tall or rather taller than the media. We beg leave to observe, that on this principle that of *media* should also have been changed.

Dactylis stricta, in Mr. Knapp's judgment, would associate better with *trititum*. *Festuca rubra* he thinks only a variety of *duriuscula*; *poa humilis* of the appendix to the third volume of the *Flora Britannica* (subcærulea of English Botany, 1004), and *poa glauca* of the same appendix, he regards as varieties of *duriuscula*. *Elymus Europæus* of Linnæus and Dr. Smith, he removes with Hudson to *hordeum*, and adopts his trivial name, *sylvaticum*. The travelling botanist will be glad to learn that this, and the still rarer *festuca calamaria*, may be found at so frequented a place as Matlock. The latter in particular grows in the wood opposite the old baths, in the lower left hand walk on the edge of the river, and near the seat where the walk terminates. As Guernsey and Jersey are not included by Mr. Knapp within the pale of the *Flora Britannica*, *lagurus ovatus*, though admitted by Dr. Smith, is of course rejected. On the other hand, *avena nuda*, which Dr. Smith excludes, has a place amongst Mr. Knapp's British grasses, with an intimation, however, that it is not strictly indigenous. There are only two grasses figured in the work as altogether new. The first is an *aira*, which he calls *scabrosetacea*: it grows in pits of water on Forfar heath, in Angus, and differs from *flexuosa* in requiring a watry situation for its existence, in the rigidity of its texture, but chiefly in

what Mr. Knapp gives as its specific character, its short, bristle-like, rough leaves, long stipule, and the spinous keels of the calyx. The other is a bromus, which he has named, but we think not very happily, *spiculi tenuata*. As a specimen of his general manner, we shall extract the whole of his account.

“ *BROMUS SPICULI TENUATA*.

“ *Long-armed pendent Broom.**

“ **SPEC. CHAR.** Panicle branched, and drooping; branches supporting one or several spiculæ; spiculæ acutely lanceolate; florets smooth.

“ We apprehend that the species before us has not hitherto been observed, or at least, not being able to find any description suitable to our plant, we have applied to it the name of ‘*spiculi tenuata*,’ indicative of the slender formation of the spiculæ. There is some affinity between this plant and the bromus arvensis, but yet they appear to us to be manifestly distinct. Straw from one foot to three feet high; when of a low stature the branches support one or two spiculæ, which droop but little; in its more elevated state the branches are very long, upright when young, flexile and pendent in maturity, bearing at times ten or more spiculæ: spiculæ acutely lanceolate, with about eight florets: calyx smooth, with four ribs, and serrated on the keel; corolla smooth, but with some small spines on the back: both the calyx and corolla are tinted with pink: straw in the panicle without any wooliness, as is observable in *b. mollis*. Upon the panicle rising from the sheathing of the upper leaf the lower stage of branches will be found supported by two bractæ, a singularity perhaps attending this bromus only, which, though not universal, is yet a very general appendage; these bractæ soon afterwards drop off. There is a specimen of bromus in

the Sherardian Herbarium at Oxford, which appears to us to be very similar to our plant, but in a rather more luxuriant state than we ever observed it, there being as many as fifteen spiculæ on some of the branches: it was found by Sherard near Southampton. We gathered our plants near Seaton, on the coast of Durham, but they were in no abundance there. *Bromus spiculi tenuata* is very tardy in advancing to maturity, nor does the panicle expand till influenced by the warmth of August and September.”

One hundred and fourteen distinct species, and five supposed varieties, are figured.

We cannot take leave of this very elegant and pleasing work without expressing our warmest approbation of the religious spirit which it uniformly breathes. Unlike those naturalists who have studied in the school of Buffon and other pseudo-philosophers, its author does not arrogantly censure as useless every thing of which he cannot immediately discover the use, or as a blemish whatever does not exactly correspond with his own limited ideas of excellence; but where he finds so much to admire, justly concludes that all is wise and good; and, where he perceives so many parts of nature directly conducive to the sustenance, convenience, and gratification of man, piously believes that all the rest have a real utility, though their beneficial operation is often conveyed to the appointed lord of this lower world through a long chain of invisible intermediate instruments. This alone is true philosophy. It is equally satisfactory to the understanding, and delightful to the heart.

ART. X. *Transactions of the Linnean Society of London.* 4to. vol. 7.

THIS volume commences with a copy of the charter granted to the Linnean Society, of its bye-laws, and of its patent for bearing arms, crest, and supporters. And the papers which follow fully demonstrate the activity of its members. It contains twenty-one articles: ten on zoology, and eleven on botany. Of these we shall give an account in a systematic order.

Zoology.

5. Description of *bos frontalis*, a new species from India, by Aylmer Bourke

Lambert, esq. F. R. S. V. P. L. S. with a figure.

20. Farther account of the same.

This animal, called gyal in its native country, inhabits the range of hills which separate the company's province of Chit-agang, in Bengal, from the country of Arracan. The male is not quite so tall as our bull, is naturally very bold, and will defend himself against any beasts of prey. The female receives the male at the age of three years, and differs from the buffalo and cow in going eleven months with young, and not admitting

* We know not why he differs from all other English authors in spelling this word not *brome*, but *broom*, a name time out of mind appropriated to a very different plant.

the male again till the second year, producing a calf only once in three years. She does not give much milk, but what she yields is nearly as rich as the cream of other milk; owing, it is supposed, to her feeding on the young shoots and branches of trees in preference to grass. She is also employed in agriculture, and is more tractable than the buffalo.

There are large herds of them wild on the hills: but they are easily caught and domesticated by the means of tame gyalls, purposely intermingled with them, and of balls composed of a particular kind of earth, salt and cotton, which are grateful to their taste, and which they are so fond of licking that they never leave the place while any remain. These balls are from time to time thrown in their way, till they become so accustomed to the society of the tame gyalls as to suffer themselves to be driven with them to the villages by the country people. Mr. Lambert has given the following specific character and description. "*Bos nigro-cærulescens, fasciâ frontali griseâ, cornibus crassis, remotis, brevibus; caudâ subnudâ, gracili, apice pilosâ. Obs. Vellus molle. Juba nulla. Labium inferius apice album, pilis hispidis setosum. Fascia frontis plumbea, bases cornuum includens. Cornua pallida.*" The drawing was taken from a living animal sent by the Marquis Wellesley to David Scott, Esq. which died soon after. A cow that was coming over with it died on the passage.

21. Description of a large species of rat, a native of the East Indies. By captain Thomas Hardwicke, F. L. S. with a figure of the natural size.

This rat is mentioned by Mr. Pennant in his History of Quadrupeds, and noticed, but not figured, by Dr. Shaw in his General Zoology, under the name of *mus malabaricus*; but as it is the largest of the known species of this genus, and is not peculiar to Malabar, Mr. Hardwicke thinks it may with more propriety be called *mus giganteus*. The subject described was a female, weighing two pounds, eleven ounces and a half, and twenty-six inches and one-fourth long, including the tail, which measured thirteen inches. It is a mischievous animal, and makes great havoc in granaries and gardens. Grain and vegetables are its choicest food, but when these fail it will attack poultry.

18. Observations on some species of

British quadrupeds, birds, and fishes. By George Montague, esq. F. L. S.

The animals illustrated in this masterly paper, are two quadrupeds, *mus messorius* and *sorex fodiens*; four birds, *emberiza cirrus*, *motacilla provincialis*, *charadrius hiaticula*, and *larus ridibundus*; and three fishes, *cepola rubescens*, *sparus niger*, and *cyclopterus bimaculatus*. *Mus messorius* was observed by Mr. White, near Selborne in Hampshire, and first published by Mr. Pennant, from his communications, as a native of England. Mr. Montague was acquainted with it before it was discovered by Mr. White, and has frequently found it in the more champaign parts of Wiltshire, Gloucestershire, and the south of Devonshire. He agrees with Dr. Shaw in thinking that the *mus minutus* of Gmelin does not differ from it, except in the superior length of its fur, a circumstance incident to a Siberian climate. Concerning *sorex fodiens* nothing is added to what has been said by other authors, but that it is an inhabitant of Devonshire, in which county one recently killed has been picked up, in one of the highest and most arid situations of the country, remote from water and its more usual haunts.

The ornithological observations are of much greater importance. *Emberiza cirrus*, the ciril bunting, was first discovered in England by Mr. Montague himself, and figured in his Ornithological Dictionary. Since the publication of that work he has had the good fortune to find a nest, and to have an opportunity of rearing some of its young by hand. During the course of his observations, he discovered that the common grasshopper, *gryllus grossus*, is their natural food. In a more advanced state they ate white oats, stripping them of their outer coat with great adroitness; and also the smaller seeds, such as hemp, turnip, plantain, grass, &c. but constantly rejected wheat and barley. Canary seed was preferred to all others, even their favourite oat. Still, however, they shewed a decided partiality to insects. A male and a female lived long enough to throw out their full plumage. The only indication of the sexes in their first, or nestling feathers, was the light coloured mark over the eye, which in the male was much more conspicuous, and inclining to yellow. In addition to the natural history of *motacilla provincialis*, the

Dartford warbler, we are informed that since the 8th of December 1802, it has frequently been observed in the southern parts of Devonshire, but never more than a few miles from the sea, and always in or near thick furze, *ulex europæus*, where it finds the most secure shelter. In the Ornithological Dictionary doubts were expressed, whether the *charadrius alexandrinus* of Linnæus, and the Kentish plover of Lewin, are more than varieties of the ringed plover. More recent observations have strengthened the former conjecture, so as not to leave scarce the shadow of a doubt that they are actually one and the same species. Mr. Montague is certain that the colour of the legs and bill varies with the age of the bird; and there is nothing which makes him hesitate, but the colour of the head in what is described as the Kentish plover, which, however, he strongly suspects to be only an accidental variety. The insufficiency of variations in the colour of the plumage, to constitute specific characters independent of other considerations, is completely demonstrated by Mr. Montague's observations on the black-headed gull, *larus ridibundus*; red-legged gull, *larus cinerarius*; brown-headed gull, *larus erythropus*; brown tern, *sterna obscura*, in Gmelin's edition of the *Systema Naturæ*: and the brown gull of the second supplement to Latham's General Synopsis: all of which, beyond a doubt, are one and the same species in different periods of their growth, and, as Mr. Montague is inclined to believe, in the course of one year. In its first plumage it nearly corresponds with Mr. Ray's description of his brown tern, which has occasioned so much perplexity to succeeding ornithologists; and there would be no doubt of its being the same, if Mr. Ray did not expressly say that the head of his tern is black, which is never the case with this bird in so young a state. Mr. Ray's bird must, therefore, still remain in obscurity. The second material change brings it to the brown gull of Latham's second supplement; the next to the brown-headed gull, *larus erythropus* of Gmelin; the fourth is that which has been generally known by the name of the red-legged gull, *larus cinerarius* of Gmelin; and in its perfect or adult state it is the black-headed gull, *larus ridibundus*.

Cepola rubescens was at first placed by Linnæus in the genus *ophidion*, but

in the twelfth edition of *Systema Naturæ*, it stands as a *cepeola*. Dr. Shaw has admitted it into his general system, but he never saw it either alive or dead, and scarcely thought it a distinct species. The present paper removes all doubts on the subject. Two individuals, conjectured, from a small difference in their size and colour, to be a female and a male, were caught at Salcomb bay, in Devonshire; the first on the 25th of February, and the second on the 25th of March, 1803. The supposed female is fully described, with a beautiful coloured figure. Both of them differ from the character of the genus in having only four branchiostegous rays.

Of the toothed gillhead of Pennant, the *sparus niger* of Turton, *sparus Raii* of Bloch and Shaw, a single specimen was found on the sands near the mouth of the Tees, 1681, and communicated to Mr. Ray, since which time it had never been seen on the British coast, till November 1799, when another was taken alive by a cottager as it was left by the tide, and is now in the possession of Mr. Montague.

Cyclopterus maculatus, the bimaculated sucker of Pennant, mentioned by him as a new species found near Weymouth, Mr. Montague has frequently taken by deep dredging at Torcross in Devonshire, and has accurately described in the present paper.

4. Description of the British lizards; and of a new British species of viper. By Revett Shepherd, F. L. S.

Only three decided species of British lizards are described by Mr. Pennant, in his *British Zoology*, and two others taken up from Ray's Synopsis, which that great author seems to have described only from report. Mr. Shepherd has been so fortunate as to add two, if not three, that are certainly new. He enumerates and describes four land and two water species. The land lizards are the *agilis*, *cedura*, *anguiformis*, and *vulgaris*: the first three of which are scaly, with round verticillated tails; the fourth is without scales, and with a tail compressed sideways. The second Mr. Shepherd has not seen described, and considering it as a new species, has called it *cedura* from the form of its tail which bulges out a little below the base, so as to have the appearance of having been cut off and set on again. The second may probably be the *anguiformis* of Ray. The two water lizards are the

palustris and *maculata*; they are both without scales, and have their tails compressed sideways. Mr. Pennant's assertion that the *palustris* takes to the land on changing from its larva state is erroneous. Frequent observation has convinced Mr. Sheppard that they are never found on land, but when the ponds in which they were bred are dried up by the heat of summer, and they are then always lean and enfeebled. The *maculata* appears to be what Linnæus described as the larva of *vulgaris*; but that species, like all the other land lizards, undergoes no change. Both the water lizards will take a bait either in their perfect or larva state. The new colour, Mr. Sheppard calls *cæruleus*, from the elegant azure blue of its belly, and is persuaded that it deserves to be ranked as a distinct species, full as much as *c. prester*. He has given a detailed description, but has not formed for it, or for the lizards, distinctive specific characters.

6. Description of the *Esox Saurus*. By the rev. Thomas Racket, M. A. F. R. S. and L. S. with a figure of the natural size.

This rare species, though known to the older naturalists, has not been noticed either by Linnæus, Gmelin, or Bloch. Pennant has given an indifferent figure of it in his *Tour in Scotland*. The specimen from which the present figure was drawn, was taken near the Isle of Portland after a hard storm in the summer of the year 1800. Dr. Shaw mentions having seen the drawing, but did not get it engraved. Mr. Racket has given it the following specific character. *Esox rostro subulato, maxillis medio hiantibus*: and describes it thus more at large; *Dorsum viridizærulescens. Venter argenteus. Mandibula superior paululum recurvata. Pinna dorsalis & analis opposita, pinulis utrinque sex versus caudam: Cauda bifida.*

3. Account of the Tusseh and Arrindy Silk-worms of Bengal. By William Roxburgh, M. D. F. L. S. with coloured figures of the caterpillars and their cocoons.

Tusseh silk is a durable, coarse, dark coloured kind, which is woven into a cloth much worn by Bramins, and other sets of Hindoos. It is produced by a *phalæna* called *paphia* by Linnæus, *phalæna mylitta* of Drury, and *Bombyx mylitta* of Fabricius, which is a

native of Bengal, Bahar, Assam, &c. and feeds on the leaves of *rhamnus jujuba*, (byer of the Hindoos), and on *terminalia alata glabra*, Rox. (asseen of the Hindoos). It is found in great abundance in those countries, but cannot be domesticated. The hill people go annually at the proper season into the jungles, and when, by means of the excrement, they have discovered the small worms, they cut off as many branches of the tree with the young brood on them, as are sufficient for their purpose, and distribute them on the asseen tree in proportion to its size. As soon as the moth pierces the cocoon it gets away, and cannot be kept by any precaution whatever. The insect remains in the cocoon nine months, and is three months in the egg and worm state. It exists in the imago, or perfect state, from six to twelve days, and during that time receives no nourishment whatever, being totally unprovided with a mouth or any channel by which food can be conveyed. The cocoon is suspended from a branch of the tree in a wonderful manner, represented in the plate, by a thick, strong, consolidated cord, spun of the same materials, from the bowels of the animal. There are two kinds, one called *bughy*, the other *sarroo*, which differ a little in size, and, according to the report of the natives, more in their manners, producing also differently coloured silk: but after minute examination, Dr. Roxburgh found no reason to believe them more than varieties of the same species.

The cocoon of Arrindy silk is remarkably soft, white or yellowish; and its filament so exceedingly delicate, as to render it impracticable to wind off the silk; it is therefore spun like cotton. The yarn thus manufactured is wove into a coarse kind of white cloth, but of incredible durability, the life of one person being seldom sufficient to wear out a garment made of it; so that the same piece descends from mother to daughter. It must however always be washed in cold water; for boiling water makes it tear like old rotten cloth. The insect by which it is produced, *phalæna cynthia* of Drury and Cramer, is peculiar to the districts of Dinagepore and Rungpore, in the interior part of Bengal, feeds on the leaves of the common *ricinus* or *palma christi*, called by the natives of Arrindy, and like the common silk-worm is reared in a domestic state. It is hatched from the egg in about ten or fifteen

days, and arrives at its full size in about a month, continues enveloped in the cocoon from ten to twenty days, and exists in its perfect state from four to eight days without eating, remaining contented in its chamber, and seldom attempting to fly away. The egg, larva, chrysalis and imago, of both the insects are scientifically described by Dr. Roxburgh.

7. Descriptions of several marine animals, found on the south coast of Devonshire. By George Montague, Esq. F. L. S. with figures.

Mr. Montague has here described six species of cancer, two of oniscus, two of gordius, one of siphunculus, one of laplysia, but not exactly corresponding with all the Linnæan characters, five of doris, one of amphitrite, four of nereis, and one of asterias, most of which are certainly new, and others hitherto imperfectly described.

11. Description of some fossil shells, found in Hampshire; with figures. By William Pilkington, Esq. F. A. S. and L. S.

These shells were found at Hordwell Cliff, in Hampshire, and are preserved in the collection of Mr. J. T. Swainson, F. L. S. They consist of one voluta, one buccinum, six murices, one turbo, and one nerita. Two of the murices are varieties of species figured by Mr. Brander: all the rest are supposed to be nondescripts.

12. An historical account of Testaceological Writers. By William George Maton, M. D. F. R. S. and L. S.; and the rev. Thomas Racket, M. A. F. R. S. and L. S.

This admirable paper, which takes up more than one third of the volume, is written with uncommon elegance, and displays in all its parts a profound knowledge of the subject, directed by sound judgment and enlightened understanding. It consists principally of a chronological account of the writers on conchology, from the age of Aristotle to the present time, whether in separate works, in the transactions of learned societies, or in treatises partly devoted to other branches of science. We cannot better enable our readers to judge of its merit, or give them a higher gratification, than by laying before them the authors' estimate of what has been done on this branch of natural history, by the illustrious naturalist whose name has been chosen to distinguish the society by whom it is published.

"LINNÆUS.

"From his great and comprehensive genius, this, like the other branches of natural history, was destined to receive an entirely new aspect: under his reforming hand it passed from confusion and in congruity to lucid order and simplicity; and though the improvement, as happens with all the most useful results of human labour, was, even under his pen, progressive, it reached a precision and facility of application to which former systems can scarcely be said to have approached.

"There has been a very general belief that less attention was devoted by Linnæus to the history and arrangement of the testacea than to any other order of the animal kingdom, and that he even thought their external coverings, or shells, scarcely worthy of becoming subjects of scientific distribution. Whatever may have been the origin of this belief, it certainly does not appear to us to be warranted by any examination of the *Systema Naturæ* itself, not even of its earliest editions. The original state of that extraordinary work (and it was in this Linnæus first touched on testaceology) did not indicate, perhaps, less happy reformation of method with regard to the testacea, than to other parts of organized nature; its deficiencies were those from which few other portions of the performance were exempt, and which were naturally to be expected in all, on the first sketch of so grand and so heterogeneous a subject. The great aim of the author being simplicity, he seems to have at first over-reached it rather than to have failed short, and the consequences are obvious. His original genera of shells were too few, being only eight in number, viz.

- | | |
|--------------|---------------|
| 1. Cochlea. | 5. Patella. |
| 2. Nautilus. | 6. Dentalium. |
| 3. Cypræa. | 7. Concha. |
| 4. Haliotis. | 8. Lepus. |

"In some of the subsequent editions of the *Systema* two or three more genera were added: but, at length, in the 10th they were augmented to thirty-two, which are only three less than Linnæus employed on any occasion afterwards. The edition of 1758 is therefore to be considered as the period at which he may be said to have perfected his principles of testaceological arrangement, though, in fact, the principles themselves underwent no material change from the beginning, (a proof that our illustrious author never treated the subject with carelessness, the only alteration that he deemed necessary being in the number of the genera: he accordingly broke that of *cochlea* into *concha*, *voluta*, *buccinum*, *strombus*, *mastruchus*, *turbo*, *helix*, and *nerita*, and that of *concha* into *chiton*, *pholus*, and the *brachia*. The faults of the testaceological system which preceded Linnæus's, may be truly deduced from the remarks made in various parts of this paper. These systems laboured under extreme difficulty of application, as

only on account of the multitude of divisions and subdivisions which were deemed necessary by their respective authors, but also of the practice of founding generic distinctions on variations of general contour. Such variations being endless, there was consequently no end to the multiplication of families, and species became correspondently sparing.—There was only one author who can be said to be free from reproach on this score, and that was Adanson: he, however, set out upon principles of arrangement essentially different from those of the generality of writers on this science, and, by making the contained animal almost exclusively the basis of his system, necessarily became limited in the choice of generic characters. But to the establishment of characters purely zoological the objections are still stronger than to the being guided by the general form of the shell. Independently of the very small extent to which our knowledge of the mollusca has hitherto been carried, it appears to us that from the very nature of these animals, when provided with a portable place of retreat from danger, they can never present those permanent and obvious points of distinction, so indispensable to an apt and commodious investigation of all natural objects. Wherein does the animal differ from an unshapen mass of lifeless matter, when coiled up within its shelly habitation? And how are its natural shape and appendages to be examined, but by the knife of an anatomist? In fact, it is reasonable to conclude that innumerable testaceous animals must ever remain unknown to us, except by the *exuvie* accidentally thrown upon the shores after their death: many of them appear to inhabit inaccessible recesses of the ocean, and others part with life on the point of being removed from their native element. To place his system beyond the reach of those objections which presented themselves to all that had been hitherto proposed, Linnæus was obliged to strike out some principles of discrimination wholly different from any before exemplified; and that sagacity with which he seized new and admirable guidances to methodical arrangement, in other parts of the dominions of nature, fortunately assisted him also in this. After having convinced himself of the futility of forming a system of testaceology solely on the structure of the animal, or even making the latter at all concerned in the specific distinctions, he astonishingly simplified the whole science by dividing testacea only into the three obvious families of univalves, bivalves, and multivalves, with subordinate genera characterized by variations of particular parts of the shells. The hinge in bivalves, and the aperture, or mouth, of univalves, as it was a permanent character, so was it also less multifarious than any other that could have been chosen. The general outline, however, was not wholly neglected. It served to form an uniting character for such as may be called natural families of shells, which were distributed

into suitable divisions, subordinately to the artificial genus, so as to become an assistance instead of an embarrassment in the investigation of species. Thus, the terms *truncati*, *pyriformes*, *elongati*, and *laxi*, became useful demarcations in the genus *conus*, without creating the confusion which must always be incident to too great a number of regular genera, especially when those genera are formed (as was the practice of the generality of preceding authors) from external figure only. In a few genera it was necessary to deviate a little from these principles, (and what system can be free from anomalies?) yet they are too few to affect the general simplicity, and we ought to be surprised only at the characters holding good so far as they do. But our great author was not wholly inattentive to the creatures for which the beautiful and endlessly diversified receptacles that he had characterized were designed. Among the generic marks was included the name of the molluscous inhabitants; or, where the animal differed from any which had a place in other parts of his system, he described it at length. Thus was a method established, which, though not speculatively regular, possesses so much practical utility that we cannot hesitate to prefer it to any hitherto made known to the world. Whatever improvements it may undergo (and of improvements all human systems must necessarily be susceptible), there is in our minds no doubt that the general foundations will stand the test of scientific application for ages; a sentiment which will appear the less bold, if we quote in aid of our assertions those of a very distinguished naturalist of a neighbouring country; in which, if, after almost unprecedented pains had been taken, both by himself and by an indefatigable contemporary, for the formation of a perfect system, the principles of Linnæus remain unimpaired, we may fairly relinquish the expectation of being presented with any less exceptionable. "On peut dire," says Mr. Lamarck, "que Linné a établi les vrais principes qu'on doit suivre dans l'étude et la détermination des coquilles, et qu'il a posé les bases de cette intéressante partie de nos connoissances. (Mem. de la Soc. d'Hist. Nat. p. 63.)"

The article concludes with classing and exhibiting in a tabular form the writers on testaceology, under the several heads of *historici*, *monographi*, *topographi*, *musæographi*, *micrographi*, *thaumatographi*, *anatomici*, *physiologi*, *systematici*, *nomenclatores*, *commentatores*, and *ichniographi*, with the titles and editions of their works.

BOTANY.

13. An illustration of the grass, called by Linnæus *cornucopia alopecuroides*. By James Edward Smith, M. D. F. R. S.

P. L. S. with a figure of the original specimen in the Linnæan Museum.

The existence of this supposed species has always depended on the authority of a single specimen, sent to Linnæus by professor Arduino, from Italy. The learned president has discovered it to be nothing more than a singular variety or rather accidental monstrosity of the phalaris utriculata of Linnæus, which is itself, in all its characters, a real alopecurus.

14. Description of such species of chironia as grow wild at the Cape of Good Hope. By Sir Charles Peter Thunberg, knight of the order of Wasa, professor of botany at Upsal, F. M. L. S. With figures of two species.

This paper, which is written in Latin, contains scientific descriptions of seven species, four of which appear in the second edition of Species Plantarum, and the 12th of the Syst. Nat. one in the second Mantissa, and two in the supplement of the younger Linnæus. We are sorry to observe that this eminent successor of Linnæus pays such little respect to the memory of his great master, as to place Gmelin's edition of the Systema Vegetabilium at the head of his references. Wherever a plant has been inserted by Linnæus himself, in any of his works, the last edition of that work ought to be uniformly quoted in the first instance.

1. A new arrangement of the genus aloë, with a chronological sketch of the progressive knowledge of that genus and of other succulent genera. By Adrian Hardy Haworth, Esq. F. L. S.

In a former article of this chapter we have had occasion to notice Mr. Haworth's partiality to the succulent tribe of plants. What he did for mesembryanthemum, in one of the dissertations annexed to his Lepidoptera Britannica, he has now done for aloë: 51 species with new specific characters formed from the living plants, 49 of which were in his own possession at the time this paper was written, are arranged by him under three grand divisions, with reference to the descriptions and figures of other authors.

I. *Parviflora*. Corollis plerumque virescentibus, laciniis sæpius revolutis. These are either (1) rigidæ, plerumque caulescentes, foliis rigidissimis integris; (2) acaules, foliis mollioribus integris; (3) ciliatæ, foliis ciliatospinos radicalibus, or (4) margaritaceæ, acaules, foliis multifariis margaritaceo-tuberculatis.—

II. *Curviflora*. Corollis obclavatis curvatis, ocellis colore, apicibus virescentibus. They are either (1) bifariæ; acaules, foliis plerumque bifariis; or (2) pictæ; caulescentes foliis pictis, caule tortuoso.—

III. *Glandiflora*. Corollis cylindraceo-ovatis corallii colore, apicibus virescentibus. They are either (1) anomale, foliis bi vel trifariis, integris; (2) acaules; foliis multifariis ciliato-dentatis; (3) subacaules; foliis multifariis, ciliatospinos, propaginibus radicalibus; (4) suffrutescentes; foliis multifariis dentato-vel denticulato-spinosis; or (5) frutescentes; foliis multifariis ciliato-dentatis. Nine other species which Mr. Haworth has not seen are added by way of appendix without arrangement.

17. Observations on the durion, durio zibethinus of Linnæus. By Mr. Charles König, F. L. S. with figures.

All that has hitherto been known of this plant, the only species of the genus, has been taken from the description by Rumphius, in his Herbarium Amboinense: but his figure and description are equally defective, and the Latin translation, which is most known, misleads more than the Dutch original. The scientific general character and description here given, and also the figures, were taken from specimens of a small branch with flowers, and of the fruit preserved in spirits, sent from Amboyna to sir Joseph Banks.

2. On the germination of the seeds of Orchidæ. By Richard Anthony Salisbury, Esq. F. R. S. and L. S. with figures.

The object of this paper, which is written in Latin, is to correct an erroneous opinion, entertained by several good botanists, and supported by the late Dr. Withering, in his botanical arrangements, that plants of the orchid tribe seldom or never produce perfect seeds. It is surprising, as the able author observes, that any credit could ever be given to an idea, not only contrary to the general analogy of nature, but also contradicted by obvious facts. In the fields and woods, where plants of this natural order abound, numbers may be easily found which have all the appearance of seedlings; a manifest proof that they are propagated like other plants. Mr. Salisbury is of opinion that nothing in the vegetable kingdom is more easy to be understood than the structure of the parts of fructification in this family. An inferior one called pericarp, to the

side of which the seeds are attached in a triple series, is crowned with either four or six petals, which are differently formed in different genera: and is terminated, within the petals, by an elongated thick substance which is a true style, and like other styles is pervious through its whole length; for on pressing the end of a capsule, which has been kept in spirits, the liquor immediately oozes from the hollow centre of the stigma. On this stigma, which has a broad surface, and is situated on the anterior part of the summit of the style, the feminine gluten is also often very conspicuous. The anthers are sessile and truly gynandrous; being situated in the monandrous species on the back, and in the diandrous, on the sides of the style. Their pollen, though of an unusual appearance, has the virtue of other pollen. By applying it to the stigma, Mr. Salisbury has, in numerous instances, impregnated the germs of orchis mascula, morio, latifolia, maculata and apifera; of ophrys spiralis, epidendrum cochleatum, and all the limodorums in his collection, which have produced perfect seeds, and germinated without trouble in pots and the moist areas of his stove. That the common earthworm often contributes to the more ready germination of these seeds he had once a pleasing proof. On digging up a piece of sod, in order to remove into his garden a luxuriant plant of orchis morio, the spade laid open longitudinally the track of one of these worms, and there appeared in it a numerous brood of young orchis, some of which flowered in the third year. The various species of indigenous orchideæ may be easily raised, by sowing the seeds as soon as the capsule is ripe; but they succeed best in pots filled with hypnum, and a little garden mould, and immersed in dung at a moderate heat; care however should be taken not to expose them to a meridian sun. Mr. Salisbury describes in full detail, the pericarp and seeds of orchis morio, and limodorum verecundum of his own prodromus.

9. Descriptions of some species of *carex* from North America, with figures. By Edward Rudge, Esq. F. L. S.

Five species are described at large from dried specimens, and manifest a striking dissimilarity between the American species of this genus and those of European growth.

16. Observations on the *zizania aqua-*

tica, with a figure. By Aylmer Bourke Lambert, Esq. F. R. S. V. P. L. S.

The drawing here engraved was taken from a living plant, in the possession of sir Joseph Banks, who, in a pond at Spring Grove, has a large quantity of this grass, growing annually, ripening its seeds, and sowing itself round the edges. The original seeds were put up in jars of water, and sent to sir Joseph by Dr. Nooth, from the Lakes of Canada.

15. Remarks on the generic characters of mosses, and particularly of the genus *mnium*. By James Edward Smith, M. D. F. R. S. P. L. S.

In this paper Dr. Smith perspicuously explains and ably defends the principles on which he proceeded in adopting or rejecting the new genera of Hedwig, the result of which we have stated above in our review of the third volume of his excellent *Flora Britannica*.

8. Descriptions of four new British lichens, with coloured figures. By Dawson Turner, Esq. M. A. F. L. S.

Mr. Dawson is so well known as a cryptogamist, that every thing from his pen on the subject, must excite the attention of the public. The four species here described are all of the crustaceous division, and have been found in Norfolk or Suffolk. The descriptions have the same precision and elegance which distinguish his other writings. His introductory remarks bespeak so much solid sense, and are in themselves so important, that we shall extract them as a final specimen of the valuable matter contained in the present volume.

“ Upon the four lichens of which I now take the liberty of offering descriptions to the Linnean Society, I have little more to say, in general, than that they do not appear to me to be noticed either in the works of professor Hoffman, in Dr. Acharius's comprehensive *Lichenographia Saccica*, or in the productions of any other author with which I am acquainted. To say more would be presumption; for so many botanists have treated of lichens in partial Floras, and introduced what they considered as a new species, not only without figures, but with very inadequate characters, that it is possible these also may have been previously described: but even should this prove the case, I trust the society will not think I have done an altogether useless office, in endeavouring, by coloured figures, and more ample descriptions, to remove them in future beyond the reach of doubt. Thus much I may be allowed to say, that they are unknown to Dr. Smith, Mr. Dicksoir, and every other botanist who has at present seen them; and

if, in the particulars I have stated respecting each, I should appear prolix, I beg leave to give it as my humble opinion, that, from the vast extent of the genus lichen, particularly the crustaceous division of it, nothing less than the most detailed account of every species, pointing out its differences from those of its congeners with which it is most likely to be confounded, will ever suffice to the obtaining a knowledge of them; and I cannot but think that there is in botany no greater desideratum than a work on the lichens, conducted on these principles, and at the same time carefully collecting the synonyms of the different authors. I must be indulged in one more remark, arising from this subject, which is, that while some botanists, anxious to create new species, have not made among these the same allowances as among other vegetables, for differences caused by the several periods of their age, by their situation, by the substances on which they grow, or by the aspects to which they are exposed, it appears to me that others have run still more hastily into the opposite extreme, and united plants which are most truly and specifically distinct, merely because in some particulars they approach each other in different stages of their growth; and considering that among other genera of the class cryptogamia, instances are occasionally found of plants bearing in age a stronger resemblance to some other species than to the appearance they had themselves when young: but that similitude between one individual, while verging upon decay, and another in its highest perfection, is very far indeed from constituting a proof of identity. Great difficulties are unquestionably opposed to our researches among the lichens; but these difficulties are increased tenfold, if we examine them, without, at the same time, endeavouring to trace them through their various gradations, or if we form opinions without having seen them in different states; for no error is more pernicious than that of those botanists who promise themselves to acquire a knowledge of them by means of their herbaria alone, as, however useful single specimens of this tribe may be for the sake of reference, the naturalist that puts too much reliance upon them will find, as soon as he meets with the plants in their places of growth, that he has studied at home for little else than to confuse others, and bewilder himself."

10. Remarks upon the Dillenian Her-

barium. By Dawson Turner, Esq. F. R. S. A. S. and L. S.

Notwithstanding the acknowledged uncommon excellence of the well-known *Historia Muscorum* of Dillenius, it has not unfrequently happened that differences of opinion have arisen among botanists as to the plants really designed by the learned professor; and a confusion of synonymy has necessarily been the consequence. Mr. Dawson therefore has done good service to his favourite science, in comparing the descriptions and figures of the printed work with the specimens in the original Herbarium now preserved in the botanic garden at Oxford, which, as Mr. Dawson, and Mr. Joseph Woods, a friend who accompanied him, had the pleasure to find, are in good preservation, and fully prove the accuracy of their former possessor. The submersed algæ were the leading object of enquiry, and in these every individual specimen is noticed. In the mosses and lichens no species are mentioned except where it appears that the plants designed by Dillenius have been misunderstood. Though the two friends spent a whole day in the investigation, they had time only to look through the *conservæ*, *ulvæ*, lichens, and hypnæ, and to take a hasty view of the remaining genera of mosses, but not to open a single sheet of the *jungmanniæ*.

19. Biographical memoirs of several Norwich Botanists, in a letter to Alexander Mac Leay, Esq. Sec. L. S. By James Edward Smith, M. D. F. R. S. P. L. S.

We learn from these pleasing memoirs that the city of Norwich has long been remarkable for the attachment of some of its inhabitants to the study of botany; and we will add, what the writer of the article before us has not noticed, that it has the honour of possessing the Linnean Museum, in consequence of its being the present residence, and, if we mistake not, the birth place of the president of the Linnean society.

* Very strong proofs in favour of this observation are afforded by lichen *muscorum* and *L. impressus* of Acharius, both which are almost universally considered as distinct species; though any botanist who will be at the trouble of examining the former, may soon be convinced that it is nothing more than the common *L. paracemus*, which, in passing a wall or moss, necessarily acquires a less compact crust; a thing I have myself repeatedly traced: and as for the latter, I am as fully convinced, not so much from my own observations as from the suggestions and specimens of my acute friend Dr. Scott, professor of botany in Dublin, that it is only the scutella of *L. scruposus*, occupying the leaves of *L. pyxidum*.

CHAPTER XVI.

MEDICINE, SURGERY, ANATOMY,

AND

VETERINARY ART.

THE publications in this branch of science, which we have occasion to notice, are fewer this year than the last ; but are not deficient in interest, and mark a vigilant attention to the improvement of every branch of the medical profession. Many of them deserve a place in every well selected medical library, and may be more particularly enumerated.

Dr. Currie has, in his second volume, (composed partly from observation, and very largely from valuable correspondence), both confirmed and extended the benefit of the bold, simple, and energetical plan of extinguishing fever, which he has so powerfully recommended to public notice in his former volume. Dr. Wilson has continued his laborious inquiry into the different species of febrile affection ; and much useful information has been collected by the personal observation of Dr. McGregor, in the course of his professional duty, whilst attending the expedition of the Anglo-Indian army through Egypt, a track seldom trod by European soldiers. Assalini also has given much information in his treatise on the plague, a disease which the fortune of war has enabled us to study, not from the confused and mutilated descriptions of Jewish, Greek, or Armenian empirics, but from the clear, methodized, and scientific researches of English, French, and Italian physicians.

At home, the doubts thrown by Mr. Goldson on the efficacy of vaccination have proved of real service, by stimulating to further inquiry, and by giving a more accurate idea of the power and extent of this most valuable of all medical discoveries.

Mr. Astley Cooper, in his splendid and accurate work on hernia, has imparted to the reader much of that discriminative knowledge, which daily habit, and extensive practice, never fails to give ; and the same character of utility applies to the surgical essays of Mr. Abernethy.

Mr. Charles Bell's *System of Anatomy*, from its extent and fidelity, supplies a want much felt by the English student.

The last work from the pen of Spallanzani, one of the most illustrious of the Italian school of physiologists, will be read with more eagerness than satisfaction. The function of respiration is a subject singularly stimulating to the curiosity, as its outlines are striking, and easily comprehended ; but to the experimentalist the detail is complicated, difficult, and embarrassing. A very well selected account of all that has hitherto been done of chief importance in this subject, will be found in Dr. Bostock's *Chemico-physiological treatise*.

The re-publication of some standard books has given to the authors, and editors, the opportunity of comment, amendment, and additions.

ART. I. *Cases of Small Pox, subsequent to Vaccination, with Facts and Observations, read before the Medical Society, at Portsmouth, March 29, 1804: Addressed to the Directors of the Vaccine Institution. By WILLIAM GOLDSON, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in London.* pp. 71.

THIS pamphlet has excited a considerable sensation, not only in the minds of the public at large, but among the most enlightened and judicious medical practitioners. It is indeed the most serious attack which the vaccine inoculation has hitherto experienced, but it is an attack which we feel confident may be repelled. Mr. Goldson, who we understand is a surgeon of respectability in the neighbourhood of Portsmouth, first employed the vaccine inoculation in the autumn of 1800, and from that time forward, seems to have generally adopted the practice, and to have fully acquiesced in the generally received opinion of its utility. His confidence in its efficacy was first shaken, by the supposed occurrence of small pox, in a marine who had been vaccinated by Mr. Richman, surgeon to the division of marines at Portsmouth, at the time when the practice was first introduced to that place. There was no reason to doubt that the man had experienced the proper vaccine affection, but after an interval of about two and a half years, he was inoculated by Mr. Richman with variolous matter, and a disease ensued, which, though presenting some irregular appearances, was, upon the whole, judged by a sufficient number of competent witnesses to be the genuine small-pox. This circumstance naturally excited a good deal of attention in the neighbourhood, and seems to have induced Mr. Goldson to put several children to the test of variolous inoculation, who had previously undergone vaccinations. The pamphlet contains an account of the result of some of those experiments, when a disease took place which was pronounced to be the true small-pox.

The cases are the more striking, as Mr. Goldson himself had an opportunity of inspecting the progress of the previous vaccine disease, and from his account, which is considerably minute, it appears to have proceeded through its several stages without any irregularity or suspicious circumstance. The nature of the subsequent disease was

determined principally by the duration and obvious appearance of the pustules, of which Mr. Goldson must be admitted to be a competent judge; and his opinion was confirmed by that of other respectable practitioners, by whom the patients were inspected. There were some slight irregularities in the appearance of the eruption, which the author candidly states, but, in order, as was supposed, to remove every possibility of doubt, matter was taken from some of the pustules, and it was found to produce in other children an unequivocal small-pox.

This appears to us a fair statement of the facts; how then, it will be asked, are we to reconcile the experience of Mr. Goldson, with that of so many other medical men, who have met with results entirely dissimilar? His hypothesis is, that the casual cow-pox is an effectual preventative against the recurrence of small-pox, but that artificial vaccination renders the system unsusceptible of variolous contagion *for a limited time only*, probably not more than two or three years. This supposition, though not very probable, is, it must be confessed, possible, and it becomes a matter of the highest importance to ascertain the truth or fallacy of an opinion, in which the lives of thousands are concerned. The objections to our author's deductions may, we think, with more propriety be stated in the three following articles, which, in our opinion, contain a complete answer to his arguments against vaccination.

Before we conclude we shall remark, that, in our opinion, the present pamphlet displays marks of candour and liberality; and, as far as we can judge from appearances, its publication was produced by a desire to ascertain the truth, on a question in which the author conceived he had reason to dissent from the voice of the majority. We are indeed surprised at the want of information which is manifested in some parts of the work, but we are fully disposed to acquit the author of any blame, except that which arises from ignorance.

ART. II. *An Answer to Mr. Goldson ; proving that Vaccination is a permanent Security against the Small-pox.* By JOHN RING, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in London. pp. 43.

SHORTLY after the publication of the preceding pamphlet, an answer was announced to it from the pen of Mr. Ring, a gentleman whose active zeal in promoting the vaccine inoculation would naturally lead him to repel every attempt to diminish its utility. Mr. Goldson's work was dedicated to the Jennerian Society, and he requested them to institute experiments in order to determine whether there be not a limited period to the preservative power of vaccination. Mr. Ring, however, informs us that

"The society, however, fully convinced of the absurdity of such an hypothesis, have not thought it necessary to comply with his request."

We must confess that on this occasion the conduct of the society has not proved worthy of the high opinion which has been formed of its respectability. Its express object is the extermination of the small-pox; but in what way can this be so effectually brought about, as by using every possible method to remove the objections which may still attach to the practice of vaccination? The effect of Mr. Goldson's pamphlet on the minds of the public was too considerable to be neglected, and his arguments, however futile, certainly did not involve so evident an absurdity, as to render them undeserving of examination or reply. It appears to us, on the contrary, that experiments of the kind suggested by Mr. Goldson, will prove the only effectual means of restoring the public confidence in the practice of vaccination; and we do not hesitate to assert, that they would be more satisfactory, than the most forcible and ingenious arguments which can be produced upon the subject. Mr. Ring, indeed, states, that,

"When that society was first established, thousands of persons vaccinated by its own members, had been put to the test of variolous inoculation, and exposed to the infection of the small-pox in every form; yet none of them had caught the disease. Thousands, nay tens of thousands, are at this time exposed to the infection of the small-pox after vaccination, with impunity.

"A considerable number of them were vaccinated four or five years ago, and many

have been subjected to repeated inoculations with variolous matter, exclusive of frequent voluntary, as well as unavoidable exposure to the natural infection. It is, therefore, reasonable to conclude, that if the cow-pock were not a certain, permanent security against the small-pox, they could not all escape."

All this we believe to be true; but these round assertions of thousands and tens of thousands, do not convey to the anxious and inquiring mind the same feeling of conviction, as would be produced by the accurate detail of a very few individual cases. Until this is done, the adversary may still consider his defeat as imperfect. It appears that our author had received information of the supposed failure of Mr. Goldson's vaccination, previous to the publication of his pamphlet, and had corresponded on the subject with the father of the child whose case is first recorded. From this information we think it evidently appears, that the disease produced in this child differed from small-pox, both in the appearance which the eruption assumed, and the period of its production. The suppuration in the inoculated part, and the general febrile affection of the system, were both premature, and the eruptions which were afterwards formed on the body wanted the characteristic of the variolous pustule. These circumstances induce us to agree with Mr. Ring, in referring the symptoms to that affection which is produced by variolous inoculation, in some persons who have undoubtedly before gone through the proper small-pox. Cases of this kind are related upon the best authority, and in some, the pustules have proceeded to full maturation, and the degree of constitutional affection has even been more considerable than the majority of patients experience during their first inoculation. This circumstance had been observed before the discovery of the vaccine inoculation, and has been pointedly insisted on by Dr. Jenner and others, in order to prevent that kind of mistake, into which we conceive that Mr. Goldson has fallen. The following remark is quoted by Mr. Ring from Dr. Jenner's Inquiry :

"It should be remembered, that the constitution cannot by previous affection be rendered totally unsusceptible of the variolous poison: neither the casual, nor the inoculated small-pox, whether it produces the disease in a mild or in a violent way, can perfectly extinguish the susceptibility. The skin, we know, is ever ready to exhibit, though often in a very limited degree, the effects of the poison when inserted there; and how frequently do we see among nurses, when much exposed to the contagion, eruptions, and these, sometimes preceded by sensible illness! yet, should any thing like an eruption appear, or the smallest degree of indisposition, upon the insertion of the variolous matter on those who have gone through the cow-pox, my assertions respecting the peculiarities of the disease might be unjustly discredited."

It is also decidedly established, that the matter generated in these pustules is capable of producing the perfect small-pox, a circumstance which materially weakens the evidence adduced by Mr. Goldson, to prove that the subsequent affection in his cases was the genuine variolous disease. The second, fourth, and fifth of Mr. Goldson's cases may be accounted for in the same manner with the first. With respect to the third, there can be no doubt that the child received the small-pox, after it had been supposed to be secured by vaccination. Are we then authorized to rely implicitly on Mr. Goldson's judgment as to the result of the vaccine inoculation? We should not, on light grounds, doubt the competency of a respectable practitioner to decide on this point, but it must be confessed, that there is ground for suspicion; when he informs us, that *in no instance has he ever seen any approach to a spurious disease*, we are almost irresistibly led to conclude, either that his experience must have been very limited, or that he had failed to make himself acquainted with the marks which discriminate the genuine cow-pock from the imperfect form of the disease. With respect to the case of the marine, inoculated by Mr. Richman, to which we referred in the preceding article, we think there is just ground for suspecting that the vaccine matter employed had either been taken from the subject at too late a period of the disease, or had suffered an alteration in its properties by the length of time which it remained on the lancet.

As a reason for not trying the experiments suggested by Mr. Goldson, it is urged by our author, that the disease excited by a second inoculation with

variolous matter, both in those who have previously had the cow-pox and the small-pox, is not unfrequently attended with painful and distressing symptoms, and sometimes even with danger. There can be no doubt that an extensive suppuration in the inoculated part, a degree of constitutional affection, a few pustules on the other parts of the body, and a degree of swelling in the axillary glands, have occasionally been the consequence of the experiment. But these cases are rare, and we are inclined to think that the morbid symptoms have been in some instances unnecessarily aggravated by the great quantity of matter inserted, or some other circumstance attending the performance of the operation. It is, we confess, a choice of difficulties, but we think that the evil which might possibly result to a few individuals from experiments of this kind, infinitely less to be dreaded, than that the public confidence in the preservative powers of vaccination should be weakened.

Mr. Goldson, in order to give some degree of probability to his supposition respecting the different effects produced on the system by the casual and the inoculated cow-pox, lays a good deal of stress upon the blue colour which he thinks always obtains in the pustule of the casual disease, but which is wanting in the pustule by inoculation. Mr. Ring, however, informs us, from the authority of Dr. Jenner himself, that this distinctive mark is by no means constantly to be observed; it is sometimes wanting in persons who have received the disease immediately from the cow, and is sometimes present in the pustules produced by the common inoculation.

With respect to Mr. Goldson's peculiar hypothesis, that the preservative power of the inoculated cow-pox extends for a limited period only, Mr. Ring is satisfied with the general kind of answer which we have quoted in the beginning of this article. To most persons such an answer may be satisfactory, but we still think that the objection was deserving of a more direct refutation. Mr. Ring's pamphlet displays evident marks of ability and acuteness, and, as far as arguments can go, unsupported by experiment, we think that he has been very successful in detecting the fallacy of Mr. Goldson's statement. We cannot dismiss this article without expressing our disapprobation of the insinuations which Mr. Ring throws out against the charac-

ter of his adversary, and the motives which induced him to object to the vaccine inoculation. We believe that on this subject our author's zeal has led him to charge Mr. Goldson unjustly; and

even were there good grounds for suspecting the purity of his motives, we think the cause of truth is more promoted by dispassionate reasoning, than by petulant declamation.

ART. III. *Minutes of some Experiments to ascertain the permanent Security of Vaccination, against Exposure to the Small-pox; to which are prefixed some Remarks on Mr. Goldson's Pamphlet; with an Appendix, containing Testimonials and other Communications from many of the most respectable medical Men in this Neighbourhood.* By RICHARD DUNNING, Surgeon, and Secretary to the Dock Jennerian Institution. pp. 120.

THE second reply to Mr. Goldson's pamphlet which we shall notice is written by Mr. Dunning of Plymouth, a gentleman who, as well as Mr. Ring, was an early and zealous advocate of the vaccine inoculation. He remarks that

"Mr. Goldson's pamphlet, I fear, is much too well written not to excite a very general interest, and, I lament to add, not to occasion a vast deal of misery and distraction in many thousands of families; at the same time I am most ready to admit, and I admit it with great satisfaction, that his observations, &c. are written apparently with too much candour for me to doubt a moment his willingness fully to retract them, whenever he shall see occasion to do so. Indeed the whole tenor of the pamphlet carries conviction to my mind, that the author is not a bigot, who, if wrong, will not be convinced."

Our opinion, as we have already expressed, entirely coincides with that of Mr. Dunning. Though he conceives that all our analogies directly oppose the hypothesis of Mr. Goldson, yet he confesses, that it is to facts alone that we must make our appeal; and he accordingly took an early opportunity of applying the test of variolation, to children who had some time before received the vaccine disease.

Before he enters upon the detail of his experiments, he informs us that he commenced the practice of vaccination in the latter end of the year 1799; since that time he has vaccinated more than a thousand subjects.

"— many of whom have been subjected to variolation, and many constantly and fully exposed to casual infection of the variolous principle; and having never met with a single instance of subsequent small-pox among those subjects, nor known a case in the practice of any surgeon in this town or neighbourhood; I should fail egregiously in my duty, were I not to take this and every opportunity to assert, and re-assert my entire belief, that the protection against the small-pox which we obtain from the practice

of vaccination is not casual, nor of a limited duration, but regular and permanent."

Our author notices the occurrence of the local eruptions, which will occasionally take place in nurses, or other persons particularly exposed to the contact of variolous matter, though they have before undergone the genuine small-pox, and he remarks that the same circumstance takes place in cow-pox. A vaccine pustule of considerable magnitude, may be produced upon the arm of a person who has previously gone through either the cow-pox or the small-pox; but the character of the pustule in these cases is somewhat different from its ordinary state; the appearance of the areola he considers as the principal mark of discrimination. Our author quotes some passages from Dr. Jenner (similar to those which we have already noticed in Mr. Ring's work) on the affection which is produced by a second variolous inoculation in some persons who have certainly gone through the small-pox. The obvious conclusion from these cases is, that vaccination offers the same advantage with variolous inoculation; they neither of them can prevent a topical affection from being produced, by the direct application of large quantities of matter to the body, but they afford a sufficient security against the reception of the small-pox by exposure to its contagion.

Our author expresses his surprise at Mr. Goldson's assertion, that he has never seen any approach to the spurious cow-pox. Many cases of this description, he says, have been seen at Plymouth, and he enumerates other instances of their occurrence. Indeed, he points out circumstances in some of Mr. Goldson's own cases, which render it doubtful whether they experienced the proper vaccine disease.

The first of Mr. Dunning's experiments, of which we have an account, was performed about 3 years ago, upon a child

of his own, who eight months before had been vaccinated. Variolous matter was inserted into the arm; an early and considerable local affection took place, but no constitutional effects were produced. The subjects of the second and third experiments were also two of Mr. Dunning's own children; the elder had undergone the variolous inoculation eleven years before, the younger had been vaccinated about three years. In both these cases a local affection ensued, but no constitutional disease. The subject of the first experiment was exposed for some minutes, to the air of an apartment, fully affected with the contagion of the casual small-pox, but no trace of disease was produced. The result of this experiment is the more striking, as shortly after, the child received the contagion of scarlatina, and went through the disease with considerable severity; a strong presumption that its system was in a state fitted to receive the small-pox, had it not been rendered unsuceptible of it by the previous

vaccination. The fifth experiment contains an account of a child who had been vaccinated in the year 1800; it was taken into a

“ ——— room which had been saturated many weeks with the small-pox, she shook hands twice with the child full of it, and in the height of half-pox, and remained in the room some minutes.”

Mr. Dunning's work concludes with several letters from respectable practitioners in the neighbourhood of Plymouth, containing either their testimony to the truth of the facts stated by him, or their concurrence in the doctrines advanced in his treatise. The work, as the author acknowledges, was composed in haste, and of this there are indeed evident marks. We think it, however, a valuable performance; the experiments, though not numerous, are satisfactory, and the whole is written with the candid and liberal spirit, which ought always to accompany scientific investigation.

ART. IV. *A Statement of Evidence from Trials by Inoculation of variolous and vaccine Matter to judge of the Question—Whether or not a Person can undergo the Small-pox after being affected by the Cow-pock. By the Physicians of the original Vaccine Pock Institution, established December, 1799.* pp. 87.

ALTHOUGH Mr. Goldson seems to have intended his publication to be immediately addressed to the governors of the Jennerian Society, yet the vaccine-pock institution, over which Dr. Pearson presides, considered that they were equally called upon to answer the objections which it contained against the benefit to be derived from vaccination. This institution, indeed, presented them with peculiar advantages for this purpose; it was established in the year 1799, and there appears to have been accurate registers preserved of all the cases vaccinated since that time, a circumstance which is scarcely to be expected in the private practice of any individual. In the introduction we meet with some remarks on the operation of the matter taken in the latter periods of the disease, which is stated to differ from matter in the earlier stages, only in being less certain in producing its effect.

It is remarked that the cases adverse to the vaccine inoculation may be divided into four classes;

“ 1st. Cases of the small-pox by inoculation, in persons who had been supposed to have recently gone through the cow-pock.

“ 2nd. Those who are asserted to have

taken the small-pox on inoculation, who had gone through the supposed vaccine at a comparatively remote period, viz. three or four years ago.

“ 3d. Instances of the small-pox supervening in what is termed the *natural way*; viz. by variolous effluvia, in a short time after the supposed cow-pock.

“ 4th. Cases of the natural small-pox taking place at a more distant period after vaccination, i. e. in at least three or four years.”

With respect to the first class, the public seem now to acquiesce in the impossibility of their occurrence: even Mr. Goldson himself admits, as a part of his hypothesis, the temporary preservative effect of vaccination. With respect to the second supposition, before his publication, no one suspected that any difference could exist between the effects of recent vaccination, and of vaccination performed at a more remote period. It is contrary to all analogy and antecedent probability that the effect of the casual and the inoculated cow-pox should differ in this remarkable particular; and it is admitted on all hands that the casual disease affords a permanent security. Still however it is conceived that the objections could not

be effectually answered by experiments instituted for the express purpose, and a most respectable medical committee was accordingly selected for the execution.

A number of children, who, it appears from their registers, had gone through the proper vaccine disease from two to four years before, were inoculated with variolous matter. Above fifty cases were treated in this manner. The progress and result of the experiments are detailed with the greatest accuracy, and were completely satisfactory in establishing the permanent security which the vaccine inoculation gives against the variolous contagion.

"If these experiments do not produce conviction, and enable the authors of the contravening statements to perceive that the ground of their error consists either in their subjects in reality not having undergone the cow-pock, or in their having had some eruptive complaint, mistaken for the small-pox; we at least justly demand that our example be followed in reinstituting the trials on an equal number of persons, who can be proved by authentic and fully adequate evidence to have gone through the vaccina.—Also, that in case of eruptions attending, supposed to be the small-pox, such supervening eruptive disorders be shewn from full and authentic evidence to have been the small-pox. Without the imputation of inaccuracy, inattention, or blamable ignorance in those who declared

that the cow-pock does not produce incapability of taking the small-pox, at least that it does so only for a limited time; we feel ourselves justified in believing that they have deceived themselves, and of course we cannot admit the cases as evidences of the small-pox at any period whatever, subsequent to the cow-pock."

To this candid, but decisive declaration we perfectly assent; we, however, conceive that no unprejudiced person can peruse this report without feeling convinced, that the objections of Mr. Goldson have received a complete refutation. We think this publication does great credit to the gentlemen under whose direction the experiments were conducted. They meet every objection, and seem to remove the only serious obstacle which has occurred to retard the progress of a discovery, which in its consequences we consider more beneficial to the interests of humanity, than any within the records of modern science.

The opinion which we have formed of Mr. Goldson, induces us to believe that he will not be able any longer to resist the weight of evidence which has been brought against his opinions; and we expect that his candour will induce him to make the recantation of his errors as public as his avowal of the errors themselves.

ART. V. *A Treatise on Madness and Suicide, with the Modes of determining with precision mental Affections, in a legal Point of View; and containing Objections to Vomiting, Opium, and other Mal-practices, &c. &c.* By WILLIAM ROWLEY, M. D. Member of the University of Oxford, the Royal College of Physicians in London, Physician to the St. Mary-le-bone, Infirmary, and public Lecturer in the Theory and Practice of Medicine, excluding false Systems, &c. &c. pp. 162.

THIS treatise contains some judicious observations, combined with much vague hypothesis and inconclusive reasoning, delivered in an abrupt and antiquated style. It commences by a definition of the disease.

"Madness, or insanity, is an alienation of the mind, without fever.

"It is distinguished into two species; melancholy, or mania; furor, or raving madness.

"The former is known by sullenness, taciturnity, meditation, dreadful apprehensions, and despair.

"The latter is attended with a violent and inordinate desire often to do mischief; fury, vociferation, impetuosity of temper, an indomitable turbulence and vehemence; an angry and wild staring look in the eyes, actions rashly attempted, and as suddenly re-

linquished; obstinacy, perverseness, immobility, are amongst its characteristic signs."

The second paragraph is evidently erroneous; the author seemingly intended to contrast the two species, and to give the Latin and English names for each; as it now stands, it would appear as if mania were intended for the translation of melancholy.

After a few remarks upon the prevailing modes of practice, which he condemns as neither scientific nor judicious, he proceeds to give an account of the appearances upon the dissection of persons who have died insane. A variety of phenomena are mentioned, but without stating the authorities, and he afterwards gives the following result of his own experience.

"A turgescency of the veins of the dura and pia mater; but of this latter in particular, through all its various directions in the cortical and medullary substance of the cerebrum and cerebellum.

"A dilatation of the vessels in the plexus choroides.

"Serum in the ventricles of the brain.

"By injecting the internal, external carotids, and arteria cervicalis, no dilatation of the coats, congestions of blood, nor indeed was any blood whatever found in the arteries; but the dilatation and turgescency were either in the capillaries, or venal system."

From these appearances he deduces his leading idea, that a distention of the venous system of the brain is the immediate cause of insanity, "Passions, or meditation," he observes, "certainly force a greater quantity of blood to the brain than usual." When this operation is too often repeated, the veins are kept in a constant state of distention, their coats are weakened, and at length the sinuses themselves become over-distended. The increased flow of blood through the arteries, and its stagnation in the veins, is supposed at length to change the nature of the blood, and to produce vitiated, acrimonious fluids in the brain; the presence of these fluids causes insanity.

This we believe will be found a fair statement of Dr. Rowley's theory; it will be seen to be entirely hypothetical, and the forcible objection may be urged against it, that cases of insanity frequently occur, preceded by no apparent irregularity in the distribution of the blood, and in many instances, after death, no morbid appearance can be detected in the brain.

The power of the will in increasing muscular exertion is a subject which has long exercised the acuteness of the metaphysician; but our author easily resolves the difficulty, by supposing that we possess a voluntary power of determining an unusual quantity of blood to the head, and retaining it there for some time. It is not only an increase of muscular action, which he supposes is produced by this change in the distribution of the blood, it also may cause

"According to the pleasure of the will, either stronger, sublimer ideas in the mind, or an increase of bodily strength in all the muscles destined to voluntary motion."

Thus does Dr. Rowley attempt to ex-

plain that hitherto inexplicable connexion which subsists between mental exertion and corporeal structure. We are led to inquire, first, whether his hypothesis is in any degree supported by fact; and secondly, whether admitting its existence, it affords us any real information upon the subject. To both these questions we confess, we are inclined to answer in the negative.

The author, feeling more confident as he advances in his subject, next undertakes the still more arduous task of attempting to account for the different dispositions, which manifest themselves in different individuals, and which, when carried to excess, often constitute insanity.

"Whatever may be the pleasure or object in view, there is in the mind a proneness or propensity, either through choice, necessity, or hopes, according to the various tastes of the parties, for its acquirement, which may aptly be called mental attraction."

As a contrast to these mental attractions, we are afterwards informed that there are corporeal attractions, the meaning of which term is thus more fully explained.

"Corporeal attractions, are the assimilations and adhesions of constituent particles from nutrition, and their conversion into certain states of the blood and body peculiar to each individual, the effect of which is likewise called idiosyncrasy."

This new doctrine of corporeal attractions is illustrated by supposing, that fat people attract from their food the oily particles; thin people, the earthy and glutinous particles, &c. Hence it follows, that the difference between the mental and bodily qualities of different individuals depends upon the aggregate difference of their mental and corporeal attractions. On this hypothesis we shall remark, that the first part is merely a substitution of the new term, for the ordinary form of expression, and the second, an assumption without a shadow of proof.

It still, however, remains to be determined, how the supposed alteration in the quality or quantity of blood in the brain can affect the mental faculties. In order to the due investigation of this point, the author urges a number of arguments against the existence of a nervous fluid, in which we certainly think him success-

ful. He notices the connexion which subsists between arterial action and the state of the temperature, and concludes that the operation of the nervous system, which he denominates the soul, has an important agency in directing and controlling the action of the corporeal organs. The soul, it is supposed, can act upon all points of the body, and among others, upon the heart, and can "impel a greater or less quantity of blood to the head, for either mental or bodily exertion." It appears, however, that though the soul has such considerable power over the system, it can only act properly when the organs are in proper order; so that when the increased quantity of blood in the brain has injured the texture of this part, the soul is no longer able to produce the proper effect, even though the blood was sent there by its own effort in exciting the contraction of the heart.

This train of reasoning is contained in a string of distinct propositions; some of which are extremely hypothetical, and which in general have very little dependence upon, or connexion with, each other. Among other strange fancies which they contain, the author conjectures in the 33d, that "light perhaps, is the nervous principle."

This idea of the reciprocal action of the blood vessels and the brain upon each other, leads Dr. Rowley to form a number of conclusions on the cause of madness. The leading idea is the distention of the vessels of the brain, caused by the transmission of an unusual quantity of blood by the arteries, producing congestion, principally in the veins and sinuses. We shall quote one of the concluding propositions.

"Madness, then, is nothing but the effects of distended vessels, a checked vicious circulation, and changed fluids opposing or perverting the soul's regular action or power in the medullary substance of the cerebrum and cerebellum; in which perception, reasoning, judgment, imagination, and memory reside; as well as the nervous powers over the body, for performing voluntary and involuntary motion," &c.

The first step in the cure of madness must evidently depend upon a removal of the exciting causes when they can be discovered, or are removable. If suppressed evacuations have produced the disease, we are to endeavour to restore them; and if any particular acrimony

exists in the constitution, we are to remove it by the appropriate remedies.

The distention of the vessels may be of two kinds; distention produced by an excess of force in the heart and arteries, and distention arising from a relaxation in the coats of the vessels, while the power of the heart remains the same. The first species he names tonical, and the second atonical distention. The cure of the tonical distention consists in bleeding, drastic purgatives, and "extreme dry diet." Upon this last remedy he places great dependence, and conceives, that he is enabled by it to deplete the over-distended vessels. The cure of atonical insanity, he remarks, "will be comprehended from its opposition to the former species." He, however, insists equally on dry diet.

The author totally condemns the employment of opium in insanity, because the sedative properties of this medicine will be more "likely to fix," than to remove the disease. If it diminish the action of the circulating system, he conceives it must retard the flow of the blood, and consequently produce a tendency to its stagnation. Except the recommendation of "extreme dry diet," and the condemnation of opium, we do not discover any originality in the practical part of this treatise.

How much confidence our readers may be disposed to place in Dr. Rowley's skill in the treatment of insanity we know not, but he appears himself to be perfectly well satisfied with his attainments, for he concludes this part of his work by the following remarks;

"Thus have been explained, and communicated, many new doctrines concerning madness, its causes, and cure. The data or facts on which these principles have been constructed, are anatomical inquiries, the most certain of all, and inductive reasonings from the morbid appearances of parts, constituting many new lights on insanity. Several methods of cure, hitherto unattempted, are drawn from the foregoing reasoning, and above thirty years constant and extensive experience and reflection on the powers of medicine in every branch of the art.

"If the curative modes recommended should, as they must, in several instances, fail; yet the causes of this failure, from contemplating what is here advanced, will be better understood, than heretofore. The next useful knowledge to curing diseases, is, to comprehend, and give the reasons, why cures should not be expected. This is the distinguishing mark of real medical learning,

contrasted to rash boasting, and delusive empiricism."

Dr. Rowley not unfrequently takes occasion to refer to his other publications, and more than once speaks of his medical lectures, from which he informs us all *false systems* are excluded. We have no doubt that, like every other lec-

turer, he adopts the system which he thinks true, and avoids those which he disapproves; but if by the expression he means to convey the idea that his lectures are peculiarly free from speculation or hypothesis, we must remark that they differ very widely from the work before us.

ART. VI. *Discourses on the Management of Infants, and the Treatment of their Diseases, written in a plain and familiar Style, to render it intelligible and useful to all Mothers, and those who have the Management of Infants.* By JOHN HERDMAN, M. D. pp. 127.

WHEN we reflect "that more than one quarter of the human race die in infancy," we are led seriously to inquire whether this great mortality is the necessary operation of unavoidable causes, or whether it ought not to be imputed to some mistakes in our treatment of children. Our author is confident it proceeds from this latter cause, and even thinks it impious to conceive that the author of being should doom so many of his creatures to a premature death. Without dwelling on this mode of reasoning, which, when pushed to its utmost extent, would prove that pain and death ought not to exist in the world, we are more inclined to rest satisfied with his second argument, viz. that among savage nations, whose customs with respect to children materially differ from ours, this great mortality does not prevail. The deduction, however, is not quite clear that if our children were treated like those of the savages, they would equally escape the perils of infancy. A part at least of their danger is derived from the constitution of their parents, debilitated by luxury, and tainted by the maladies of their ancestors.

The prime source of the evil, with respect to our management of children, is conceived by Dr. Herdman to originate with the nurses and midwives; a tribe ignorant and prejudiced, who, in consequence of their supposed experience, are permitted to direct the mothers, and, in consequence of their influence in society, are often permitted to direct the medical practitioner. We think his remarks are in general true, but we cannot acquiesce in the remedy which he has pointed out, viz. that we should entirely disregard their direction, and, in short, all previous experience, and should be guided by *instinct* alone. Without entering into any metaphysical disquisition about the meaning of the term, we may be allowed to remark, that the application of instinct

to human actions is so uncertain, in consequence of the difficulty which we always have in determining what part of our knowledge we acquire by means of this principle, that we should greatly prefer the use of *reason* in all these cases. By this means, if any thing really valuable is suggested by instinct, it will not be disregarded.

After the preliminary observations, Dr. Herdman enters more immediately upon his subject, by considering "the management of the infant from the period of his birth, till the period in which he is about to suck." Several reasons, not without foundation, are offered against the usual practice of washing the child immediately after birth.

"He (the child) suffers from no less than five causes. First, from exposure to cold. Secondly, from being tossed and tumbled about upon the nurse's knee. Thirdly, from friction by her rough and rude hands. Fourthly, from the nature of the cleansing substance. And fifthly, he suffers, and he suffers most severely, from the excoriations and inflammations which follow this officious cleansing of his skin."

In place of this operation, the author simply recommends that the body be wiped dry with soft cotton, then wrapped up in a loose warm garment, and placed in the bosom of its mother.

His objections to the tight clothing of infants, to the swaddling bands and fillets with which they were invested, "more in the form of an Egyptian mummy than a living and feeling being," are what every one must admit to be just; indeed the practice in this respect has of late years undergone so considerable an alteration, that we hope remark upon this subject will soon cease to be necessary.

Another practice which Dr. Herdman strongly condemns, is giving the infant a purgative immediately after birth, =

order to remove the meconium from its bowels. We agree with him in thinking it not only useless but pernicious, and we also acquiesce in his next subject of remark, that it is, for the most part, wrong to give the child any food until its mother's milk be ready for its nutrition. We believe that the officious interference of nurses on these two points often lays the foundation for serious complaints in the stomach and bowels.

Dr. Herdman next proceeds to consider "the management of the infant from the period in which he is applied to the breast till towards the period in which he should be weaned." We were not surprised to find the author a strenuous advocate for the custom of all mothers suckling their own children. He is indeed extremely earnest in his appeal, but on a subject which has been so frequently and so ably canvassed, we cannot expect to meet with any thing novel.

A good deal of stress is laid upon the temperature at which children should be kept during the first weeks of their existence. He disapproves of the use of cold bathing and frequent exposure to the cold air, which are had recourse to from an idea of their hardening or bracing the child; an idea founded upon a false theory, and actually productive of bad consequences.

"The terms air and exercise are in the mouth of every one. These powers are prescribed at all hands to the young, the old, and the middle aged; the weak and the strong; the diseased and the healthful; the infant and the adult, without the least regard or consideration of circumstances. The infant is

sent abroad to air and exercise in the most inclement season, and even in the coldest day one can scarcely turn round without being shocked by the sight of an infant carried starving and motionless in his nurse's arms."

"But to send an infant abroad in the view of exercise is truly ridiculous; for where is the exercise of being carried motionless in a woman's arms? The exercise is to her and not to the infant. By the exertion of walking, and of carrying the infant, the heat of her body is preserved, her feelings are kept agreeable, and she receives no injury, while the poor helpless innocent, motionless in her arms, is losing heat every moment; is starving alive as it were; is suffering all the pains and injurious effects of cold."

These remarks, though, perhaps, rather carried to the extreme, are, we think, deserving of serious consideration.

With respect to the period of weaning, the author lets it, in some degree, depend upon the progress of the child's teeth, conceiving that until it has some power of mastication, it ought not to be deprived of its mother's milk. The process of weaning ought, he thinks, to be brought about very gradually; many of the diseases which frequently accompany this period of life, he attributes to the sudden alteration in the diet and habits of the child.

From this abstract our readers will conclude that the work before us is not undeserving of the attentive perusal of those engaged in the management of children. The doctrines which it inculcates are, for the most part, plain and sensible; the language, though occasionally coarse, is in general clear and forcible.

ART. VII. *Morborum Purrilium Epitome. Auctore GULIELMO HEBERDEN, Regi Reginaque Britanniarum Medico Extraordinario.* 8vo. pp. 72.

THE style and composition of this treatise will confirm the character which the author has already acquired, as an elegant and accomplished scholar. He seems to have imbibed no inconsiderable portion of the spirit and manner of Celsus, whose simplicity and terseness of expression he has happily adopted.

The propriety, however, of locking up information in a dead language, and especially on a subject of which a great and important part would be most beneficially conferred on those whose edu-

cation precludes them from any acquaintance with those languages, may be very questionable; and it seems equally doubtful whether Dr. Heberden's object in writing this treatise, which is to restore this department of medicine "ab anicularum et indoctorum ineptiis ad severiorem artis disciplinam," will be most effectually accomplished by these means. Those precepts which relate to the diet, and to the prevention of diseases in children, would, perhaps, be most usefully delivered to their mothers and

* Besides it often happens that infants suffer distortion by being carried so much in one position.

nurses; and since, among a large portion of the community, the treatment of infantile diseases will necessarily continue in the hands of the uninformed, it would probably be more advisable to treat the subject rationally, in a language which the *indocti* and the *anicle*, both in and out of the profession, would be able to comprehend. To what particular class of readers the author addresses his treatise we know not; for while the unlearned are denied any participation of its contents, the learned members of the profession, we apprehend, must be already in possession of the knowledge which it contains; and on the more important topics it will appear to them to be deficient. It may be characterised in the author's own words, "opusculum minutum sane et exile, in quo nihil fere quod non dictum ab aliis, plurimā etiam trita invenies."

In the early chapters we find a larger portion of good sense than of useful information. The 2d, 3d, and 4th, containing merely an enumeration of the most common emetics, purgatives, and astringents, with their doses; and the 5th, which describes the symptoms of general indisposition, might, perhaps, have been omitted without detriment to the reader, not only because every tyro in medicine must be familiar with the whole, but because in subsequent chapters the author is led to repetition. Chapter 13, *de inflatione*, might be translated to the *anicle* with advantage.

"Mulieres, quibus alendi infantes committuntur, multa quidem loquuntur de inflatione. Ad hanc unam vagitum, singultum, vigiliamque, vomitumque pariter referunt. Hoc tamen impune; nisi mos quoque esset ad affectum pene anilem medicamenta periculo plena adhibere. Quippe qui aqua menthæ piperitidis, aut spiritu vini meraciore hanc student depellere, verendum est ne ægrum, quam morbum, prius extinguant.—Ante omnia igitur videndum est, ne plus assumat æger, quam concoquat; sed potius exiguum cibum sæpius in die, quam uno tempore pleniorē. Tum quoque cibi genus facile esse oportet, aut quadam in eo mutari. Præter hæc, sæpe conveniunt pulveris aliqujus amari et aromatici grana pauca semel aut bis quotidie sumpta, et simul rhabarbari quantum ventrem emolliat."

With respect to the more serious and important diseases, both the history of the symptoms and the methods of cure are in general related too briefly to be instructive, and the remedies are enumerated with too little discrimination as

to the period, or type of the disease, to which they are particularly adapted, or in which they may prove injurious. The symptoms of the *acute hydropcephalus* are thus related.

"Illius speciei, quæ serius nascitur, præsigna sunt; febricula, dolores capitis repetiti, nausea, hebetudo, impatiētia, delirium, dilatatio pupillarum, generatimque labor, et modo veterinus, modo distentio membrorum, denique intra mensem morbus."

One remarkable symptom, *strabismus*, is omitted; and the *impatiētia luctus*, and *dilatatio pupillarum* seem to be mentioned as compatible symptoms, although the former is obviously the result of an extreme sensibility of the retina, the latter the opposite state of insensibility in the organ: the one originating in an inflammatory state of the brain, and peculiar to the commencement of the disease, the other supervening in the latter stage as a consequence of effusion. That more important view of the disease, suggested by Drs. Quin, Whytt, &c. and grounded upon these opposite symptoms, and upon the extraordinary variations of the process is entirely overlooked; and, of course, that remedy from which alone, perhaps, any hopes of success are to be derived, and which we believe we have seen effectual in the onset of the disease, viz. *topical bleeding*, is not alluded to.

In the chapter which treats of *scarlatina* (a term which the author discards, probably as unclassical, and substitutes the words *febris rubra*) the remedies are stated somewhat indiscriminately.

"Hic morbus et angina, si unus alter non sint, eandem saltem curationem præstant. Itaque adversus hunc quoque utilis est decocto cinchonæ, et aromaticis, et emplastris cantharidis; conservantur vires omnibus modis."

Although the identity of the entity which produces scarlatina and erysipelas, has, we apprehend, been established, yet the inference of the identity of the remedies required, is no means admissible, nor can it be considered as sanctioned by general experience. No one affirms that the confluent small-pox require the same remedies, although the identity of its origin be unquestionable; and we receive that the exhibition of warm cordials in the incipient stage of scarlatina would be a reprehensible practice, when the morbid heat is, perhaps, than it is ever observed.

other febrile disease, and more especially since the evidence of the most experienced practitioners in this disease, confirms the advantage derived from gentle emetics and diaphoretics, and some even recommend the external use of cold water in its primary stage. If the active febrile actions be moderated in the commencement by these means, the subsequent prostration of strength is greatly lessened, and the necessity of recurring to bark and cordials greatly diminished. The tendency of the disease to debility in many constitutions, and especially in some seasons of its epidemic prevalence, will of course be kept in view by the discriminating practitioner, and will regulate the early or later exhibition of these stimulating remedies. Blisters, even in the cynanche maligna, are by many practitioners considered as of doubtful utility; but in scarlatina, unless there be also an affection of the throat, we know not to what good purpose they can contribute. Dr. Heberden here makes one important observation.

“Gravis imprimis questio est, quam cito

ART. VIII. *A Dissertation on Gout; exhibiting a new View of the Origin, Nature, Cause, Cure, and Prevention of that afflicting Disease; illustrated and confirmed by a Variety of original and communicated Cases.* By ROBERT KINGLAKE, M. D. Member of the Royal Medical Society of Edinburgh, of the Physical Society of Göttingen, &c. &c. and Physician at Taunton. 8vo. pp. 348.

THE existence of gouty affections we find recognised in the most ancient records of medical science. It appears that an idea was early formed that the attacks of this complaint are the operation of a salutary effort of the constitution to throw off some greater impending evil, and that consequently, though it might be necessary in some instances to moderate its severity, it was seldom, if ever, safe to attempt to remove it altogether from the system. This opinion has been transmitted, almost without interruption, to the present age, when Dr. Darwin and Dr. Heberden ventured to call in question the stability of the principles on which it was founded. The author of the treatise before us adopts this idea in its fullest extent, and in the following work undertakes to prove

“That gout differs in no essential circumstance from common inflammation; that it is not a constitutional, but merely a local affection; that its genuine seat is exclusively in the ligamentous and tendinous structure; that its attack is never salutary; that it should neither be encouraged nor protracted; and

liceat hos ægros familie suæ reddere sine contagii metu. Eundem die quinto a signito rubore quosdam in societatem fratrum, cute prius eluta, rediisse cognovi, qui nihil mali secum attulerunt.”

This question has been little considered till lately; and a series of observations will be necessary to decide it. It must be remembered that the disease has appeared to be communicated in several instances even later than the tenth day. (See Dr. Blackburn's Treatise.)

In several of the chapters, as in the 30th, *de morbis oculorum*, and the 41st, *de morbillis*, &c. we find a perspicuous compendium of what is most commonly known in regard to those diseases. But on the whole, whatever addition this little treatise may afford to the well-merited reputation of the author will be on the score of his knowledge and taste in classical literature, rather than on account of any improvement which he may have attempted to introduce into the practice of medicine in the diseases of children.

that, if seasonably and appropriately treated, it is as easily remediable as inflammatory excitement on the muscular, articular, or any other description of organic texture.”

The body of the work is divided into six sections; the first, which is styled “origin of gout,” is especially occupied with declamations against the force of prejudice, and the tardiness with which mankind are disposed to adopt improvements in medicine. We do not meet with any thing in this section which accords with its title, and we are quite at a loss to discover its application to the matter contained in it.

In the second section, on the “nature and constitution of gout,” the author enters fairly into the subject, and begins to develop more fully his peculiar notions.

“Gout,” he informs us, “is a greater or less degree of inflammatory affection of the ligaments and tendons, induced by distempered excitability of those parts from various causes.”

He adds,

“It is an erroneous notion that it may be

constituted by transient excitement, without the more stationed features of inflammation. This is transient irritation only, and wants the essential and more durable circumstances of definite gout."

It would appear from these remarks that the Doctor confines his ideas of gout to the local affection of the limb, a surmise which we find confirmed as we advance in the work. It is, indeed, expressly stated that true gout "has its station exclusively in the ligamentous and tendinous structure." If, however, the author unusually restricts the meaning of the word, by confining it to the local disease of the extremities alone, we find that he deviates as widely from popular custom in the opposite direction, in conceiving that all inflammatory action of these parts is essentially the same, and that of course gout and rheumatism differ only in degree; he even goes so far as to consider the inflammation produced by external violence, as constituting the same kind of affection.

Our readers will be doubtless anxious to learn the reasons which have induced Dr. Kinglake to form opinions so remote from those generally received. As far as we are able to comprehend his argument, it appears to be briefly this, he defines gout to be a simple inflammation of a ligament or tendon; hence it follows, first, that no part can be affected with gout that is not furnished with a ligamentous or tendinous structure; and, secondly, that every inflammation of a ligament or tendon must be gout. He, indeed, remarks, as a confirmation of his opinion, that it is often found extremely difficult to distinguish between gout and rheumatism.

"Experience bears ample testimony to the extreme difficulty of applying the prevailing ground of distinction between gout and rheumatism. Medical practitioners are often inextricably perplexed with the diagnostic phantom of gout and rheumatism. In consultation it becomes a subject of awful discussion. The irascible and bigotted are apt to dissent violently, sometimes indeed oppositely; the demure, more gravely, whilst the polite conformist compromises the difficulty by denominating it rheumatic gout. Such puerilities surely are unworthy of medical science, and should not be tolerated in a philosophical age."

But ought this to be considered as a proof of the identity of the two diseases, or of the imperfection of science, and the ignorance of physicians? Is this the

only instance in which it has been found difficult to form a diagnostic between two diseases, the phenomena of which are sometimes seen to run into each other by almost imperceptible gradations, though their extreme cases are marked by sufficiently discriminating symptoms? Our present limits will not permit a full discussion of the question, a circumstance which we the less regret, as we feel confident that the majority of our readers will agree with us in thinking that the ordinary cases of gout and rheumatism are easily distinguished from each other, both in their cause, appearance, and consequences.

We think the author more successful in his attempt to controvert the popular idea that a quantity of morbid matter is formed in the constitution, that its deposition upon one of the extremities produces the gouty inflammation, and thus disencumbers the system of the load by which it had previously been oppressed. This hypothesis, which had its origin in the doctrines of the humoral pathology, seems indeed to have derived little support from fact, and like the other parts of that once celebrated system, must now give place to the more correct deductions of modern science. We cannot, however, adopt Dr. Kinglake's opinions in their full extent, and consider that the inflammation of gout presents nothing of a specific nature, and that it is connected only accidentally with a general derangement of the system. Without pretending to explain the nature of the connexion, we do not hesitate to assert that this connexion does exist in gout, and that it forms a decided and well marked characteristic of the disease. The fallacy of the argument by which the author attempts to combat this opinion, we conceive our readers will not find it difficult to detect,

"Constitutional gout would pre-suppose constitutional fabric of ligament and tendon, in a state of inflammatory action from excessive excitement. The physical conditions, or requisite structure, therefore, to give effect to what is strictly understood by gouty inflammation, can only be found in the joint. What is erroneously termed gout in the system, is no more than disordered excitability, whether occurring originally or symptomatically, which may be concentrated or determined on the articular fabric, where it may be considered as an aggravation of the disease, by increasing the previous degree of systemic irritation, and in no instance to be remedial

But though he conceives that gout properly so called, is never a constitutional affection, he is obliged to acknowledge that a general disease of the system frequently accompanies the inflammation of the limb.

"The general symptoms," says our author, "arising from gouty inflammation are those of systematic commotions from sympathetic influence. Much diversity is liable to occur in these general effects on the economy, according to the prevailing motive and conditions of the system, whether temperamental, habitual, or morbid. When equal energy pervades the frame, with entire freedom from visceral ailment, the diseased agitation will be equally distributed, and not disproportionately arrested on any particular organ, which will afford a general exemption from danger: on the contrary, if stomaching, hepatic, pneumatic, or any other organic affection should exist, the sympathetic effect of the gouty irritation may become preponderant on either of those parts, and induce a higher and more painful degree of visceral disease than would arise from its equal operation."

As far as we can collect the author's meaning, it seems that he considers the constitutional complaints as not essential to the disease, and as only of secondary importance. Indeed, we are afterwards more expressly told that "visceral participation in gouty excitement loses its ideal terror," when we come to consider that

"As the structure necessary to its constitution does not exist in the fabric of parts more immediately invested with the function of life."

Our readers will no doubt be able to appreciate the weight of this argument.

Considering the inflammation as possessing nothing specific in its nature, the author proceeds to detail the topical effects produced by it on the affected limb. We shall present our readers with the speculations of Dr. Kinglake on the formation of chalk stones, after reminding them that, most unhappily for his hypothesis, these substances have been found by Dr. Wollaston to consist not of phosphate of lime, but of lithate of soda.

"In this disordered excitability, as well as altered structure, it is not difficult to perceive the cause of the worst effects that characterize prolonged and inveterate gout. If the gouty inflammation be not early subdued, an effusion of coagulable lymph and a generation of new vessels will soon permanently thicken and enlarge the affected ligaments

and tendons. The continued irritation from this structural derangement will vitiate the vascular action of the periosteal covering of the gouty joint, and force its exhalant vessels to bring back from the bony fabric more or less of ossific principles, with its diluent fluid. These principles are phosphoric acid and lime, which are combined with other substances into the form of organic bone, by the nutritive or generative vessels of that structure.

"The osseous but unossified substances exhaled on the gouty joint, aggregate and form in the temperature of the part the calcareous concretions, which, advancing to the cuticular surface by arterial impulse behind, and ulcerative decomposition before, at length appear through the skin in knots, or tophous tumours, and are finally discharged under the name of chalk-stones."

After having taken a more minute view of the phenomenon of the disease, he directly affirms

"That no difference whatever exists between gouty and other forms of inflammation, but in circumstances of degree and situation."

This position he endeavours to strengthen by taking into consideration the nature of inflammatory action.

"Inflammatory excitement is universally similar, whatever be its degree or situation. The variety of remote causes by which it is induced, generates no correspondent difference in its quality. It consists exclusively of active violence. It is a sort of combusive state of vital motion, and may be aptly likened to fire, which, with whatever fuel kindled, burns with identical heat."

He concludes the section by a review of the commonly received varieties in which gout makes its appearance. The distinctions usually adopted, tonic, atonic, retrocedent, and misplaced, he conceives to be more fanciful than real.

"They arise from different states of sympathetic energy, and visceral susceptibility for associative or sympathetic impression."

He admits the existence of only two forms of the disease, which he thinks may be "descriptively expressed by the terms acute and chronic." These appear to correspond to the two first species, tonic and atonic; the retrocedent he endeavours to explain agreeable to his peculiar hypothesis, though in a way which we do not perfectly understand. With respect to the last, he does not hesitate to declare that

"Misplaced gout is then a misnomer; when it holds not its natural situation, when it occupies not its indispensable structure, its existence is no where but in branular fiction."

The third section contains an account of the "remote and proximate cause of gout." The author strongly censures those persons who are still so wedded to established prejudice, as to conceive that there must be something different in the inflammation of gout from that produced by external violence.

"Exquisite pain, shining tumefaction, articular immobility, and systematic irritation, correctly exhibit the gouty malady: but the sanctioned doctrines of medical schools, as well as popular prejudice, would consider an attempt to assimilate the effects of a sprained joint with the gout, as but little short of sacrilegious innovation; as trifling with the holy mystery of inscrutable disease, and rendering great things little indeed. Such declamation may be sounding, but it is nonsensical, without either point or authority, without any just regard for true science and its liberal investigation."

Admitting the justness of the views brought forward in the preceding section, we are prepared for the following proposition.

"Rejecting the prevailing opinion of its being a disease of a specific nature, producible only by its peculiar cause, its contemplation is placed on the broad basis of simple inflammatory affection, acknowledging for its cause every stimulant agency capable of inducing that degree of excitement."

External violence must, according to this opinion, be a prime cause of gouty inflammation; but in consequence of the peculiar minuteness and delicacy of the vascular system of the ligaments, whatever produces general indisposition of the body at large, is supposed capable of affecting these parts with inflammation. This general indisposition is, however, not itself any part of the specific disease of gout; on the contrary we are expressly assured that, in this case, the gout "owes its existence to accidental influence."

The author considering gout as a mere topical affection, we were almost surprised to find that he admitted it to be hereditary.

"However gouty inflammation may have been repeatedly produced, whether by external violence, the gradual formation of altered structure, or local excess of distempered excitability on the ligamentous, tendinous, and fascial parts, the morbid

changes induced will at length become so radically influential in the motive powers of the system, as to generate a transmissible state of temperamental susceptibility for morbid affection."

Dr. Kinglake, however, takes care to inform us that in these cases it is the "gouty excitability" only which can be said to be hereditary.

We have before noticed that our author adopts the idea that gout and rheumatism are identical; we have, accordingly, variation of temperature enumerated as one of the most frequent causes of gout. The fifth cause of gout is "plenitude arising from dietetic excess and deficient exercise." It does not, however, appear that he conceives there is any specific connection between a disordered state of the stomach, and the gouty inflammation of the limbs. A general distention of the vessels is produced, the effect of which is experienced in different parts of the system; the frequency of the gouty affection only marks the peculiar liability of the ligaments to participate "in the diseased irritation, induced either by undue distention or sympathetic influence." It is also admitted that the stomach may sympathize with an inflamed limb, but still the stomach, in this case, has not the gout. For why? because, reader, there are no ligaments or tendons in the stomach, which, as you have already been informed, are the only seat of gout. Other remote causes successively fall under our review: excess in drinking, diminished secretions, indigestion, occasional derangement of health; and the circumstance of the gout having previously existed, renders its return more to be apprehended. The author continues to adhere steadily to his opinion, that the gout can subsist only in a ligament or tendon, and that any connection which it may appear to have with the stomach, or constitution at large, is merely accidental.

We now proceed to the proximate cause of gout, a subject which has afforded scope for much medical acuteness, and on which the present writer seems to have expended all the force of his genius.

"The proximate cause of all gout results from the aggregate efficiency of the remote causes, and is truly the disease itself. The efficiency, or proximate cause, by which the disease is constituted, consists in stagnation and an increased degree of vital excitement motion in the affected parts."

Dr. Kinglake, probably aware that the term vital motion might not be fully comprehended by some of his readers, proceeds to explain it in the following luminous paragraph.

"By vital motion is meant a repellency, subsisting between the constituent particles of all matter. This innate power or property is, by a law of nature, spontaneously evolved from atomical surfaces, and assumes character and determinate force, when issuing from the congeries, or combination of material substances, which forms specific or particular structure."

As the idea appears to us to be perfectly novel, we shall indulge the reader with the following quotation, in which the hypothesis is still farther developed.

"The exertion of this universally repellent power, in the organic fabric of the animal economy, is life, or vital motion. The action of this power denotes itself in animal feeling as heat; an undistinguishable identity, therefore, with respect to the object, subsists between what has been variously denominated repulsive motion, vital action, and heat. These several modes of the same thing arise from the different circumstances in which it is operative. Repulsive motion is the natural efficiency of matter, and universally pervades every conceivable atom; vital motion is the organic efficiency of matter, and heat is the impression only, which that power makes on animal sensation."

Laying aside the author's peculiar notions respecting the nature of heat, it appears that he conceives gout to consist merely in the excessive accumulation of it in the diseased part. Dr. Kinglake congratulates himself on the happy manner in which this hypothesis, respecting the proximate cause of the disease, applies to the method of cure, which he remarks is "unique in the catalogue of diseases."

In the following sentence we meet with the hypothesis of Dr. Kinglake, respecting the manner in which caloric is generated in the human body.

"As vital motion, in healthy as well as morbid states, is generated by the atomical and compound efficiency of organic matter, its excess, defect, and diseased agitation, must depend on the existing motive conditions of the animal fabric."

We do not perceive that the author adduces a single argument in favour of his hypothesis, or attempts to repel any

objections that might be urged against it. He is indeed so fully persuaded of its truth, that he boldly asserts, that "though excessive heat should not be thermometrically discoverable at the surface, yet it actually prevails as the necessary effect of commotion."

The 4th section contains an account of the "cure of gout." The originality which our author has displayed in his ideas respecting the nature and cause of this disease, prepared us for some new opinions respecting the method of cure; and we have found his opinion no less sagacious on this point, than on the other parts of his subject. The gout consisting solely of a morbid accumulation of heat in the affected part, the only thing necessary for its cure is, he conceives, the removal of that heat by external cold. The application of cold water is the most commodious method of producing this effect, and this indeed is very nearly the whole of Dr. Kinglake's practice. This simple plan of treatment is unfolded in the following eloquent paragraph.

"Cold water is the universal boon of nature, is the vehicle of atmospheric temperature, in which the functions of health are carried on, and to the refrigerant offices of which, intemperate heat yields its hurtful influence. The fluid then which bears this salutary temperature, is the simple and efficacious remedy here proposed, for the immediate relief and speedy cure of gouty in common with every description of inflammation. It should be applied topically to the affected parts, either by means of wetted cloths, by gentle showering, or actual immersion. A durable degree of cold must be supported; the refrigerant force, therefore, of its first application must be uniformly continued, by frequently renewing the cold water, which soon becomes heated by the inflammatory temperature of the affected parts. This course should be pursued until the painful sensation of burning heat shall subside, and with it the concomitant efflorescence and tumefaction."

In conformity with the leading idea of the identity of all inflammatory affections of the joints, the author conceives that they must be combated by the same remedy, and to this alone he seems to trust the removal of every kind and degree of gouty affection, with scarcely any limitation or exception.

As far as we are able to comprehend the author's more recondite speculations, we conceive him to be a zealous disciple

of the Brunonian doctrine; this idea affords us the only clue to the explanation of the following remarks.

"There are indeed two modes of reducing inflammatory heat: the one is by diffusion, or transference through substances at a lower temperature; the other is by exhausting the fuel, or the pabulum which evolves it: thus, combusive force will diminish, as the final destruction of the burning body approaches; but it must be remembered also, that it will cease altogether, when the body is wholly burnt: in like manner organic structure may be so stimulated, as at length to be nearly exhausted of vital power, and consequently be reduced to languid motion; but here too, its total exhaustion is hazarded, which would be tantamount to death itself."

From the opinions displayed in the 2d section, we were quite prepared to find this practice extended to other topical inflammations.

"It is on this crooked principle, that scalds and burns are attempted to be remedied by exposure to fire, and the application of spirit of turpentine; that sprains are treated with stimulant applications; that recent incisions, and contusions, are washed with spirituous embrocations; and that gangrenous inflammation is subjected to the excitant impression of effervescing and fermentative poultices."

We shall pass over the pages in which the author feelingly laments over the prejudice which still prevails in favour of increased temperature in these complaints. We do not perceive that any additional arguments are brought forwards in support of his opinion, or that his remarks contain any thing new, except the language in which they are conveyed.

The section concludes with some general observations upon the method of removing the stomach affections, which, though not any essential part of the disease, sometimes accidentally accompany the gouty inflammation. He seems indeed, as might be expected, to attach but little importance to their operation.

The subject of the 5th section, the "prevention of gout," is obviously of peculiar importance. For though, according to the statement of the author, this disease may be so easily cured, still it is more advisable altogether to prevent its attacks. Food being one of the principal stimuli which produce the ex-

citement of the system, and predispose to this disease, a proper attention to the quantity and quality of the diet, or to use the more elegant expression of Dr. Kinglake, "dietetic regulation," must afford an important means of preserving the state of the health. We are accordingly informed, that "the errors of both excess and defect are correspondingly manifested in vital action, which will be shaped and characterized by temperamental susceptibility for morbid impression." It is stated that when the system is weakened by "dietetic excess," we learn from experience that the ligamentous and tendinous structure is peculiarly liable to become the seat of inflammatory action. Restriction in diet becomes therefore the necessary method of preventing gout, a conclusion to which we most fully assent, but which we do not find receives any additional confirmation from the speculations of Dr. Kinglake.

As co-operating with the effects of abstemiousness, exercise, moderate temperature, the prevention of indigestion, and washing the hands and feet in cold water, are recommended. But we have dwelt so long upon the former part of the work, that we feel it incumbent upon us to hasten to the conclusion of this article.

The 6th section, entitled "recapitulation," consists of the matter of the former sections, drawn up in the form of a series of propositions. The 5th, 6th, and 7th propositions contain a summary of the leading doctrines respecting the nature of gout.

"3. The nature of gout is purely inflammatory, and possesses no peculiar or specific properties to distinguish it from common inflammation, but what are referable to the structure or organization of the affected parts.

"6. The seat of the gout is exclusively in the ligamentous and tendinous fabric; the texture of which, when inflamed, affords all that is peculiar or characteristic of gout. This fabric therefore is necessary to the constitution of what is called gouty inflammation, which evinces that it cannot occur on any of the visceral or vital organs, as these possess nothing of the ligamentous or tendinous structure.

"The several appellations of gout, rheumatism, and sprain, are only nominally different; they in fact describe identity of affection. Any external variation which may present in the degree and progress of the disorder, does not alter the fundamental nature

ness of the disease, which, consisting in an inflammatory irritation of the ligamentous and tendinous structure, will exclusively remain such, however variously and capriciously denominated."

In the 8th it is expressly stated, that the origin of gout is always local, as it can only arise in the ligaments and tendons; and in the 9th it is maintained, that it must necessarily remain confined to this particular structure, and therefore cannot pass into the brain, stomach, or bowels.

To the body of the work is subjoined an appendix of nearly 200 pages, containing the detached papers, originally published in the Medical and Physical Journal, by Dr. Kinglake and his correspondents. A number of original cases are added, many of them from very respectable practitioners. The body

of evidence in favour of the cautious application of cold in some stages of gouty inflammation, is certainly striking, and, we think, deserving of attention. But we are strongly of opinion, that the unqualified manner in which the new practice is recommended in the present work, would prove in many constitutions highly dangerous.

Our readers must no doubt have been struck with the singularity of Dr. Kinglake's style. It reminds us of some of the attempts, which were formerly made, to burlesque the peculiarities of Dr. Johnson; and were it not for the nature of the subject, and the circumstances attending the publication, we should be almost tempted to regard it as a caricature of some fashionable author. The language is indeed, to the last degree, turgid, verbose, and affected.

ART. IX. *An Account of two Cases of Gout, which terminated in Death, in consequence of the external Use of Ice and Cold Water.* By A. EDLIN. pp. 24.

"THE little experience" which the author has had in the application of cold to gouty inflammation, a practice which has "almost petrified him with horror," he is anxious to relate, in order to guard the unwary against the delusion of Dr. Kinglake's "plausible theory." It consists in fact but of *one* case; for the second is related merely from the recollection of two old ladies, one of whom attended the patient's funeral, upwards of 30 years ago. The case, which the author saw, is that of a respectable surgeon at Uxbridge, who, by means of sponging with cold water, and afterwards by the application of cloths dipped in iced water, immediately relieved, and in less than three hours removed the pain from his inflamed foot, which he considered as affected with the gout. In the course of a few hours he was seized with palpitation, vomiting, and a sensation of great coldness in the stomach, intermitting pulse, and cold extremities. These symptoms were removed by strong antispasmodics internally, and by the external application of bladders of hot water. Three days afterwards the same alarming symptoms returned, and were by the same means alleviated. But after another interval of four days, they recurred a third time, and proved fatal.

We agree with the author, that this was probably a case of what has been called *repelled gout*. But the nosological term

is not associated so strongly in our minds with a certain invariable treatment, as to preclude us from viewing calmly any judicious deviation that may be proposed. And before we conclude that particular treatment is detrimental, we must be satisfied that it was judiciously employed. The author, however, has omitted to state the particular circumstances of the patient, which might determine our conclusions. He has not told us the age, the temperament, the state of constitution of the patient, nor the previous number of attacks, all which, as well as the mere existence of the local inflammation, should be considered in determining the danger of a metastasis to the stomach, in consequence of a removal of the local disease. The authority of Dr. Kinglake is not sufficient, we apprehend, to counterbalance the evidence of the most judicious physicians, by whom an affection of the stomach, or other vital organs, consequent to a suppression of the local inflammation, has been frequently described, and is still frequently observed. But, on the other hand, the deleterious effects of the practice which he recommends, cannot be asserted from a single case, nor from a number of instances, unless it were judiciously employed, with every attention to collateral circumstances.

ART. X. *A Treatise on Febrile Diseases, including intermitting, remitting, and continued Fevers; eruptive Fevers; Inflammations; Hemorrhagies; and the Profusio; in which an Attempt is made to present, at one View, whatever, in the present State of Medicine, it is requisite for the Physician to know respecting the Symptoms, Causes, and Cure of those Diseases; with Experimental Essays, on certain Febrile Symptoms, on the Nature of Inflammation, and on the Manner in which Opium and Tobacco act on the living Animal Body.* By A. PHILIPS WILSON, M. D. F. R. S. Ed. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, Edinburgh, &c. Vol. 4. 8vo. pp. 740.

THE three preceding volumes of this work were published previous to the commencement of our Review. They have obtained a considerable and well-merited share of approbation from the public, and afford a judicious and comprehensive view of some of the more important genera of the Pyrexia of Dr. Cullen, arranged according to his system. The remaining diseases of that class, with the exception of catarrh, which the author deemed it unnecessary to treat of, are comprised in the volume before us; viz. Cynanche trachealis, the inflammations of the thoracic and abdominal viscera, rheumatism, gout, the hæmorrhagies, phthisis pulmonalis, and dysentery. Dr. Wilson is entitled to considerable credit, for the assiduity and judgment with which he has compiled the most valuable observations of the older writers, and discarded their absurdities; but he has perhaps too seldom ventured to interpose the result of his own experience, where they have left the matter in much doubt, or even asserted contradictions. His information is extensive, and his opinions, if not bearing the stamp of originality, are the result of good sense; and, on the whole, this volume appears to us to contain the best systematic treatise on the diseases, which it includes, that is extant. We shall state a few of the observations which occurred to us in perusing it.

In the first chapter, the author has made a division of croup into two varieties; that which we sometimes meet with in adults, and that which attacks children from the time they are weaned till about twelve years of age; yet he acknowledges that the symptoms, and the remedies required, are the same in both. Were we thus to multiply diseases, we must run into endless confusion; and lose sight of the only advantages which attend a nosological division, the precision with which the nature of the disease may be ascertained, and consequently the peculiar treatment which it requires. It cannot be doubted that the

diseases are the same. In one case which fell under our notice of a gentleman, aged 45, who died on the second day from the attack, with the symptoms of croup, the peculiar symptom, or, as it has been supposed, the proximate cause of the disease, consisting of an exudation of evaguable lymph into the trachea, was ascertained by dissection.

It is not easy to collect from the author's observations, whether he considers the acute asthma and croup as different diseases, with Michaelis and Dr. Millar, or whether, with Dr. Rush, he would call the one cynanche trachealis spasmodica, the other cyn. trach. humida. We are rather disposed to think with Dr. Cullen, that they are one and the same disease; in some instances combined more or less with pneumonic symptoms, more or less remittent, &c. In the very ample detail of remedies, he has said little of mercury. He merely remarks that Dr. Rush has recommended it as possessed of some virtue, independently of its purgative quality; and adds, "It is probable that it may be of service in the croup, though not in the degree in which Dr. Rush alledges." p. 40. We notice this on account of the strong testimony, which has been added by Mr. Rumsey to that of Dr. Rush, in favour of the powerful effects of this remedy in the cure of croup. (See Med. and Chirurg. Trans. vol. 2.) If its valuable qualities, experienced by Mr. Rumsey in the treatment of this disease, be corroborated by general experience, none of the other remedies proposed can be put in competition with it.

The section on pneumonia is valuable: but the author perhaps leans with too much confidence on the authority of some names which, in our ignorance, we had never heard before, and others to which we did not attach any great respect. Quain, Wendt, Schroeder, &c. are quoted again and again, for facts of rare occurrence and opinions of doubtful validity. Dr. Wilson has demonstrated the error and absurdity of divid-

ing pneumonia into the two species, pleurisy and peripneumony, which Dr. Cullen was induced to adopt, rather in compliance with general prejudice, than as the result of his own conviction. Upon comparing the different accounts given by the writers who assume this division, Dr. Wilson affirms, that the only points in which they all agree are, that an obtuse and pretty general pain, or the total want of pain with a great degree of dyspnoea, is the chief characteristic of peripneumony; and an acute pain, of pleurisy. Yet even this limited distinction is invalidated by dissection. The parenchyma has been found inflamed, where the symptoms had been those of pleurisy, and vice versa. The author also maintains, what we believe is equally indubitable, that the inflammations of the diaphragm, mediastinum, pericardium, and of the heart itself, are not to be distinguished from inflammations of the lungs or pleura. Dissections, related upon the authority of Morgagni, Cullen, Cleghorn, &c. prove that the symptoms attributed to an inflamed state of these organs respectively, have been present where the organs were found free from disease; and on the contrary, that these organs have been found greatly inflamed on dissection, when the peculiar symptom supposed to indicate inflammation in them had not previously appeared. The symptoms of pneumonia belong equally to them all; and the same remedies are required. The author has added an ample detail of the varieties of pneumonia, including not only the pneumonia typhodes, peripneumonia notha, bastard pleurisy or rheumatism of the muscles of respiration, but those varieties also which arise from irritations in the abdominal viscera. With respect to some of the latter we must confess ourselves somewhat sceptical. The pressure of a schirrous liver, or an indurated spleen upon the diaphragm, may possibly in some instances excite inflammation in the lungs; but we doubt much whether a distant irritation in the intestines, independent of mechanical pressure, and through the medium of a supposed nervous sympathy, can be said to have produced a pulmonary inflammation; nor do we conceive that the discovery of a superabundance of bile, or of a lumbricus, in the elementary canal of a person destroyed by pneumonia, is a sufficient evidence that the fatal disease originated from the irritation

which they had occasioned. The frequent existence of these irritating matters, however, suggest the propriety, as the author has remarked, of clearing the *primæ viæ* in all cases of pneumonia, whether symptomatic or not. In that unmanageable part of the disease, called pneumonia typhodes, where much must depend upon the judgment of the practitioner, the author has particularised the remedies with becoming caution. Bleeding, he observes, has been found in general to accelerate the fatal termination; and, upon the whole, the treatment which he recommends, is dictated with a view to the typhoid, rather than to the inflammatory symptoms. The safest and most useful remedy in putrid pneumonia, is wine. The bark, in the author's opinion, is more exceptionable.

The chronic hepatitis is introduced among the phlegmasiæ, perhaps with little propriety. The symptoms which are said to characterise this obscure disease, have nothing in common with those of acute inflammations; and, on the other hand, they occur in many or in all those chronic derangements of the structure of the liver, which we are seldom able to discriminate during the life of the patients. We conceive, therefore, that this class of symptoms should have been excluded; or, if the author was unable to point out the diagnostic marks, by which simple chronic inflammation might be distinguished from the various schirrous and tubercular diseases, which are discovered by dissection, he should have included the consideration of these modifications of hepatic disease; which, however, he has omitted to mention.

On the subject of acute rheumatism, we are accustomed to see a good deal of inconsistency in the observations of writers, and no very satisfactory account of the efficacy of remedies. In both respects Dr. Wilson has exposed himself, though in a less degree, to the same censure. We are often told that rheumatism is a pure phlegmasia, yet that it neither tends to suppuration nor to gangrene. The fever, it is said, is a simple synocha, yet it does not like synocha terminate frequently in typhus. The blood, we are informed, exhibits a buffy coat equally strong as in the most violent inflammatory fevers, therefore profuse venesection is to be prescribed; yet in the gout, where according to Sydenham there is the same appearance of the

blood, venæsection is asserted to be prejudicial. Dr. Wilson appears to have had some transient notion of these inconsistencies, and his own statement in consequence betrays some indecision. He observes with respect to bleeding, "in acute rheumatism it is seldom advisable to push general evacuations till the local symptoms are relieved: in this disease the danger proceeds not so much from the local as from the general symptoms." p. 289. If the danger alluded to be that of a fatal termination, we apprehend that in pure rheumatism no such danger exists. If it be the danger of a long, severe, and deplorable disease, not less painful than the original complaint, and wearing out the strength of the patient, we apprehend it will proceed from the local symptoms, which Dr. Wilson seems to be aware that bleeding has little power to relieve. Nay he observes that "profuse evacuations, besides sometimes inducing other diseases of debility, frequently change the acute into an obstinate chronic rheumatism, which may continue to torment the patient for many years." Yet he adds, "It must not however be supposed from what is here said, that these means are rarely to be employed in acute rheumatism; the general excitement for the first days of the complaint is often such as warrants even repeated blood-letting." p. 290. And again, "It is not to be overlooked that, from the presence of the local affection, a less degree of excitement warrants blood-letting than in synocha." p. 291. This again is immediately followed by an observation, that Sydenham acknowledged that his later experience taught him a more sparing use of the lancet, than he had formerly employed; and that Dr. Cullen himself confessed that this treatment is attended with many inconveniences. And after all, these remedies cannot be said to have cured the disease, since, according to Dr. Wilson, "the disease is usually protracted for a considerable length of time." "The acute rheumatism," he observes, "may be said almost always to terminate in the chronic, as the pains generally remain for a considerable time after the fever." p. 282. We know that this is true, where this Sangrado treatment has been pursued; and in that liberal and enlightened school from which Dr. Wilson, as well as ourselves, derived the elements of his knowledge, and in which this practice is still pertinaciously continued, we re-

member to have seen many miserable victims, whose pains and emaciation bore sufficient testimony of the truth of this remark. Yet still the same changes are rung upon inflammation, buff, and bleeding, and the danger of opium; and patients continue to groan and linger in misery, worn down by a long-protracted disease. These circumstances are, in our opinion, sufficient to have warranted some deviation from the practice recommended by those, who consider rheumatism as a pure phlegmasia: and the experiment has been made by many intelligent practitioners with great success. We believe too that those who have discarded blood-letting, and those more particularly who have freely employed opium, in conjunction with diluents and gentle laxatives, will not complain, or rather will deny the assertion, that rheumatism is generally a tedious and long-protracted disease, or that it commonly terminates in the chronic form, the pains remaining long after the abatement of the fever. We are disposed to think that even neglect in the commencement of the disease is less detrimental to the patient, than considerable evacuations of blood. In these observations we speak from experience, which has been confirmed by that of other practitioners. It is not enough to say, that the excitement demands evacuation, that opium is prejudicial in phlegmasiæ, or that the evidence of Sydenham, &c. is against its use. The general excitement in rheumatism is never fatal; the local symptoms do not, as in phlegmasiæ, tend to produce death; and they remain independent of that general excitement, which Dr. Wilson informs us we are to combat; and lastly the evidence of other practitioners of distinguished talents is in favour of opium in this disease; it may be sufficient to mention the name of Heberden. Dr. Wilson's observation is undoubtedly not to be overlooked, that its operation must be at the same time directed to the skin; and for this purpose copious tepid drink is sufficient. Its tendency to produce constipation should also be obviated by frequent gentle laxatives.

We have enlarged upon this topic, from a conviction, of what indeed Dr. Wilson's account, like others of the same description, bears internal evidence, not only the insufficiency, but the disadvantages of this evacuating system in rheumatism; and because we have frequently had the satisfaction to witness the efficacy

of the treatment which we have described. This must be our apology for the freedom of our remarks.

On the subject of gout, Dr. Wilson has given us a long and very excellent dissertation. The great argument against the exhibition of opium in this disease, we believe, with the author, is "its favouring by the debility it induces in the organs of digestion, the appearance of atonic gout." A tendency, he adds, which Dr. Cullen seems to have overlooked, when he pronounces its exhibition safest in the aged and those who have been long subject to the gout. With respect to local remedies, we shall recommend a passage to the attention of Dr. Kinglake, and the advocates for cold water. "Upon the whole, it may be observed, it will require a very long experience to establish the safety of any remedy of this kind, for even the most pernicious have been repeatedly employed before their bad effects appeared." p. 572.

The author has added little on the subject of hæmorrhages to what is to be found in Cullen. His section relative to phthisis pulmonalis merits the general commendation which is justly due to the greater part of this volume. We were, however, rather surprised to find Dr. Wilson, in the present state of our knowledge, adducing arguments to prove that hectic fever is never distinctly formed without the presence of pus in some part of the body. We greatly approve of his cautions against the indiscriminate use of blood-letting in this disease. "It has been the practice of many to let blood in this complaint on very slight occasions. Some have not scrupled to recommend it two, or three, or more times in a week, and to persevere in its use while there are any remains of the buffy coat in the blood; another instance in which an attention to this appearance,

without considering the other circumstances of the case, has led to erroneous practice. The danger of recommending the most debilitating of all remedies, where debility is the most urgent symptom, is too apparent to require any comment." p. 529. We have too much reason indeed to fear, that many cases of remediable pulmonic complaints have been converted into phthisis, by the practice just alluded to.

The appendix contains an account of some experiments made with a view to determine the manner in which opium and tobacco act on the living body, and some observations on the doctrine of the sympathy of the nerves. The former are conducted with considerable cruelty, and afford us little knowledge. In reasoning on the latter subject, the author concludes, "that the immediate cause of sensations exists in the sensorium commune; and that they are referred to the parts, on which the impressions causing them are made, by experience alone." He consequently infers, that the phenomena which are attributed to a sympathy of the nerves, proceed from certain changes in the sensorium commune, and the sensations are thence referred each to its corresponding part of the body. If there be any difference between this notion, and the opinion commonly adopted by physiologists, we apprehend it is chiefly verbal. These essays, we are informed, were published several years ago.

We have seldom had occasion to peruse a volume so replete with typographical errors; many of them betraying not only great carelessness, but great ignorance on the part of the person employed to superintend, we cannot say to correct, the press. The author's long list of errata might be easily quadrupled.

ART. XI. *Outlines of a Plan, calculated to put a Stop to the Progress of the Malignant Contagion, which rages on the Shores of the Mediterranean, if, notwithstanding every Precaution to the contrary, it should unfortunately make its way into this Country.* By RICHARD PEARSON, M. D. pp. 27.

DR. Pearson recommends, in the first place, that the performance of quarantine be strictly enforced; and if we were assured that the regulations in this respect would in no instance be infringed, they would afford, he believes, a sufficient security. But as this is hardly to be expected, he farther recommends

that committees of health be established in all the principal sea-ports of the kingdom, which, by their vigilance, might be able to extinguish the first spark of contagion, ere it burst forth into a destructive flame. He proposes also that there should be a central committee, or general board of health, in the metro-

polis, maintaining a constant communication with the provincial committees. These committees should hire receiving-houses for the sick and suspected, in which the same measures of ventilation, fumigation, &c. should be adopted, as in the fever-wards at Manchester, &c. "With regard to the arrangements here proposed, it is readily acknowledged, (the author observes) that in principle they have been long known and approved; and that if there be any thing novel in them, it is only in their application and extent." p. 10. Government, we believe, has been for some time past concerting measures for the establishment of committees of health on a plan similar to the one here recommended.

It may be remarked, that perhaps an unnecessary stress is laid upon the degree of separation requisite for the receiving-houses, which might prevent the adoption of this plan where an insulated building could not conveniently be procured. From the experiment of fever wards, we have learnt that contagion is not communicated through the air, beyond the distance of a few feet from the body of the sick; and that it has not only never spread to adjoining houses in the same street, as at Manchester, and in Gray's Inn Lane, London, but has been easily confined to individual wards in the same hospital, and to individual rooms in the same house, as in several schools and workhouses.

ART. XII. *Observations on the Disease called the Plague, the Dysentery, the Ophthalmia of Egypt, and on the Means of Prevention. With some Remarks on the Yellow Fever of Cadix, and the Description and Plan of an Hospital for the Reception of Patients affected with Epidemic and Contagious Diseases.* By P. ASSALINI, M. D. one of the Chief Surgeons of the Consular Guards, &c. &c. Translated from the French, by ADAM NEALE, of the University of Edinburgh, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons of that City, and late Surgeon of the Shropshire Regiment of Militia. 12mo. pp. 218.

HOWEVER we may deprecate the principles which induced the French to undertake their expedition against Egypt, we must do justice to the ability which has been displayed by them in investigating the nature of the formidable diseases which infest that country. M. Assalini has been one of the foremost in this arduous career, and we have in the present publication the result of the observations which he made during his residence in Egypt and Syria.

The work commences with some remarks upon the disease which has received the denomination of plague, "the chief symptoms of which are fever, buboes, partial gangrenes, or carbuncles, prostration of strength, head-ach and delirium, and which generally carries off the patient on the 3d or 5th day." This disease appears every year, about the month of September, along the coast of the Mediterranean and Archipelago, from Alexandria to Constantinople; it rages with more or less violence during the winter and spring months, and uniformly ceases in June. Both by the natives and the different Europeans, whose commercial concerns have induced them to settle in that country, it has always been considered as highly contagious, and almost the only methods employed to counteract its progress, are such as depend upon

avoiding all intercourse with the infected, and in using the most assiduous precautions against touching those substances which can be suspected of harbouring the seeds of the contagion. This circumstance, which has hitherto been considered as one of the most distinguishing characteristics of the disease, has been called in question by the French physicians, for reasons, which if not convincing, are at least plausible. M. Assalini discusses this point at some length in the commencement of his work.

"I have seen a great number of persons (says our author) who have been attacked by the epidemic, after having had communication with others, who were already sick; and I would have adopted the conclusion, that it was to the contagion they ought to attribute their disease, if I had not also seen a much greater number who continued to enjoy good health, in spite of the most decided communication. I have even seen several individuals contract the disease, and die, although they had been living shut up, according to the manner of the *Franks*. I should have thought it right to conclude, that the disease of which we are now speaking was contagious, had I seen the Egyptians and Syrians fall under its influence as well as our soldiers, with whom they had constant intercourse. As soon as any one of our men was attacked, two *Turks* led or carried him to the hospital. There is no doubt that

several of them shared the cloaths of infected persons, without contracting the disease. If it had been contagious, as is pretended, it would not have been possible to have arrested its progress in Lower Egypt, nor to have hindered its spreading to Cairo."

The following fact is a striking illustration of our author's opinion.

"After the death of several medical officers at Jaffa, General Grézieu, commanding this province, recommended to the commissary of war, a native, who had the reputation of being an excellent physician for the plague: it was agreed that he should prescribe under the inspection of a French surgeon. This man opened the buboes indiscriminately, his knowledge in medicine not being extensive. For several years he had attended such inhabitants of Jaffa as were attacked by the plague, and he used no precaution whatever to preserve himself from this complaint, nor to avoid contact. I have seen him get up with his bare feet on the bed of General Grézieu, covered with sweat, and take him by the arms to change his posture, although he was then attacked with a carbuncle, of which he died an hour afterwards. When he had opened the buboes with his bistoury, he took a bit of lint, or a little charpee, to wipe it, after which he placed it between his forehead and his turban: he went in this way from one patient to another, not only in the hospital, but even throughout the city, and did not put it back into his case, until his visits were over."

The courage, or temerity, of Desgenettes, who inoculated himself with matter taken from a pestilential buboe, without producing any injurious effect, has already been made known through the medium of his own interesting publication. The author, however, makes a concession which may be thought almost inconsistent with his former opinion, when he admits that

"One may contract, in my opinion, this disease, when the causes which produce it shall by degrees have impaired the health, and predisposed the body to take on diseased action: I will then admit, that if a person be exposed to breathe the infected air in the chamber of a patient, or should he stay too long in the same atmosphere, he will run a great risk of contracting the prevailing malady. I have been careful never to stay longer by the sick than the time requisite to perform the necessary operations; after which I always went out to respire a better air. In this way I have been preserved from a disease which, in forty days, carried off one third of the garrison of Jaffa, including the commandant of the province, the governor of the place, and nine medical officers."

With respect to the question of the contagious nature of the plague, a question in every respect of the highest importance, we may remark, that the facts and arguments brought forward by Assalini, however curious and interesting, are not decisive, and scarcely novel. They indeed prove that an individual, apparently liable to receive the disease, is not always infected, even when placed in circumstances seemingly the most favorable for its reception, while, on the other hand, persons are frequently seized with the complaint in its most fatal form, where no obvious source of contagion could be discovered. This general statement of the case is, we apprehend, not materially different from the acknowledged fact respecting the common typhus of this country, of the contagious nature of which, no doubt has been entertained. The controversy will therefore be resolved into a question of fact, which can only be decided by a sufficient number of observations, made under the most favorable circumstances. The belief of the contagious nature of the plague is built upon the concurrent testimony of all mankind, and we ought at least to hesitate, before we permit our judgment, on a point of great practical importance, to be influenced by the report of individuals, however able and candid.

But if we admit, as Assalini himself appears to do, that the breath of a person infected is capable of communicating the disease, we are conceding a very important point in favor of its contagious nature. It is by the effluvium from a diseased body, communicating to the air the power of producing a similar disease, when received into the lungs, that contagious febrile diseases are, in most cases, supposed to be propagated. The grand difference between the two opinions will be, that in one case it is imagined that the infectious effluvium, emitted from the body of the sick, can attach itself to various substances, which will themselves have the power of infecting other living bodies; whereas M. Assalini conceives that the disease can only be communicated immediately, from one human being to another. The opinion of Assalini also differs very materially from that generally adopted, with respect to the origin of the disease; it is commonly supposed to be produced only from previous contagion, either existing in a living body

or attached to some inanimate substance, whereas he imagines, that it may be generated in the body by various exciting causes, and when once produced may be communicated by the breath of the infected person.

The author next gives an account of the symptoms accompanying this disease.

"An universal debility, accompanied by a great weight in the head, is a constant precursory symptom. The countenance has a particularly stupid look, difficult to be described. If the patient be of a sanguine temperament, and of a fine skin, his appearance becomes bloated, and his colour of a reddish purple; the minute vessels of the tunica conjunctiva become turgid with blood, as at the commencement of a slight ophthalmia: the patient in this state does not leave his usual occupations, but endeavours to keep on his trembling legs, although obliged often to have recourse to some object for support: he yawns frequently, rubs his face, and at last retires to lay himself in some solitary place, where he covers his head, and gives himself up to sleep. If in this state he be left without assistance, his pulse becomes more quick and frequent, the heat of his skin more intense, and the universal debility greater. If interrogated, he stammers out a reply; his ideas become confused, and on the third or fifth day he dies delirious. Amongst the symptoms which were observed to precede this disease, there was a general affection of the nervous system, loss of appetite, slight inclinations to vomit; the tongue rarely showed any marks of derangement in the stomach; the stools became altered and liquid; the urine resembled distilled water; the glands of the groins and arm-pits, rarely those of the neck, became painful and swelled, and gave rise to buboes. In general, the whole lymphatic system appeared affected. Often small black spots showed themselves on the skin, which became perfect gangrenes. The dead bodies did not in general present any external change worthy of remark; sometimes there were found ecchymoses, or livid spots, on the parts of generation, and on those parts on which the body rested. Nothing very extraordinary showed itself in the internal parts; the lymphatic glands alone were particularly affected."

We are informed that seventy-three of those attacked, died in the early stage of the disease, the majority with buboes. The symptoms were considerably modified by temperament, age, sex, the state of the atmosphere, and the mental affections. Persons of the sanguine temperament, and of an irritable constitution, were the greatest sufferers. A state of great indifference and insensibi-

lity, seems to have been one of the most general symptoms at the commencement of the disease, and often afforded suspicions of infection to the friends of the patient, when he was himself unaware of his danger.

M. Assalini next institutes an inquiry into the causes which produced the disease. It showed itself in the cities of Egypt in the autumn of 1799, and in the March following it first made its appearance in the army under the walls of Jaffa. The author observes that if we suppose it to have originated from contagion, the infection must either have been carried by the army from Damietta to Jaffa, or that the Turks, who were taken prisoners in this fortress, must have communicated it to the army. With respect to the Turkish prisoners, there is no evidence for supposing that they were infected with the disease, and there are several strong reasons for rejecting the supposition that the plague was carried by the soldiers from Damietta. Under these circumstances the author concludes that the disease ought not to be attributed to contagion, but that it was produced by the fatigues which were experienced by the soldiers in crossing the deserts between Egypt and Syria. The army underwent extreme hardships during the space of twenty-one days, in which they were passing these sandy wastes, without water, and almost without food. They arrived in Syria in the end of February. They found the country drenched with moisture; they were exposed to frequent and heavy rains, and were often obliged to ford deep rivulets. When they arrived at Jaffa, a part of the army was encamped on the edge of a marshy lake, and in this part the disease first made its appearance. To this combination of circumstances Assalini attributes the origin of the disorder, which afterwards raged amongst them with so much violence.

We are willing to admit all the facts stated by the author, and to allow that the circumstances attendant upon their march from Egypt to Jaffa, were such as to debilitate the body, and to render it peculiarly liable to the impressions of disease. The situation of Jaffa appears also to have been unhealthy, and it is farther admitted, that there was no assignable source of infection, to which the origin of the disease could be referred. But before we implicitly adopt the conclusion of our author, it is necessary to

bear in mind, how many instances occur in this country, of diseases decidedly contagious, where we are unable to point out the source of infection, while on the other hand, how many persons are exposed to severe bodily fatigue, to alternations of heat and cold, and to deficiency of nutriment, without any disease like the plague being produced.

The indications of cure pointed out are—

“ 1. To diminish the superabundant quantity of fluids, when such a state existed.

“ 2. To empty the *primæ viæ*, when they were loaded.

“ 3. To excite perspiration and sweating.”

In robust constitutions and inflammatory habits, bleeding was employed with advantage; and where the stomach and bowels were oppressed, vomits and purgatives were employed; but it does not appear that these evacuations were carried to any great extent. After their operation small doses of laudanum were administered. A decoction of equal parts of Peruvian bark and coffee were employed with great success. The effect of oily frictions naturally comes under consideration, and M. Assalini seems confident that decided benefit is derived from their use.

“ As soon as a patient, attacked with the plague, is received into the hospital at Smyrna, he is taken into a close chamber, where they light a large pan of coals, in which they throw sugar and juniper berries, or other perfumes; they then strip off all his cloaths, and rub his whole body with warm oil, until profuse sweats break out. The patient is then put into bed, and whenever the sweating ceases, they repeat the frictions in the same manner, and so on successively during several days, until the disease has spent its violence in consequence of the sweating. One pint of oil is sufficient for each friction, taking care not to commence the second before the sweating occasioned by the first has ceased. Those who rub the patient take no other precaution than that of avoiding his breath; and in this way none of them have ever caught the disease.

“ In the space of five years, two hundred and fifty persons, infected with plague, have been received into the hospital at Smyrna, and I am assured that all those who were thus treated, have recovered, and that the number of persons preserved from the plague by frictions of oil is immense.”

It is not easy to explain the *modus operandi* of this remedy; we apprehend our readers will not feel disposed to acquiesce in the hypothesis of the author.

“ In my opinion, the tepid oil softens and relaxes the skin, opens and sets free all the pores or extremities of the exhaling vessels, whilst it produces quite a contrary effect on the terminations of the lymphatic absorbents, which it closes up and obstructs.”

Upon the whole, it appears that the grand object is to produce a copious perspiration, for which purpose the most efficacious medicines were the different preparations of opium and antimony.

The management of the buboes forms an important part of the treatment of the plague. It was generally admitted when matter was formed in them that it should be discharged, but it does not appear that any advantage was derived from endeavouring to hasten the suppuration, or from opening them before they had arrived at that state. After trying various methods, Assalini at last recommended—

“ The repeated use of frictions of tepid olive-oil upon the diseased glands, to soften the skin, and facilitate suppuration; and whenever there were certain symptoms of a collection of matter in the bubo, I opened it with a bistoury, and healed the sore.”

The means to be used for preventing a disease of such fatality, are at least as important as the method of curing it when it has taken place. Even supposing it to depend upon contagion, it is well known that there are various circumstances which render the body peculiarly liable to be acted upon by infection, which it is highly important to avoid. The hypothesis of Assalini, however, considers these circumstances not only as the predisposing but as the exciting causes of the disease, and of course still more to be dreaded. The principal of these are a moist atmosphere, exhalations from marshes, bad and insufficient food, excessive fatigue, and the depressing passions of the mind. It seems particularly essential to prevent the access of the night air, which in these climates is frequently cold and piercing, after the most excessive heats in the middle of the day. It appears from the accounts of our author that very considerable advantage was received in the times of the severe sickness by removing the soldiers from one station to another; a fact which one should naturally ascribe to the removal from infected air, but he appears inclined to attribute to the beneficial effects of exercise, and to the occupation which it afforded to the minds of the sick.

We find detailed, at some length, the precautions which the Franks residing in Egypt employ, to prevent themselves from receiving the contagion of the plague, during the periods of its progress. They are rigorous in the extreme, so far as respects secluding themselves from all personal communication with the natives, and avoiding the contact of substances which have been handled by them until they have undergone what they conceive to be a sufficient purification. Regulations equally strict are adopted in the lazarettos, which are founded at the different sea-ports of the Mediterranean; but there is every reason to suppose that the inconveniences which must result from the exact observance of these rules, frequently induces a violation of them. Whatever may be our opinion respecting the contagious nature of the plague, the remarks with which M. Assalini concludes this part of his subject must be admitted to be judicious and humane.

"On an unprejudiced examination of the works of writers on the plague, we find nothing but frightful recitals of what happened in the epidemics which they have described. They all insist on the necessity of quarantines, and forbid the inhabitants, under pain of death, to quit their houses, whenever there has happened any death by the plague; believing that this means will suffice in stopping its progress. It is not difficult to conceive that the shutting up together of several people in good health, and some sick, and obliging them to breathe the same air, which every day becomes more and more infected, must augment the disease of those who are already sick, and expose the others to contract it. Experience has proved that these seclusions, or shuttings up (*renfermens*), have never succeeded in arresting the progress of the plague. This disease always commences by attacking the poor in the most unwholesome quarters of the city; after which the health of the inhabitants in good circumstances becomes impaired, and at length death levels indiscriminately the poor and the rich. Then, all becomes confusion in the city: the magistrates are no longer able to maintain their authority, the shuttings up cease by little and little, the season changes, the atmosphere becomes purified, those who have escaped recover strength and courage, and all at once the epidemic ceases. This is what has been observed in all plagues, but particularly in that of Marseilles, in 1721. The history of these epidemics strikes one with horror; and, after comparing them with the most malignant plagues of the Levant, where the shuttings up are only in use amongst a very small number of individuals,

I have no hesitation in declaring, that in Europe the mortality has been the greatest."

Next to the plague, the disease which was most fatal to the European army in Egypt, was the dysentery. According to Assalini it generally commenced with the common symptoms of diarrhoea, afterwards there were colic pains and mucous evacuations, and at length the stools became bilious, putrid and bloody. To account for its origin, he has recourse to the hacknied cause of obstructed perspiration, a cause, which, according to the magic fiat of the physiologist, can produce either plague, dysentery, cutaneous diseases, or ophthalmia. It would appear that our author regards this disease as not essentially different from diarrhoea, but accompanied with more severe symptoms: he is silent respecting its contagious nature. The method of cure employed in the first stage, consisted principally in the exhibition of emetics and opiates; in the second, the benefit derived from opium was less general; crystals of tartar, the decoction of tamarinds, and clysters of milk produced the best effects. The treatment of the last stage is passed over hastily; gentle laxatives and opium were the principal remedies. Upon the whole, laxatives were employed less freely, and opium more so, than in the practice of the English physicians.

The ophthalmia, though a much less formidable disease than either of those which we have been describing, may however be justly ranked among the scourges of Egypt. The number of persons in the country deprived of the sight of one or both eyes is almost incredible. In the month of November 1799, "more than two-thirds of the army were attacked almost at the same time."

"The ophthalmia of Egypt first showed itself by a slight head-ach; sometimes it was preceded by a few shooting pains in the ball of the eye, followed by a flow of tears, which, for the moment, assuaged the pain: often the patient fancied that he had a particle of sand in his eye, which distressed him. We generally remarked, that those in the best health were attacked all at once with ophthalmia, accompanied with an unusual and considerable weight in the eyes, followed by an excessive flow of scalding tears, to make use of the expression of the sick. On examining the eyes in this state, the vessels of the conjunctiva appeared red and distended, often the conjunctiva was elevated to such

degree, that the transparent cornea appeared quite buried in it, and of very small diameter. Then the palpebræ became cedematose, the patient could no longer endure the light, the flow of tears increased, and generally became changed into a thick and sometimes yellow matter.*

"I think we may call the ophthalmia, arrived at this stage, although very severe, the simple ophthalmia; and the ophthalmia complicated, when the gorging of the conjunctiva, the swelling of the palpebræ, and the pain of the eyes became so considerable, that fever showed itself, and some injury or organic lesion was perceived in the ball of the eye, as specks, staphylomas, hypopions, and other diseases peculiar to this organ."

A variety of causes have been assigned for the frequency and violence of this complaint. Many persons having imagined that it is produced by the saline and earthy particles which are conveyed by the winds from the arid deserts that on all sides surround Egypt. M. Assalini supposes that it may be in part attributed to the intense light, proceeding from an almost cloudless sky, together with

"The suppression of perspiration, which takes place very often in Egypt, particularly at night, and which throws itself on the weakest part, choosing sometimes the intestines, and oftener the eyes, fatigued by the too vivid light of the sun."

In the treatment of the complaint, emollient cataplasms and collyria were, for the most part, found injurious; in ordinary cases general bleeding did not appear productive of much utility; in its stead leeches, scarifications, blisters, and setons, were substituted with advantage. A weak solution of verdigrease and of the acetite of lead, appeared to be the most useful topical applications. When the symptoms were the most violent, opium was employed with advantage, and where there was much fever present, relief was obtained from general bleeding. The author gives an account of the treatment used by the Egyptians, which appears not inudicious, and does not very materially differ from that mentioned above, yet the astonishing number of persons of

both sexes, blind in one or both eyes, which one meets with in Egypt, proves that their treatment is not at all efficacious." The means of preventing the disease obviously consist in avoiding the exciting causes, among which, sleeping exposed to the night air, is, in the opinion of Assalini, the most frequent. When he perceived the least tendency to the complaint, he employed the solution of verdigrease, and by this means he was frequently able to remove it.

The work of Assalini concludes with "the description and plan of an hospital for soldiers, attacked in Egypt with the disease called the plague." It appears well adapted for the object in view, and may afford some useful hints to those persons who are engaged in erecting buildings for the reception of fever in this country.

Upon the whole we have derived very considerable gratification from the perusal of M. Assalini's work. His observations are accurate and judicious, and his practice is more simple and energetic than we usually observe among the French physicians. His pathology is indeed vague and unsatisfactory, but it does not appear to have materially influenced his plan of treatment. The idea respecting the non-contagious nature of the plague, we cannot allow to be established by the facts adduced; but we acknowledge that he supports his opinion with ability and candor. We could not avoid feeling some degree of regret to observe that no reference is made in this work to the writings or practice of Dr. Currie. Though we would by no means assert the identity of the typhus of this country, and the disease which infests the coasts of the Mediterranean, yet certainly so safe and simple a practice was deserving of an ample trial, in such a formidable complaint. We think we may venture to assert, that if a remedy had been recommended in France, upon as respectable authority as the affusion of cold water has been in England, it would long ago have excited the attention of the English physicians.

* This matter was nothing more than the fluid of the glands, or follicles of meibomius, which the inflammation had rendered thick. We see this change happen to the skin in light, burns, and after the action of cantharides; for the first day there is nothing poured out from the affected parts but lymph, the day after, thicker matter, which finally becomes hung into true pus. The inflammation of the conjunctiva, in the ophthalmia of Egypt, and that of the membrane of the urethra, afford discharges, of which the appearance is exactly similar.

ART. XIII. *Medical Sketches of the Expedition to Egypt from India.* By JAS. MCGREGOR, A. M. Member of the Royal College of Surgeons of London: Surgeon to the Royal Regiment of Horse Guards: and lately Superintending Surgeon to the Indian Army in Egypt. 8vo. pp. 240.

THE principal events of this memorable campaign have been abundantly detailed in our journals, histories, and travels, but the no less interesting records of the medical practice of our countrymen in Egypt have hitherto been almost entirely neglected. It is a matter both of surprise and regret, that no one of the medical staff of the British army should have gratified the laudable curiosity of his brethren at their fire-sides, with an account of the diseases and the most approved modes of practice, which were adopted in this celebrated expedition. Our regret however is considerably diminished, by the accurate and candid narrative now before us. To supply the deficiency so much lamented, Mr. McGregor has been induced to publish these *Medical Sketches*, which were drawn up in consequence of orders from the Court of Directors to the Government in India. This task could not have fallen into better hands:—the author from his situation as superintendent-surgeon to the Indian army, had the best opportunities for collecting information, and his previous knowledge, the result of very extensive experience in all quarters of the world, rendered him well qualified to give weight and authority to his observations. Mr. McGregor has fulfilled his duty well: his book is a plain and perspicuous narrative of the diseases of that part of our army which landed in Egypt from India in 1801—and his observations on the medical topography of different countries, evince him to possess a mind of no ordinary cast. He has divided these sketches into three parts. The first gives the medical history, or rather the journal, of the expedition:—the second some account of the causes of the prevalent diseases and the modes of prevention:—and in the third some account is given of the diseases themselves.—It is curious to reflect, that the route which our army took from India to Egypt is the same as that, by which, in the earliest ages, the commerce of Asia, its spices, its gums, its perfumes, and all the luxuries of the east, were conveyed to Tyre, Sidon, Carthage, Rome, and to all the coast of the Mediterranean.—The Indian army

consisted of eight thousand men; of which number about one-half were natives of India, and the other half Europeans. During a remarkably long voyage, in a march over extensive deserts, in a country and climate described as the most inimical to the human race, this body of men enjoyed a considerable degree of health, and suffered only a small mortality. This was owing to the wise regulations adopted, and to the active co-operation of the military with the medical officers. Great praise is due to the distinguished commander in chief General Baird, and to all the medical men, for their attention, zeal, and perseverance, in carrying into effect the means of prevention so ably devised, particularly those gentlemen who were employed in the plague establishments. Here seems to have been no relaxation in the preventive measures; for it is stated, that an army never embarked for any service more healthy than the Indian army, when it re-embarked on its return from Egypt. The chief dangers it had to encounter were the diseases of the country, and the inclemency of the climate, as it arrived too late to share the fatigue and the glory of the victory.

The first division of the army sailed from Bombay in January 1801, and arrived at Kosseir on the 16th of May following. Soon after the arrival of the troops at Kosseir, all were attacked with a diarrhoea, occasioned by the water, which contained much sulphat of magnesia. The water soon ceased to affect the bowels, and the army was, for some time, uncommonly healthy.—In the month of June the army began to march across the desert, nearly in the same course as that travelled by Mr. Bruce. The marches were always performed by night—for a considerable way, the road resembled the bed of a river. The degree of heat was not attended to in every place, but on the 29th of June at Giza the mercury in the thermometer stood at 114° at 3 o'clock P. M. in Mr. McGregor's tent,—in the soldiers' tents it could not have been less than 116°. There was but little sickness during this month, though almost every exciting cause existed—intense heat—hot wind—

nd currents of dust.—During the next month, the thermometer had a wider range, from 71° to 108° .—The numbers on the sick list increased, and in August upwards of twelve hundred were ill with fever, ophthalmia, dysentery, and hepatitis, which was attributed to the situation near Cairo. Early in September the greater part of the army was encamped in the neighbourhood of Roetta, when, besides the increase of the ordinary forms of sickness, a disease appeared which occasioned the greatest alarm throughout the army. On the 4th of this month a case of the plague was discovered—immediately a room was allotted in the hospital for all suspicious febrile cases, and all the servants who had any intercourse with this patient were removed to another part of the town. The hospital however appeared to be infected; several men were attacked with symptoms of the plague, and the greatest precautions were adopted to check the progress of the infection, which was discovered to have appeared about the beginning of that month among the people of the town. The next most formidable and prevalent disease was *ophthalmia*. In the beginning of November, the whole sick of the army amounted to one thousand three hundred and fifty, or more than one-fourth part of the whole strength of it. Intermittent fevers were very frequent, occasioned evidently by the effluvia from the low ground between the camp and the river. The plague, which had been effectually suppressed by the fumigation and other regulations, now appeared again. To these instances we shall soon have occasion to refer, when we give our author's testimony respecting this very formidable disease. It may now suffice to remark, that the journal kept during many months, contains many useful and important facts and deductions, and we can only regret, that such faithful records of the medical department of our armies in different quarters of the globe, have not been more frequently preserved.

In the second part of this work, Mr. M'Gregor enumerates the general and exciting causes of the diseases which prevailed in the Indian army. He is decidedly of opinion, that we are to look for the principal causes of the most prevalent diseases in the peculiar soil and climate of Egypt. Besides the diseases which may be considered as *endemic*, se-

veral appeared to be propagated by contagion. When speaking of the influence of the air and other general causes, Mr. M'Gregor remarks:

“In respect to the soil and climate of Egypt, as giving rise to disease, they are of considerable variety. In a country of such extent, stretching from the tropic, on the one side, to the shores of the Mediterranean on the other, this might be expected. If, in Lower Egypt, and on the bleak shores of the Mediterranean, we saw the diseases of Europe, and met with the inflammatory diathesis; in Upper Egypt, as we approached the tropic, we met with the same diseases, and succeeded with the same treatment, as in the peninsula of India.

“The cultivated part of Egypt, particularly the Delta, is a very rich country; in fertility and luxuriance of soil yielding to none under the face of heaven. The art of husbandry is there but imperfectly known; and at their harvests there is a very great destruction of vegetable matter, from which hydrogen gas, or hydro-carbonate, is extricated in great quantities. Under similar circumstances, in America as well as in India, I have seen a bad fever of the intermittent or remittent type appear. But in Egypt, after the subsiding of the Nile, which in many places had covered a great extent of country, there is a great exhalation from the mud, and from the putrid animal and vegetable matters left behind. The effluvia of these substances, acting on the human body, will readily account for much disease. If we add to these the extreme filth of the inhabitants of Egypt, their poor diet, their narrow, close, and ill-ventilated apartments, generally much crowded, with the extreme narrowness of their streets, and the bad police of their towns, we will not be astonished if a fever, at first intermittent or remittent, should have symptoms denominated malignant, super-added to the more ordinary symptoms of the disease. If an imported contagion should make its appearance at the same time, and under the above circumstances, we expect a most terrible disease.

“The dry parching wind, which comes over the desert, and which at certain seasons blows in Egypt and in Arabia, is well known, and was often severely felt by the army on their march, both across the desert and the isthmus of Suez. The whirlwinds of sand roll with great impetuosity, are very troublesome, and insinuate fine sand and dust every where. It is hardly possible to keep the minute particles out of the eyes.

“The dews, which fall in Egypt, I always heard were very heavy, and were a cause of the diseases of the country. I had occasion too, more than once, to hear the natives attribute much to them as the cause of their diseases: with what justice I will not pretend to decide. From some experiments which I made in India, on the Red Sea, and

lastly in Egypt, I am inclined to think that they are equally heavy in the two former as in the latter quarter. After weighing the matter carefully, I took a quantity of lint, twelve inches square, exposed it for a night to the dew, and, by weighing it in the morning again, ascertained the quantity which it had gained. I am aware that this is by no means a nice experiment, and that in the performance of it several particulars demand attention; but it is sufficient to our purpose, and I learned by it, that, in the island of Bombay, on the Red Sea, and in Lower Egypt, the quantity of dew which falls is nearly equal.

"It ought to be mentioned, that, during the year we were in Egypt, the season was not the usual one. There was a greater overflow of the Nile. It rose higher on the Nilometer than it had done for several former years, and it was remarked to be much later in subsiding at Rosetta.

"The fall of rain at Alexandria was greater than on former years; and, at Rosetta, the rains were in setting in later than usual. The season of the plague set in much earlier than usual."

The army upon the whole, enjoyed very good health, which may in some measure be attributed to the men being already inured to a climate somewhat similar. The effect of moisture and of intemperance in producing disease, is strikingly illustrated by many remarkable facts here related, and the difference between the mortality of European and Indian corps is justly referred to their different modes of living. The moderation of the Hindoo forms a striking contrast to the sensual indulgence of the British soldier.—Some excellent observations made by Mr. McGregor in India were amply confirmed by his experience in Egypt. Excessive heat, unless combined with intemperance or some other cause, is very rarely productive of disease. The hot months are by far the most healthy, according to the reports, both in India and in Egypt. At Kosseir, and in crossing the desert, both officers and men were necessarily much exposed to the sun, when the degree of heat was very great, yet at that period the army enjoyed an uncommon degree of health. Their minds were occupied with the expectation of meeting the enemy, whilst their bodies were encountering this excessive heat and fatigue.

The following curious fact points out

the influence of physical causes in establishing, and in doing away, some national prejudices and religious customs.

"The simple diet of the Hindoo is well suited to a warm climate. It is seldom more than rice with aromatics, or clarified butter with a kind of pea, to which the luxury of a little salt-fish, of preserved tamarinds, or some fresh fruit, is occasionally added. As far as it could be done, the Europeans were made to conform to this diet; and we are convinced that it was with much advantage to them. The light wines of the Greek islands were issued to the Europeans in the warm season; but in the cold they got spirits.

"In the cold season it was found necessary to make some change in the diet of the Sepoys. In the month of January they suffered so much from the severity of the weather, and a climate very unlike their own, that a portion of animal food, as well as of wine, was ordered to be issued to them.

"The prejudices of country, religion, and of the different casts of Gentoos, were overcome in the Bombay regiments. At length, the most austere yielded; and, finally, even the severe Brahmin, as well as the rigid Mussulman, gave way to the necessity inspired by their situation in a foreign country."

It remains now to take notice of the *plague* and *ophthalmia*, and our attention is particularly claimed by the valuable accounts of these diseases which are included in the last part of these sketches. Our author acknowledges his obligations to the learned work of Dr. Russell, and confesses that little information has been added since his time, either to the history or the method of treatment of the plague. The account however given by Mr. McGregor will tend to diminish the dread which has hitherto been entertained of this disease. For he shows how the progress of the contagion may be arrested and eradicated with certainty; and he points out how the dreadful ravages, which are recorded among the natives of those countries where it so often appears, are to be attributed to other causes, besides the destructive violence of the contagion.—There seem to be many points of resemblance between the plague and the yellow fever, and these are stated in a tabular form by the author. Among the analogous circumstances attending the plague and other fevers, there is one

* These circumstances I learned from a member of the French Institute, and from the *Pharmacien en Chef* to the French army, who often related to me the order which Bonaparte gave him to poison the wounded with opium.

which claims attention, because it enables us to reconcile the opposite and contradictory accounts of different writers—it is this: in different countries, and at different seasons in the same countries, the plague assumes very different appearances. Fever was the most constant symptom of the plague, though this was not always observable. The type of the fever, when it did appear, was very various at different seasons and in different places, sometimes intermittent, sometimes remittent, sometimes it assumed the continued type, in the form of typhus, and even of synocha. Some facts related seem to shew the length of time, before the pestilential contagion comes into action; other facts lead us to infer, that in different people and under different circumstances, there is the greatest variety in this period. Mercury is the grand remedy that was employed, and its effects were manifestly very salutary. Several cases are detailed, in which mercury was exhibited freely, and as soon as the gums became affected, the febrile symptoms vanished. In general, it was found that the patient recovered in proportion to the facility with which his system could be affected by mercury, but it was also remarked that the gums were with difficulty affected by this remedy in the plague. Nitric acid taken internally, and the use of the nitric bath, were advantageously administered. Of the thirteen medical gentlemen, who so honourably undertook the difficult and dangerous duty in the pest-houses, seven caught the infection, and four died. Those who died took little or no medicine, and those who recovered took large quantities of mercurial preparations. One gentleman fell a victim to his own obstinacy. This was Dr. Whyte, who was so convinced of the harmless power of infection, that he inoculated himself with matter from a bubo on the 2d of January. On the 3d he inoculated himself again: he continued well till the evening of the 6th, when he was attacked with rigors and febrile symptoms. He maintained that it was an attack of an intermittent, to which it bore great resemblance; he refused all medical assistance, and died like a true believer, a martyr to the cause of contagion!

Affusion of cold water, according to the rules so ably laid down by Dr. Currie, seems to have been neglected, though obviously indicated by the unusual dryness of the skin. The medical reports

of the use of this powerful remedy in cutting short febrile diseases, were probably not sufficiently known to the practitioners in the pest-houses. It is to be hoped this *febrifugium magnum* will have a fair trial in the plague, if ever an opportunity should again occur.

Ophthalmia is the other endemic in Egypt, and next to the plague in the distress and havoc which it occasions. At particular seasons it prevails very generally. It is not confined to the human race: the lower animals, particularly the dogs and camels, are subject to its attacks. Travellers relate, that this disease is common and severe in Syria and in Persia. In Egypt it proved very violent and very distressing. The French, it was said, sent home one thousand men blind, and a considerable number of the British army returned with the loss of sight. Many of these however, we have understood, have fortunately recovered, the specks on the cornea being after a long time absorbed. It was remarked, that the ophthalmia was less frequent and less violent in the native Indian than in the European corps. From this complaint being confined for some time, not only to particular companies, and particular regiments, but to particular tents, many were led to consider it as contagious; and the facts here adduced, and others, which have come to our knowledge, unquestionably prove, that the extent and progress of the inflammation of the eyes, resembled those disorders which are denominated contagious. Mr. M'Gregor looks upon the particular soil and the peculiar constitution of the air of Egypt, as the principal causes of the general prevalence of ophthalmia. Other causes probably concur, since the white-coloured dazzling soil, and the fine dry dust constantly blown about, did not excite the same disease in other places, although they were encountered in an equal degree. The natives universally believe that the inflammation of the eyes is brought on by sleeping exposed to the air of the night. However obscure the remote cause may appear, our author thinks much may be done in preventing its attacks, by attention to cleanliness, and especially by washing the eyes frequently in the day with cold water during the season of its usual prevalence. On the method of treatment we shall avail ourselves of the author's own words:

“ Some of our medical gentlemen thought
3 F 4

this disease very different from the ophthalmia which they had seen in Europe or in India. In several circumstances there certainly was a difference, and we were obliged to have recourse to a different mode of treatment, finding we did not succeed with that pursued in England or in India. The disease, I think, might generally be resolved into, 1st, either of Cullen's two species, the ophthalmia tarsi and the ophthalmia membranarum; 2ndly, to a combination of these two; or, 3dly, to a species of ophthalmia, frequent in India, symptomatic of disease in the biliary secretion.

"The appearance which the disease put on, particularly the two first species of it, was nearly what we have seen in other parts of the world; except that the symptoms advanced with alarming rapidity to the highest inflammatory stages. In most cases the attack was sudden, and very generally at night. Speedily, the patient complained of a burning heat of the eye-ball, or of a sensation of needles being passed through the eye. There was a considerable swelling of the ball of the eye, of the eye-lids, and sometimes of the neighbouring parts. Almost always, there was a copious flow of tears, which felt hot and scalding, and, as they flowed, excoriated the face down. Very frequently, there was a racking head-ach and general fever. Edema of the eye-lids was frequently met with in the early stage of the disease, and inversion of the cilia in the last stages.

"The disease very often continued two or three months; after it had continued some time, the general health became much impaired. It often terminated in diarrhoea or dysentery, and sometimes the patient became hectic.

"In the third species of the disease, which I have mentioned, there was not so much active inflammation as in the other two species; and it was generally known by a yellow tinge of the adnata, or by dyspeptic symptoms being present; though, sometimes, we have seen those appearances absent: and no topical application had any effect in removing the ophthalmia, till the gums were affected by calomel or some mercurial preparation.

"In the two first species of the disease, the inflammation, in a great many instances, induced fever of many days duration, and the disease too frequently terminated in opacity of the cornea or in suppuration of the eye-ball.

"In the treatment, it appears, from the reports, that different gentlemen followed very different modes. We said, in general, that the European practice did not succeed. Scarification and astringent collyria, in the first stage, gave intolerable pain, and generally aggravated the symptoms.

"The practice of the natives, was, to apply, in the first stage, emollient decoctions of

their plants, and poultices of the kali. In the last stage, they rely much on the frequently bathing of the eye in the cold water of the Nile: they are likewise very fond of bleeding; and I understood that sometimes they use the actual canter, burning behind the ear where we usually apply blisters.

"The practice, which appeared to be by far the most successful, was the following:

"For the first twenty-four or thirty-six hours after admission, the eyes of every patient were carefully syringed with tepid water, which had been filtered carefully. The syringing was performed from three to six times in the day; the light was carefully excluded, the patient kept cool, and every other part of the antiphlogistic regimen strictly enforced. After the above period, a weak solution of sugar of lead, or of camphor, or vitriolated zinc, was applied. Where the pain was much complained of, a solution of opium was added to the collyrium; opium was applied in a cataplasm, or two or three drops of laudanum were let fall into the eye.

"If there was much swelling, a saturnine poultice, or the coagulum albuminosum, was applied to the eyes. I observed, that blistering a large surface, and as near as possible to the seat of the pain, if kept discharging for some time, always afforded great relief.

"To remove the fever and to alleviate the distressing pain, we often gave opium internally in a considerable quantity, and with great advantage.

"Setons in the neck and the free use of bark appeared to be of the greatest service, when the disease was of long standing.

"In opacity of the cornea, and when there were specks, several gentlemen thought highly of the aqua phagedænica of the pharmacopœias, after having divided the vessels which went to the speck. It gave no pungent pain; but I have seen greater relief from it, and also from a solution of lunar caustic.

"As a collyrium in Egypt; I often gave with considerable benefit what I found in the hands of the black doctors in India, viz. a tea spoonful of lime-juice to four like spoonfuls of water, or a tea spoonful of vinegar to two table spoonfuls of water. In the first stage, I would have applied leeches, but never could procure them."

We might enlarge this article by many more extracts, consisting of important observations on fever, hepatitis, dysentery, tetanus, &c. but we shall renounce those who may be anxious for further information to the work itself; and conclude, by recommending these medical sketches to be filled up and completed, by all those who may practice in foreign stations, and in warm climates.

ART. XIV. *An Essay, medical, philosophical, and chemical, on Drunkenness, and its Effects on the human Body.* By THOMAS TROTTER, M. D. 8vo. pp. 203.

IN the year 1788 Dr. Trotter published an inaugural dissertation at Edinburgh on drunkenness. It met with so much approbation, both on account of its scientific merits, and of the moral effects which it was thought likely to produce, that the author determined to prosecute the subject more at length, and accordingly new-modified and enlarged his original work, and has given it to the public in its present form. The importance of such an undertaking is obvious; a very considerable proportion of the diseases which the physician is called upon to remove, are produced, either directly or indirectly, by the excessive use of intoxicating liquors. In a professional point of view, therefore, no subject can more amply deserve the attention of the medical practitioner; nor is it less important when considered as to its influence upon the morals. The common arguments which are employed by divines, and ethical writers, against the habit of intoxication, have been so frequently repeated, that they are heard with perfect indifference as matters of course, or are ridiculed as the mistaken notions of worthy men, who have never themselves experienced the pleasures which they condemn. Mankind are generally averse to receiving instruction on those subjects on which all persons are supposed to have equal opportunity of acquiring information, whereas, on scientific topics, they willingly submit to be taught by those, whose pursuits have necessarily induced them to examine the subjects with more minuteness. The physician enters upon the discussion with peculiar advantage; his profession commonly ensures him a respectful attention, and he has it in his power to adduce arguments to which no one can be insensible, because the most hardened drunkard cannot be insensible to pain and disease, and is, for the most part, little able to bear these evils with patience.

The subject is divided into the following heads:

- "1st, Definition of drunkenness.
- "2d, The phenomena, or symptoms of drunkenness.
- "3d, In what manner vinous spirit affects the living body.
- "4th, The catalogue of diseases induced by drunkenness. And,

"5th, The method of correcting the habit of drunkenness, and of treating the drunken paroxysm."

The definition of drunkenness, like most definitions of what is so well known as to render a definition unnecessary, is certainly imperfect.

"**POST VINUM IMMODOIC ASSUMPTUM, DELIRIUM ET COMA**—which may be thus translated:—"Imbecility of intellect, erroneous judgment, violent emotions, and loss of sense and motion, after the immoderate use of vinous liquors."

The terms of the definition "**vinum**" in the Latin, and "**vinous liquors**" in the translation, require themselves a subsequent definition; for, in their general acceptance, they do not include all those substances by which intoxication may be produced. This, however, may be regarded as only a trifling cavil; we object to the definition, because it does not distinguish the thing defined from others strongly resembling it, though in reality totally different. This deficiency depends upon the introduction of the remote cause as the most characteristic trait of the definition; but it unfortunately happens that, precisely in those cases where we are in doubt whether a particular state of the body be owing to intoxication or not, the remote cause frequently cannot be ascertained. When an unknown person is found in a state of insensibility, it is frequently an object of great practical importance to be able to determine, without loss of time, whether it be produced by proper apoplexy, or whether it be only the temporary effect of drunkenness; but, in such instances, we seldom have it in our power to ascertain the fact of the remote cause, the sole clue which is afforded by the definition of Dr. Trotter. The only circumstance which occurs to us is the smell of the breath; but this is not unequivocal, for it may happen that proper apoplexy shall be produced by a fit of drunkenness, and, on the other hand, after the stomach of a drunkard has rejected its contents, the breath may no longer retain the characteristic odour, though the state of insensibility may still continue.

In the second chapter we have a minute account of the "**phenomena** and

symptoms of drunkenness." As we conclude that most of our readers are more or less intimate with them, either from experience or observation, we do not think it necessary to dwell long upon this part of the work. The different stages of the process, from sprightly mirth to noisy revelry, and finally to sottish stupidity, are described, as far as we are able to judge, with accuracy. The description is amply adorned with metaphor and poetry, but we do not perceive that it conveys much information, either medical or physiological.

The next chapter treats of "the manner in which vinous spirit affects the body," a subject which opens a wide field for curious and interesting investigation. Conceiving the intoxicating effects of all liquors to depend upon the alcohol which they contain, we are naturally led to consider the action of this substance upon the body. The author observes, that it has been referred by physicians to the class of narcotics;

"Medicines which induce stupor and sleep, among which are reckoned opium, bangué, cicuta, belladonna, hyosciamus, nicotiana, laurocerasus, &c."

Hence the operation of narcotics naturally comes under consideration, as also the celebrated controversy, whether they possess a directly sedative power, or whether their effect in producing sleep depends on a previous excess of excitement. Dr. Trotter determines in favour of the latter opinion.

"It is admitted, I think on all hands, that narcotic medicines, or I will take the chief of them, opium, is universally found to be hurtful and improper, in all *sthenic* diseases, or those reputed to be inflammatory in their nature. Who ever thinks of prescribing opium in pneumonia? in phrenitis, or in acute rheumatism previous to venesection and other evacuations? What reasons are assigned for this caution? They are obvious: In pneumonia, opium increases the difficulty of expectoration and breathing, and anxiety; in phrenitis it exalts the delirium and restlessness; and in acute rheumatism, the fever, pain, and heat of the body, become more severe after its exhibition. These effects are produced by a general stimulant power, spread over the whole body, but particularly exemplified in the circulating system. The stroke of the artery becomes either fuller or more oppressed; the lungs are overloaded with blood, and incapable of due expansion; the blood is also accumulated in the head, apparent from the flush of the countenance and redness of the eyes, and throbbing of the

temporal arteries; the circulation being also increased in the joints, gives additional heat and pain. The physician who thus decides from sick-bed experience, wisely withholds opium in all such conditions of body."

Another circumstance which inclines him to this idea respecting the operation of narcotics is, that in many parts of the world, opium, tobacco, and bangué, (a substance prepared from a species of wild hemp), are commonly employed as substitutes for wine, this being either not easily procurable, or totally forbidden by their religious tenets. When taken in proper doses, it is certain that these drugs excite pleasurable sensations, increase the vigour of the imagination, and, in short, induce a state strongly resembling the intoxication from vinous spirit. Hence it is concluded that alcohol and the vegetable narcotics are essentially the same in their operation upon the body. The immediate effect of all of them, when taken in a suitable quantity, is an excitement of the nervous and sanguiferous systems; while the consequence of too large, or too frequently repeated doses, is languor and debility. After the almost innumerable dissertations which have appeared on this much agitated question, we cannot expect to advance any thing which is either new or decisive. We will however remark that, until we can intoxicate ourselves with digitalis, laurocerasus, and hydrocarbony, or until we can perceive alcohol to be as efficacious as opium in relieving pain, we must still persevere in thinking, that the former substances are directly sedative, that alcohol is directly stimulant, and that opium, though possessing a certain degree of stimulating effect, is essentially different from alcohol in its operation.

After this previous enquiry into the *modus operandi* of alcohol, our author proceeds to the more immediate subject of this chapter: he divides its effects upon the body into intoxicating and chemical. With respect to the first set of effects, it is said, that "the stimulant action of the ardent spirit is first exerted on the stomach, and spread, by sympathy, from thence to the sensorium commune, and the rest of the system." This we conceive to be rather a loose mode of expressing what we apprehend to have been the author's meaning; the action is probably, in the first instance, on the nerves of the stomach, is conveyed to the sensorium commune, and is afterwards pro-

pagated to the whole nervous system. It is, however, asserted that "much of the liquor also enters the circulation, and gives there an additional stimulus;" for "that vinous spirit mixes with the blood we know to a certainty, from the hydrogenous gas which escapes from the lungs, to be perceived in the fœtor of the breath." Of the fact which is here so confidently asserted, that the alcohol actually enters the blood, we confess that we are by no means convinced. As to the odour exhaled from the mouth, we do not hesitate to ascribe it to the evaporation of part of the alcohol, still remaining in the stomach, and exposed there to a temperature of 98°.

There is a strong resemblance between intoxication and mania; besides the external marks of coincidence, it is found that the drunkard, during his paroxysm, like the maniac, possesses an extraordinary power of resisting cold. These states of the body, however, exhibit one obvious and essential difference. The mania of intoxication continues for a short time only, and the body is left as susceptible of the impression of external agents, as it was before capable of resisting them. Hence arises a frequent cause of danger to the drunkard; during his fit of temporary insanity he exposes himself to extreme degrees of cold, of which he is then insensible, but which afterwards acts upon his debilitated frame with redoubled effect.

In the second part of this chapter, concerning the chemical effects of alcohol, we meet with a good deal of what appears to us to be loose and hypothetical reasoning. The author thinks it cannot be doubted, that alcohol possesses a chemical operation upon the body, independent of its intoxicating quality; and, in proof of this opinion, it is alleged, that when

"Applied directly to the animal solid, it constricts and hardens it; and suspends its progress towards putrefaction when separated from the body. It coagulates the serum of the blood, and most of the secreted fluids."

But do we judge of the medical effects of nitric acid or the alkalies from their operation on the substance of the animal body? When these substances are taken into the stomach, do we expect that either adipocire or soap will be produced? It is farther stated, that "alcohol certainly deoxygenates the blood in some

degree, at least decomposes its floridity." In support of this position, it is said that the blood of a professed drunkard approaches to the venous colour, and that the progress of sea scurvy, a disease supposed by Dr. Trotter to depend upon a deficiency of oxygen in the blood, is much accelerated by the excessive use of spirituous liquors. This idea respecting the origin of scurvy is itself entirely hypothetical, and as to the purple appearance of the blood, a fact of which we feel by no means absolutely assured, it will not warrant us in assuming the conclusions which are deduced from it by our author. The difference between the composition of the arterial and venous blood is a subject still involved in much obscurity; it appears probable, however, that the alteration of colour depends less upon the excess or deficiency of oxygen than upon the different state of combination in which the constituents of the blood are maintained. Conceiving the foundation of this hypothesis, respecting the hydrogenation of the blood, to be so feeble, we can attach but little value to the speculations which are deduced from it.

The author introduces into this chapter the subject of the spontaneous inflammation of the human body; a circumstance, the reality of which, like that of the falling of stones from the clouds, has been generally questioned by men of science, although it has been difficult to disregard the strong evidence that has, at different times, been alleged in its favour. A paper on this subject was written by M. Lair, and inserted in the fiftieth volume of the *Journal de Physique*, of which a translation is given in the work now before us. It contains a great number of facts that are said to have occurred at different times, and in different places, the greatest part of them resting on slender and indirect evidence, but a few supported by the testimony of judicious and enlightened men, who had every opportunity of ascertaining the particulars of the case. M. Lair deduces the following conclusions:

"1. The persons who experienced the effects of this combustion, had for a long time made an immoderate use of spirituous liquors.

"2. The combustion took place only in women.

"3. These women were far advanced in life.

"4. Their bodies did not take fire spontaneously, but were burned by accident.

"5. The extremities, such as the feet and hands, were generally spared by the fire.

"6. Water, sometimes, instead of extinguishing the flames which proceeded from the parts on fire, gave them more activity.

"7. The fire did very little damage, and often spared the combustible objects, which were in contact with the human body at the moment when it was burning.

"8. The combustion of the bodies left, as a residuum, fat fœtid ashes, with an unctuous, stinking, and very penetrating Æol.

The expression of the fourth scarcely conveys the meaning of the author; it should be, that the bodies were accidentally set on fire. The chapter concludes with some moral aphorisms, which will probably prove interesting to our readers.

"When a drunken man is lavish of promises which he never made when sober, be assured his kindness is not worth your thanks.

"When you hear a drunken man boasting of his generosity to his friends, beware how you receive a favour from that man.

"When you hear a drunken man telling family secrets, whether of his own, or those of other people, put that man down for a fool, and take care what you say in his presence.

"When you hear a drunken man boasting of his favours from the sex, be assured that man has no honour.

"When you hear a drunken man bragging of his courage, mark that man a coward.

"When you hear a drunken man vaunting of his riches, be assured he cannot be estimable for his virtues.

"When you hear a drunken man pitying misfortunes which he did not relieve when sober, it is the strongest proof that he possesses no goodness of heart.

"Receive no donations from a drunken man, lest he should ask them again when sober.

"Avoid the company of a drunkard; for if he insults you, and you should insist on satisfaction, he will plead want of recollection as apology.

"Let the sober man beware of the society of drunkards, lest the world should say that he means to take an advantage of their credulity."

We next come to the dreadful "catalogue of diseases induced by drunkenness," consisting, first of those "which appear during the paroxysm of drunkenness," and secondly of those "induced

by habitual intoxication." Under one or the other of these heads are included a great part of the most formidable diseases to which the human body is incident; on each of them a few remarks are made, in general judicious and appropriate. They are, however, occasionally mixed with the same kind of loose hypothesis which we mentioned above: for instance, the formation of carbuncles on the face is ascribed to hydrogen contained in the blood of the cutaneous vessels, attracting oxygen from the atmosphere, consequently "the blood in them becomes preternaturally florid; the skin is thus excited, and inflamed, and the spots appear in consequence."

In the fifth part, "on the method of correcting the habit of intoxication, and of treating the drunken paroxysm," we meet with many valuable observations, but, as usual, delivered in a desultory style, and mixed with much extraneous matter. Indeed the proper subject of the chapter is not entered upon, until after an introduction of about thirty-five pages, which are occupied in miscellaneous remarks, that would more properly have been placed in the second and third divisions. From these remarks we shall select some that appear to us to be peculiarly deserving of attention.

"In those families where gout and dyspeptic complaints are hereditary, the use of wine, and all other fermented liquors ought to be cautiously guarded against in childhood and youth. The parent who offers them to the infant, whatever may be the motives of tenderness, ought to weigh the consequences. If the babe were left to the instincts of nature these articles would be the very last it would fix upon. Their qualities are so diametrically opposite to the mother's milk. The pleasure which they afford is momentary; and every time they are resorted to, there is danger of the quantity being increased: of the evils which result from this practice there is no end. The child that is born of gouty and dyspeptic parents, ought from its birth to be confined to the mildest food; it ought to subsist on milk alone as long as possible; it must never taste wine, even diluted to the utmost, or beer of the weakest kind. Animal food, and broth made from that, light puddings, and different articles of cookery where milk forms the chief ingredient, will extend the diet as the child grows up; and thus will be laid the foundation of a healthy constitution, and a temperate life. It is a contrary treatment that ensures the approach of these maladies; and early gout is often fixed before the man arrives at thirty. Such are the baneful effects of early bad customs; for when the

taste is once confirmed, whether for hot or cold articles; substances sweet or sour, mild or acrid, they become so interwoven with habit, that we strive in vain to correct them."

"But it is not drinking spirituous liquors to the length of intoxication only that constitutes intemperance. A man may drink a great deal, pass a large portion of his time at the bottle, and yet be able to fill most of the avocations of life. There are certainly many men of this description, who have never been so transformed with liquor as to be unknown to their own house-dog, or so foolish in their appearance, as to be hooted by school-boys, that are yet to be considered as intemperate liver."

We meet with some judicious observations on the supposed effect of spirituous liquors, in enabling the mind and body to endure extraordinary fatigue. The author's own experience, which on this point has been sufficiently ample, is decidedly in contradiction to this notion, so far as respects mental exertion; and we perfectly acquiesce in his opinion, that the same arguments apply to bodily labour.

"Vinous liquors for a while increase muscular strength; but to a certainty bring on premature weariness and fatigue, with more inclination to sleep. Spirits have the same effects in a greater degree, and cause a greater consumption of pure air. In a warm season or climate, the best articles to use under severe corporeal hardships are the acid fruits, such as the lemon and orange, apple, &c.; or in their want, vinegar and water, as practised by the Roman soldiers. In winter, plain diet, with a due admixture of animal food, and moderate exercise, are the sure security of preserving warmth of body. Spirituous liquors, though generally practised, give but a temporary glow, and in the end render the effects of cold more speedily hurtful."

His cautions against the habitual use of tinctures, as articles of medicine, of cordials and liqueurs as articles of diet, cannot be too much circulated. We heartily join in his protest against the familiar use of opium, a prevailing, and we fear an increasing evil.

"It is well known that many of our fair countrywomen carry laudanum about with them, and take it freely when under low spirits. This custom is certainly as little to be justified as the use of brandy."

In the medical treatment of a person

habituated to drunkenness, the first step to be taken obviously consists in the discontinuance of the accustomed potation. It has been a subject of doubt, whether this should be done gradually, or all at once; our author strenuously advises the latter plan. Upon the whole, we are disposed to agree with him, certainly so far as respects the moral tendency of his directions; yet we think there are instances, in which serious bodily disease would be induced, by suddenly subtracting from the diet a large quantity of spirit, to the stimulus of which the stomach had been for a long time habituated. We rather differ from our author, in conceiving that the disease brought on in the liver, by drinking, is a complaint attended with little pain; and we are disposed to place somewhat more confidence in the use of mercury in these complaints than Dr. Trotter does. We also conceive that more stress might have been laid upon the use of aromatics in the dyspeptic complaints consequent upon habitual drunkenness. The stimulus which they afford we have frequently found to be the best preservative against the intolerable languor consequent upon the disuse of spirituous liquors; while their employment, under proper restrictions, does not appear to produce any bad effects upon the system at large.

The method of relieving the drunken paroxysm, consists principally in attempting to evacuate the stomach. Where apoplexy is threatened, evacuations of blood should be employed, and temporary relief may be obtained by the application of cold to the head, and particularly to the temples.

From the extracts which have been given it will be inferred, that the work of Dr. Trotter contains much information, which is valuable both to the moralist and to the physician; and we think the most determined drunkard could not but feel impressed with the view which is here presented of the effects of his ruinous habit. We must, however, on the other hand remark, that the conduct of the work is desultory, the style frequently verbose and hyperbolic, and, we are almost tempted to say, the direct reverse of that unaffected simplicity which ought to characterize a scientific publication. The illustrations and tales which are introduced, are often too extravagant to be instructive, and the poetical quotations are scattered with a cloying profusion.

The physiology of Dr. Trotter, we have already ventured to criticise; it appears to us to be in general founded upon loose analogy, rather than accurate deduction from fact. It is somewhat singular, that while modern chemistry, in point of precision, yields only to the mathematical

sciences, those physiologists and pathologists who have applied chemical reasoning to the phenomena of the living body, have been, almost without exception, notoriously vague and hypothetical.

ART. XV. *An Essay on a peculiar eruptive Disease, arising from the Exhibition of Mercury; illustrated with Cases taken at the Westmoreland Lock Hospital, Dublin.* By GEORGE ALLEY. 8vo. pp. 80.

ART. XVI. *A Description of the Mercurial Lepra.* By DOCTOR MORIARTY. 12mo. pp. 64.

THESE two small works are upon the same subject, although the title-pages are different. There seems to have been some crossing and jostling in the course of publication; but no notice at all is taken of such a circumstance. We judge from internal evidence. The publication of Mr. Alley's Essay has been delayed nearly four months, by the difficulty of procuring good engravings; at last it is published without any. In the mean time Dr. Moriarty appears to have stepped forward to tell the world all that he has seen, heard, and could collect on this subject at Dublin and Edinburgh. Mr. Alley's Essay is entitled to precedence on many accounts, though there is not much to claim such decided preference in either of these two treatises.

This disease, we are informed, first became known to the surgeons of the Lock Hospital, in Dublin, in 1789. They considered it as arising from the use of mercury, and adopted a successful mode of treating it in consequence of such an opinion. Mr. Alley, in describing the symptoms and general appearances of the disease, divides it into two species, the *mild* and the *malignant*, each characterised by different degrees of febrile derangement of the whole system. The patient is seized with the usual symptoms of *pyrexia*, accompanied with prickly heat and itching of the skin, which precede the eruption. This begins about the scrotum and the inside of the thighs, and soon spreads over the whole body. It is said to be similar to that of measles, excepting that it is different by the spots being larger, and of a less florid colour. The plates referred to are unfortunately not given to assist the description; they were so incorrectly finished that the author thought it best to omit them altogether. In the mild cases the eruption begins to desquamate on the fourth day. This desquamation is frequently attend-

ed with profuse serous discharge, which stains the linen, and is peculiarly fetid. The cuticle peels off in large flakes, but the febrile symptoms do not subside. In some cases the symptoms are not so regular; the desquamation does not begin so soon in the more unfavourable instances. The fever terminates in general on or before the eleventh day: sometimes this fever is of the low typhoid kind, and proves fatal. Mr. Alley next proceeds to point out the distinguishing characters of this mercurial disease, as he calls it, from all the exanthemata, and from one species of venereal eruption.

The method of treatment now successfully adopted, is, first to desist entirely from the exhibition of mercury, to remove the patient from the mercurial atmosphere, to change the cloaths, and to cleanse the skin by the tepid bath. Antimonial medicines, and acids, are given with advantage. At the commencement of the disease, bark and wine aggravate the symptoms; but when the febrile state is diminished, the free exhibition of these remedies is of great importance. Powders, and frequent washing, should be applied to the excoriated parts.

Several cases are detailed: some of them with a tedious degree of minuteness; the languid and prolix copies of some common prescriptions is quite ridiculous. It is curious to remark that the venereal complaints in all the patients disappeared during the continuance of the fever, while the use of mercury was suspended; and the patients were dismissed without having recourse to the exhibition of mercury again. This appears to render the histories somewhat equivocal, at least it suggests some suspicion of the diseases not being in the first instance venereal.

This eruption which attacks some persons on taking mercury, has hitherto been neglected. It well deserves at-

tention, inasmuch as the febrile state sometimes proves fatal. Both these pamphlets, after being condensed into one, are insufficient to convey a complete view of the subject. They are both superficial; both imperfect productions.—

Perhaps it was wrong to expect more than we find, since one of these young authors seems to have copied from the other; and both to have borrowed their ideas from the observations of others.

ART. XVII. *Medical Reports on the Effects of Water, cold and warm, as a Remedy in Fevers, and other Diseases, whether applied to the Surface of the Body, or used internally.* By JAMES CURRIE, M. D. F. R. S. Physician in Liverpool, and Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, Edinburgh. 2 vols.

A NEW edition of Dr. Currie's Medical Reports having been for some time called for by the public, the author has embraced this opportunity of making some alteration in the arrangement of the former part, and adding a very large quantity of new matter. The merits of the original work are sufficiently well known; the practice which it recommends has stood the test of ample experience, and it may now be justly ranked among the decided improvements in medicine, established beyond the reach of our commendation or censure. Our attention at present will be chiefly confined to the new matter which is contained in this edition.

The principal alteration which has taken place in the arrangement of the former materials is, that the articles which were before thrown into an appendix, are now introduced into the body of the work. An account of two cases of tetanus, which were successfully treated by the author, since the publication of the second edition, are inserted in the first volume. The first case was produced by a wound in the leg. About 15 days after the accident a stiffness of the leg first appeared, and continued to increase for six days, notwithstanding the plentiful use of opium and wine. At this time the affusion of water of 75° was employed, and produced an evident alleviation of the symptoms. The patient

"Found considerable and immediate relief from the affusion, which, at his own request, was constantly repeated whenever the symptoms were the most severe, and always with sensible and instant benefit. From this time the symptoms became stationary: a few days there was an abatement of their violence, and under a continuation of this treatment, he finally recovered. The case was, however, a considerable time doubtful; was not till after the expiration of twenty days that we could consider the recovery as certain. He took during this time, on a medium, twelve grains of opium, and nearly

three pints of wine in the twenty-four hours, and had the cold affusions between three and four times daily."

The other case was much more violent. It originated from a splinter running under the finger nail. In about a fortnight the disease had assumed the most formidable aspect. Large quantities of opium in the liquid form, the cold affusion, and the free use of wine were had recourse to, and in spite of the most violent symptoms, were finally successful in combating the disease.

"Being in the vigour of life, and of great bodily strength and resolution, the exertions he made were very uncommon. He could swallow at intervals only, and for several days never, but when turned on his face; and his upper jaw was rigidly shut; yet as it lapped over the under one, he drew up the medicine through the orifice thus produced, and a much larger quantity of wine and nutriment than was expected. An accurate journal was kept by his attendants, from the 13th of April to the 11th of May, of every circumstance respecting his case, which extends to forty-two pages 4to.; and from this it appears, that in the interval of time just mentioned, he drank, mixed with nourishment, and by itself, the extraordinary quantity of a hundred and forty bottles of wine, being five bottles of Madeira a day, besides some ale, and several gallons of brandy. From the 13th of April to the end of that month, he took, one day with another, a hundred and fifty-five drops of laudanum daily, being in all five ounces and six drachms; and used during the same time, twenty-seven ounces in embrocation, with twice the quantity of ether. He also used three drachms of powder of opium in ointment."

"In the use of the cold bath Mr. P. was in like measure left a good deal to his own discretion. From the 13th of April to the 8th of May, when he left it off entirely, it appears that he bathed sixty-five times, twice using the tepid, and sixty-three times the cold affusion. As he sweated profusely, we directed the water to be made milk warm; but finding no relief from it in this way, he himself desired to return to the cold affusion."

"The efforts required to move him out of bed were most painful and difficult. Happily the muscles of his arms and shoulders were less affected than those of the rest of his body, and he was able to make some exertions with them. But it was often fifteen or twenty minutes before he could turn his legs over the side of the bed, into the tub in which he stood while the water was poured over him; and the process of his rising was always interrupted by one or more convulsions. In one of these he seized hold of the post of the bed with his hands, and stood upright, so rigidly constricted, that he could not change his position for two hours, the sweat all the time pouring in torrents over him."

It is remarked by the author that

"Notwithstanding the violence of the disease, and the vast quantity of wine and opium which he swallowed, Mr. P.'s heat was never greater than the natural standard. The superfluous heat which these medicines ought to have produced, was no doubt carried off by the profuse and constant perspiration. Neither did I observe his heat, except in a few instances, below the standard of health; and there seems little doubt that the wine and opium enabled him to sustain the cold affusion under the profuse perspirations which they excited."

From these, and other similar cases, which have been published during the last few years, we think the method of treating tetanus may be considered as sufficiently established, and where no untoward circumstances take place, the cure of the disease may be looked forward to as a probable event. Perhaps, henceforth the instances of failure may be more instructive than those of success.

The "additional reports" principally consist of the author's experience of the effects of the cold affusion, subsequent to the publication of the former edition, and of the communications of other medical men on the same subject. The author has of late extended the practice to some of those cases where its use was before left undecided; he has employed it with great advantage, even in the last stage of typhus, where the temperature of the body did not immediately forbid its use. He appears to have carried to a greater extent than in the earlier part of his practice, the exposure of the body to cold air. To a free exposure to the air he attributes the benefit which Dr. Jackson supposes is derived, in cases of fever, from travelling; an opinion in which we entirely coincide with him. To the same cause is ascribed the singular instance

of recovery mentioned by Desgenettes, of persons who escaped from the Egyptian hospitals, in the delirium attendant upon the worst kind of plague; and in this state, either plunged into the Nile, or wandered for many days through the deserts, and were finally restored to health. Of an analogous nature we conceive the circumstance to be which is related by Assalini, that he always found his patients to be relieved by the removal to a new situation.

On the subject of the Egyptian epidemic, we meet with the following just and elegant observation.

"How fruitless and how perverted are the efforts by which learning and science have in general attempted to combat this fatal disease! The medical departments of both armies seem to have been arranged with the greatest care; but the best remedies for the plague were probably missed by the physicians both of France and England. They were not to be traced in the prevailing systems of medicine, or in the pharmacy of our shops; but it is probable they might have been found in the refreshment of the breeze, in the dews of night, and in the waters of the Nile."

The autumn of 1800, which in most parts of the island was attended with an unusual quantity of disease, appears in Liverpool to have been peculiarly fatal. Typhous fever, dysentery, and scarlatina, were all prevalent at the same time, and were no less violent than frequent. On the treatment of dysentery we meet with the following remarks.

"On the whole, where the patient was in the first stages, and his strength not much reduced, nor his stomach unsettled, it was a successful practice to clear the first passages, and open the pores of the skin, by ipecacuanha, or James's powder, afterwards keeping the bowels regular by small doses of calomel, and allaying the irritation by opium. In other cases saline purgatives, followed by anodyne clysters, proved successful. Castor oil could seldom be retained on the stomach. Calomel was more generally useful, and in some instances it was combined with crystals of tartar, with great apparent advantage. In other cases calcined magnesia, in small doses (sometimes combined with opium and ipecacuanha, or with opium alone), and followed by successive draughts of lemonade, answered every purpose. In a few cases I made a trial of the remedy of my friend, Dr. Wright—sea-salt, dissolved in vinegar or in lemon-juice. Used in the early stages of the disease, this remedy seemed to answer the character he has given of it; but in the latter stages it failed, as, indeed, the communication I had

from him led me to expect. I regret that I did not employ it more generally."

The cold affusion was not tried in this disease, the author "having learned by experience that it does not succeed in fever with affection of the bowels."

The typhus of that season assumed appearances somewhat different from what are usually observed in this country. Its attack was slow and insidious, and its presence was in some instances scarcely suspected, until the appearance of excessive debility forcibly arrested the attention. Its period was unusually extended, and its effects upon the nervous system appeared more than proportionate to the other symptoms: the heat of the skin was not much above the standard of health. These peculiarities in the disease obviously precluded the employment of the cold affusion to the same extent as in the more common form; the tepid affusion was frequently substituted in its place, and the effects appear to have been both grateful and salutary.

Our readers will recollect, that in a former part of the work, the author restricts the use of the cold affusion, not only to those cases where the heat was præternaturally great, but also to those where a sensation of excessive heat was experienced. To this general rule he still adheres, but at the same time admits that those rare instances, in which a sense of coldness is combined with an actual increase of heat, must be left for farther investigation. Mr. Dalrymple of Norwich has communicated a striking case, in which the cold affusion appeared eminently serviceable, although the patient expressed the greatest uneasiness at the access of the external air.

The remarks of our author upon the use of digitalis in inflammatory complaints, and in the hæmorrhagiæ, are highly interesting: our readers will no doubt be gratified by an ample quotation.

"This medicine may almost be said to be possessed of a charm for allaying inordinate action of the heart and arteries, and in this point of view, as well as for its efficacy in some kinds of dropsy, particularly hydrothorax, its introduction into medicine is one of the greatest benefits our science has received in modern times. The extraordinary power of the digitalis in the hæmorrhagiæ,

and particularly in hæmoptysis, is pretty generally known, and if it were necessary I could confirm it by some striking examples: its use in the phlegmasiæ is, so far as I know, in a great measure new. Digitalis does not, indeed, supersede the use of the lancet in these diseases, but it diminishes the extent to which it is required; and it may be used with safety and success in cases where the lancet can no longer be employed. Under the precautions pointed out by Dr. Withering, without the strictest attention to which no practitioner should prescribe this singular and powerful medicine, I have employed the digitalis to a very considerable extent in inflammations of the brain, of the heart, and of the lungs; and have succeeded with it in situations where I should otherwise have despaired. I have also found it an excellent remedy in inflammatory rheumatism, one of the most tedious and intractable of diseases. At some future opportunity I may, perhaps, offer my more mature experience on this subject to the public. In the mean time I congratulate our profession on having obtained a direct sedative; a term, which, after the example of Dr. Ferriar, I apply with confidence to the digitalis, in spite of the recent systems which proscribe the word; systems, which if they are otherwise stable, the extraordinary, and, in some respects, opposite powers of this potent medicine, would confound and overthrow. The prognostic which Dr. Ferriar gave to the world in 1799,* respecting the use of the digitalis in inflammatory fevers, and which my experience has confirmed, I have the pleasure to learn, by a recent communication from himself, has been amply justified by his own subsequent experience."

The next chapter, which we consider as one of the most interesting and valuable in the additional volume, is on scarlatina. For the application of the cold affusion to this very formidable disease, the world is indebted to the author's colleague, Dr. Gerard. The success of the practice was, if possible, more striking than in typhus, in proportion as the scarlatina is a disease more rapid in its progress, and generally occurs in subjects to whom we have less power of administering medicines. Dr. Currie commences with some general remarks on the history and character of the disease. In conformity with the opinion now generally adopted, he conceives scarlatina and cynanche maligna to be only varieties of the same morbid affection, analogous to the two varieties of smallpox. He strongly inclines to the opinion,

* Essay on the Medical Properties of Digitalis Purpurea. By J. Ferriar, M. D. Manchester. 1799.

that the scarlatina is a disease which only occurs once to the same individual. The contrary doctrine was formerly prevalent, and is still adhered to by some respectable individuals: the following statement is, however, a powerful argument in favour of the author's opinion.

"That the experience on which I give these opinions may be justly estimated, I may mention, that for the last twenty years the scarlatina has never been a whole year together absent from Liverpool, and that besides the single cases which are often occurring, there is scarcely a year that passes in some part of which it is not more or less epidemic. The following observations, as well as those preceding, must, therefore, be considered as the result of personal observation."

The author notices a variety of scarlatina, which we believe has not been hitherto described; at least not in so accurate a manner.

The form in which the disease usually appears is described with his accustomed elegance and propriety.

"After some previous lassitude or weariness, of uncertain duration, the scarlatina anginosa comes on with the usual symptoms of pyrexia, shivering, pain in the back and head, nausea, and frequently vomiting; in proportion to the violence of these symptoms, and to the rapidity of their progress, is the danger of the disease; in an hour or two the heat begins to return, and speedily mounts up far beyond the temperature of health, this return of heat being generally attended by a great sensibility and bright-red flushing over the whole surface of the body, with some stiffness of the neck, hoarseness of the voice, and rawness of the throat."

The temperature in this disease is more increased beyond the standard of health than even in typhus: in the more violent cases the thermometer rises to 108°, 109°, and 110°, and it has been seen by Dr. Currie as high as 112°, the greatest heat which he ever observed in the human body. During this stage the cold affusion may be applied in its utmost extent, and with the most decided advantage. The efflorescence on the skin, and the ulceration in the throat are speedily removed, and the secondary symptoms, which are so peculiarly distressing, are entirely prevented. To the benefit which has been supposed to arise from the employment of bark in this disease, the author evidently attaches but little credit, and he agrees with Dr. Withering in repudiating the application of blisters to the fauces. He also coincides with this

excellent physician in recommending the early use of emetics. The author details at length an account of his practice in some particular cases of this disease, which, together with the former observations of Dr. Gerard, place the importance of the cold affusion in scarlatina beyond the possibility of doubt, and in our opinion render all farther evidence upon the subject superfluous. Viewing the matter in this light, we are inclined to think that two long, gossiping letters from Dr. Gregory of Edinburgh, might have been omitted without any detriment to the work. We do not perceive that they contain a single piece of information in any way interesting to the public, and we cannot but suspect that the learned professor must regret to see them in print.

At first view it might seem that the practice of the cold affusion would require no farther testimony in its favour than what may be deduced from the experience of Dr. Currie himself. It must, however, be acknowledged, that not a few cases have occurred in the history of medical science, where persons of learning and respectability have proposed the adoption of new remedies, and cited what have appeared the most unequivocal facts in their favour; yet, in other hands, the desired effects have not been produced. We think, therefore, that Dr. Currie has acted with great propriety in presenting the world with an abstract of the experience of others in the use of the cold affusion, who from their situation cannot be suspected of any undue prejudice in its favour.

He first gives us an account of the communications which he has received "respecting the use of the cold and tepid affusion in different parts of Great Britain." The author makes a remark, to the truth of which we are sorry to be obliged to subscribe, that the practice has been more coldly received in London than in most other places. It has, however, at length excited some attention among the metropolitans, and we have a very complete testimony in its favour from Dr. Dimsdale, late physician to the London house of recovery. The value of this communication, however, depends more upon its exactly coinciding with the experience of Dr. Currie, than from any new light which it throws upon the application of the remedy. The practice appears also to have been followed to a considerable extent, and with equal suc-

cess, in Edinburgh, Birmingham, and Norwich; and an interesting letter from Mr. Marshall, surgeon of the Cheshire militia, proves that it is beginning to be employed in the military hospitals.

The cold affusion is a remedy peculiarly adapted to the epidemics which occasionally prevail on shipboard. A plentiful supply of water is always at hand; the application of it requires no previous apparatus, and is attended with little trouble. It appears to have been employed in some degree by the surgeons of African vessels ever since the publication of the Medical Reports; but the first time when it was used to any great extent at sea, was by Mr. Wilson, of the Hussar, in the year 1795. The success was as complete as could be desired, and testimonies, equally decisive, are given by several other navy surgeons. The most interesting of these communications, and, indeed, the only one which can be considered as conveying any new information, is from Mr. Nagle of the Ganges. A malignant fever had for some time raged among the shipping at Kingston, and upon their arrival in that harbour, in the autumn of 1800, they were attacked with the same disease.

"The symptoms were severe head-ache; hot and dry skin; the face flushed; eyes red; nausea; thirst; the pulse strong, and full at first, and as frequent as 120 in the minute; pains in the back and limbs; great anxiety and restlessness. The patients were in general under much depression of spirits, from the accounts we had received of the great mortality from the fever. There was little chilliness in any stage of the disease, and remissions were scarcely perceptible. Heat of the skin was the most striking symptom. To that degree it actually rose, I had no means of ascertaining, having unfortunately broken my thermometer. I was, therefore, obliged to trust to my sensations, and those of the patient. But from the impression on my hand, I have no doubt that the heat in this fever was many degrees greater than the temperature of health, and considerably more than the common fever of England."

Sea water was poured upon the patients in large quantities, and with the usual good effects. They were then put to bed, calomel and the pulvis antimonialis were administered, and a complete cure was speedily effected. Bleeding, Mr. Nagle informs us, he never employed, though he was "incited to use both by precept and example." In those ships where it was practised the mortality was very great.

With respect to the nature of this fever, we meet with the following remarks.

"If you ask whether this was the yellow fever of the West Indies, I would answer that it was, though under the practice I have described, the yellow tinge of the skin seldom appeared. By whatever name it may go, it was no doubt the same fever that spread such destruction through our naval and military service in the West Indies last war: I did not consider it as contagious. There was little chilliness perceptible in this fever: the remissions, if any, were very indistinct. The patients complained of a burning heat almost from the first."

On this point we think there can be little doubt. What might appear plausible in theory, seems now to be confirmed by actual experiment, that the cold affusion will prove a complete remedy for one of the most fatal diseases which has ravaged the human species. This chapter concludes with a communication from two Portuguese physicians to Dr. Currie, informing him of the success which they had experienced from his mode of practice. The letters contain no information which is particularly interesting; but they serve to prove that the valuable discovery of our author is beginning to be properly appreciated on the continent.

"Here then we close this division of the subject. It must serve to recommend the cold affusion in fever, on board of our fleet; that it is not only the best remedy for the sick, but the best means of preventing the progress of infection; with this farther advantage, that it is of all others the most easily applied. If it be compared with the remedies recommended by Dr. Lind, Dr. Blane, and others, its real value will be fairly appreciated. The science of medicine, hitherto, on occasions such as these, comparatively feeble and unavailing, by the adoption of this practice assumes a higher character, and the sanative powers of nature more than cope in force and rapidity with its destroying powers."

Having observed the progress which the cold affusion has made in the different parts of Great Britain, and among the naval practitioners, we are next presented with an "account of the use of the cold affusion on shore, in the warmer climates." The first communication which we meet with is from Mr. Dewar, surgeon of the queen's regiment of foot; who, during an extensive epidemic which took place at Mahon, had an opportunity of trying

the remedy, and experiencing its good effects. Savary, in his letters on Egypt, remarks that the inhabitants of that country remove the burning fever, with which they are frequently attacked, "by drinking a great deal of water, and bathing in the river." It appears also that the English army, during their campaign in Egypt, sponged the body with cold fluids, in fever; but it does not appear that the *affusion* was ever employed.

In the former edition of this work, the case of sir John Chardin is referred to, who was said to have been cured in Persia of a burning fever by the application of external cold. We have here a minute detail of all the circumstances, translated from Chardin's own work, by which it appears, that the method of using the cold affusion, and cold drinks, was very similar to the plan recommended in the Medical Reports. Though the narration is somewhat curious, we are inclined to wish that it had been given in a more concise form.

The cold affusion had been for some time practised by Dr. McLean in the East Indies, but without the success which had so uniformly attended it in other instances. The cause, however, seems sufficiently obvious; for upon referring to Dr. McLean's work, it appears that he was in the habit of employing it either in the very beginning, or in the conclusion of the disease, while in the middle, i. e. in the period of the greatest heat, his hypothesis unfortunately led him to conceive that the practice would be dangerous. His rules for the application of the cold affusion are indeed precisely the reverse of those laid down in the volumes before us.

Our author is naturally led in this place to notice the work of Dr. Jackson, who, like Dr. McLean, had been induced to try the effects of cold bathing and cold affusion in fever, in consequence of observing the great benefit produced in some instances where persons labouring under this disease had been accidentally exposed to the operation of cold. The practice of Dr. Jackson is in several respects different from that of Dr. Currie, and he takes much pains to controvert the rules laid down in the Medical Reports. "Experience," says our author, "must decide between us, and to that I appeal." We have accounts of the success of the practice in Demerary, Guiana, and in different parts of the West Indies; and several notices of the em-

ployment of the cold bath, which, though a less eligible practice, was generally productive of considerable benefit.

The frequent recurrence, and excessive mortality of what has been called the yellow fever of America, naturally leads us to inquire what effects would be produced in it by the application of cold. In the epidemic of the year 1793, cold bathing appears to have been used to some extent, but in consequence of the mistaken principles upon which it was administered, the effects were not such as to recommend its farther employment. The Medical Reports had been published for some years before they in the least degree attracted the attention of the American physicians, and even now the trials that have been made of the cold affusion are very limited. It is not easy to assign a cause for the neglect with which this practice has been treated in the United States. The virulent, and we may add, disgraceful controversies which have prevailed respecting the nature of the disease, the very opposite remedies which have been employed for its cure, and its acknowledged fatality under every plan that has yet been adopted, sufficiently demonstrate the necessity of some farther improvement in their practice. That a remedy which has been found so singularly useful in combating febrile diseases, a remedy so easy in its application, and so safe in its consequences, should have been made known to the world for several years, and be yet scarcely noticed by the numerous medical practitioners of a country subject to so severe a scourge, is a fact of too singular a nature to pass without animadversion. The inference which we are led to draw from it, is not favourable either to the candour or the humanity of the American physicians.

The main body of the work is concluded by some observations upon the cutaneous perspiration, a function which is regarded by the author as the grand agent in diminishing and regulating the temperature of the body. The increase of temperature, if not the essence of fever, is at least one of its most important symptoms; and it may be concluded that no remedy can stop fever which suffers the morbid heat to continue. This end is obtained in the most complete manner by the cold affusion; not only is a most urgent symptom removed, but the progress of the disease is directly opposed, and this without the occur-

rence of any unfavourable consequences. The other remedies for fever, viz, emetics, sudorifics, and blood-letting, have all an indirect tendency to diminish the temperature; but the effect is less in degree, and it is brought about by means less safe and less certain, than by the application of cold to the surface.

The volume concludes with an appendix of three parts; containing, first, a letter to Dr. Clark of Newcastle, respecting the fever wards established in the Liverpool workhouse; secondly, two letters on the erection of a lunatic asylum in Liverpool; and, lastly, a letter to Dr. Beddoes, on the use of the nitric acid in lues venerea. The letter to Dr. Clark is principally valuable as shewing the exemption from fever which the Liverpool workhouse has enjoyed for many years, though fever patients from all the town have been received into a ward, situated in the very centre of the building. The general fact is, indeed, very similar to others which have been lately adduced by Dr. Clark's correspondents, and which prove, in the most striking manner, that the typhus contagion is, at least in this climate, very limited in its sphere of operation, and of comparatively little activity, unless accumulated by confined air, or detained by filthy clothes or furniture. The letters on the lunatic asylum, principally relate to a local controversy, and have no connection with the subject of the volume. We cannot, however, refuse our readers the gratification of perusing the following beautiful and affecting passage, respecting the great Howard, written soon after he set out on the journey, in which he terminated his career of philanthropy.

"Having awakened the powers of reason, and the true spirit of charity, throughout the nations of Europe, he is now attempting to diffuse them among the disciples of Mahomet. While the sovereigns of Russia and Germany are carrying devastation and slaughter along the coasts of the Euxine, and the shores of the Archipelago, this *prophet of mercy* approaches the benighted followers of the crescent from another quarter, with a mission of peace and love. He was last heard of from Petersburg. Thence passing through Moscow, he purposed to enter the Turkish empire eastward of the sea of Azof, to avoid the storms of war. The rout he has marked out crosses the mountains of Circassia, and passes along the shores of the Caspian into Persia and Armenia. His pilgrimage will then extend across Arabia Petrea, and through the isthmus of Suez,

into the continent of Africa. If life is granted him, he will traverse the nations that inhabit the southern shore of the Mediterranean, and passing into Europe by the streights of Gibraltar, return by Spain and France to England. To this singular tour he has devoted three years, and he himself, it is said, has little expectation of living to go through it. It is most probable, therefore, that we shall not see him again. But no matter—wherever he finds a grave, the spot will be hallowed, and his name consecrated in the admiration of posterity."

"Quo nihil majus, meliusve terris,
Fata donavere, bonique divi;
Nec dabunt, quamvis redeant in aurum,
Tempora priscum."

The above analysis will, we conceive, afford a just idea of the nature of Dr. Currie's additional volume. It contains an ample confirmation of the utility and success of his practice, in situations of extreme urgency; and when employed by persons whom we cannot suspect to have possessed any undue prejudice in its favour. It also contains detached observations on other parts of medical practice, which are highly valuable. The observations on scarlatina are, in our opinion, more really important than some whole treatises which have been written on the subject. Unfortunately, however, we cannot read the second volume, without recollecting the sensations with which we perused the first. The novelty and sagacity of the observations, the dignity and perspicuity of the language, the precision and simplicity of the practical directions, the profundity and extensiveness of the pathological speculations displayed in the former work, all contributed to raise Dr. Currie to the first rank among medical writers. But the materials of the present production are apparently thrown together without much order or much selection. We meet with diffuse and common-place details, informing us only of that we were more fully acquainted with before; and the author submits to be the editor of long, uninteresting letters, the substance of which might have been communicated with more effect by a single paragraph from his own luminous pen. We hope we shall not be considered as too fastidious, if we point out a circumstance which has impressed us with some degree of disgust; we refer to the epithets of profuse, and, we fear, extravagant commendation which are attached to the names of almost every individual who is

mentioned in this additional volume. Praise, even when derived from the most respectable quarter, in order to be valuable, should be select and discriminate.

Before we conclude, we must express our deep concern at the account which

the author gives of the declining state of his health; but we hope and trust that his apprehensions are without foundation, and that he may long continue an ornament to his profession, and a benefit to mankind.

ART. XVIII. *The Works of Dr. John Brown. To which is prefixed a Biographical Account of the Author.* By WILLIAM CULLEN BROWN, M. D. &c. 3 vols. 8vo.

THE principles of the Brunonian doctrine, as it is usually termed, are now familiar to all those who feel any interest in the investigation of the phenomena of life. It would be superfluous, therefore, to enter into a minute analysis of the system, or to attempt to trace its application through all the varieties of health and disease. But in announcing this edition of the works of Dr. Brown, we cannot avoid subjoining a few remarks on the nature of his system, and on the force of the objections which have been urged against it, as well as on the effects which it has produced in the opinions and practice of medical men. For it must be remembered, that it was originally advanced as a discovery which would constitute a new æra in the annals of medicine; and it professed to remove at once all the discordancies of medical hypotheses, and to reduce the principles of the science to a few demonstrable axioms. How far, then, it may be enquired, have these lofty pretensions been realized? Is medicine no longer a conjectural art? Or do the professors of it still obstinately shut their eyes to the light of truth? The fact is, we believe, notwithstanding the vehemence with which the doctrine was first inculcated, and is now defended by the editor, that, although it be to a certain extent founded on a correct generalisation of facts, yet on the whole it is justly considered as affording a limited and imperfect view of the phenomena of health and disease.

The general opinion may now be deemed more correct, when there is no longer a contention for party triumph; when it is not a question of the comparative merits of the system of this teacher or that professor, but merely of the actual truth of this particular doctrine. And we cannot but condemn the disposition which the doctor has shewn of continuing the comparative discussion of the *Elementa* since it has betrayed him into an intemperance of language not greatly conducive to the discovery of

truth, as well as into some hasty, and o t very logical conclusions.

The editor has prefixed a plain and simple narrative of the life of the author. It is not enlivened by those original reflections on human character which render Dr. Beddoes' account at once interesting and instructive, but it may be considered as in general more authentic; it is more copious with respect to many of the incidents of the author's life, and is divested of that air of levity, which, however attractive to the general reader, appears to have given offence to the editor, and other relatives and friends of the author. The circumstances attending Dr. Brown's unsuccessful attempt to obtain the vacant *theoretical* chair are stated more fully than in the former account. One of these circumstances, which has not been before related, seems to have given rise to the first breach of that confidential friendship which subsisted between Brown and his patron; and corroborates the observation of Dr. Beddoes, that "friendships originating in protection are very prone to terminate in enmity, unless difference of rank and pursuit totally preclude competition." It will also perhaps give us a less unfavourable view of Dr. Cullen's conduct towards his protégé, if we compare it with the general weakness of mankind, when such a competition for fame and power is excited.

"When the present Dr. Gregory," the editor states, "who was then travelling on the continent, was appointed to the professorship of the theory, which had become vacant, and for which Mr. Brown had unsuccessfully applied, it became necessary to find a person qualified for executing the duties of the situation during Dr. Gregory's absence. Cullen, affecting to regret his having been disappointed of the chair, assured him, that he would by all means endeavour to procure him the temporary appointment, which might ultimately prove highly advantageous to him. In the mean time, he said, it would be necessary for him to obtain a diploma, and to prepare a text book. The cir-

ploma could have been procured at any time; he, therefore, immediately commenced the composing of his text book, which he did with such assiduity, that, as his materials had been long before prepared, in a short time he presented it to Cullen in a tolerably finished state. Cullen had never in the least doubted, that, in his pupil, his favourite opinions would always have a warm and able advocate, who would keenly defend them in their fullest latitude: he was not a little surprised, therefore, when, on the present occasion, the first sketch of the *Elementa Medicinæ* was submitted to his inspection. The anecdote is perfectly consistent with the artlessness and unsuspecting disposition of the man." (P. lviii.)

It would appear, therefore, that Brown was not incited to sketch a rival system in consequence of the quarrel with Cullen, but that his wish to introduce this system into the school, in which Cullen's was then received and admired, was, in fact, the cause of that estrangement on the part of the latter, which was followed by so much virulence and enmity on the part of Brown.

The editor concludes his biographical detail with an account of "the progress of the Brunonian doctrine on the continent, and in other parts of the world;" from which it appears, that it has found advocates wherever it has been introduced. He seems to be extremely impatient of opposition where it has been encountered, and is very angry with Dr. Hufeland and others for attempting to modify the doctrine, and especially for daring to combine those parts of it which they consider as exclusively good, with the heterodox hypotheses of the chemical physiologists. He will not admit of any modification or compromise, or this singular and novel reason: "As the doctrine is in itself entirely new and singular, it must either be entirely erroneous, or irrefragably true; for there can be no medium between it and doctrines diametrically opposite!" (p. cxcv.) And he lavishes a good deal of passionate and indecent declamation against the "preposterous chemical system" of "a few crazy people in Germany"—"engendered in the delirious brains of a set of men, as mad, &c. &c."—a language which, we think, rather serves to refute its own claims to good sense and good manners, than to overthrow the objections of his opponents, or to support the validity of the doctrine which he maintains. A brief examination of Dr. Hufeland's objections, as well as of the

editor's reply, will not be superfluous, because the former are such as have generally been advanced against the *Elementa*, and because the latter, we may presume, is the best defence that can be offered.

Dr. Hufeland remarks (in a note upon his *System of Pract. cal Medicine*, which has not appeared in our language), that, "on the principles of the above theory, it is impossible to explain in what manner rest, as well as exercise, invigorates the system; for, if the human body has received from nature its determinate portion of excitability, and life consists only in a successive exhaustion of it, non-consumption may indeed preserve, but surely never can increase it; and exercise must always diminish, but never can augment it." He afterwards adds, that "all these contradictions, however, vanish, when we connect with the ideas of life the chemico-material processes which are constantly associated with it, and by which the restoration of the excitability can alone be effected."

This objection has frequently occurred. The editor considers it as specious, yet very futile: the author of the doctrine, he answers, affirmed that the nervous system, including the medullary, nervous, and muscular solid, is the seat of the excitability. Now the continual waste of these solids is repaired by apposition of fresh matter from the blood: the food, therefore, which supplies the blood, "must necessarily be the original source of the renewal of the excitability in the nervous system;" as it repairs "the seat or matter in which the excitability is inherent, it consequently occasions an accumulation of the principle itself." (p. cxc.)

This we cannot but consider as an unsatisfactory solution of the difficulty. The author never meant that exhaustion of excitability depends on the waste of the nervous or muscular solids, and returns with the reparation of them. The inorganised chyle possesses no excitability to add to the muscle, of which it becomes a part: it acquires that property after its combination. In acute diseases the solid is so far from being repaired by food, that its substance is much wasted, at the same time that there is the most exhausting excitement; how is the excitability retained or repaired? But it may be observed, that a muscle separated from the body, when the circulation no longer goes on, continues for some

time to obey the influence of stimuli, and to repair its irritability by intervals of rest. And the living muscular system has its excitability exhausted and restored much more speedily than any conversion of aliment into muscle can be supposed to take place. The presence of oxygen, and of the galvanic fluid, both affect the excitability instantaneously, and a temporary suspension of the former produces speedy death; they are probably, therefore, more connected with the changes of the excitability than the assimilation of food.

The above explanation of the inconsistency, however, has generally been advanced by the commentators on the Brunonian doctrine; and, in adopting it, the editor accedes to that very proposal of his adversary, against which he had just lavished so much violent declamation; for he now resorts to digestion and assimilation, to the "*chemico-material* processes which are necessary to life," in order to defend the fundamental principle of the doctrine.

But the truth is, we can discover no reason for believing that this was the original opinion of Brown; nor is it easily reconcilable to the assertion contained in the note to paragraph 39. He there not only makes no allusion to the action of assimilation, but expressly affirms, that "the accumulation, increase, or abundance of excitability, take any term you please, is not occasioned by *any action or operation*, but by the want of action, the want of operation." It seems obvious, therefore, that he is desirous that the accumulation of excitability during the abstraction of stimuli should be considered as an ultimate fact, of which it is unnecessary to attempt any explanation. And to this view of the subject every philosophic mind will readily accede; for the fact, we believe, is indubitable. Unfortunately, however, the author reduced himself to a dilemma, and threw an obstacle in the way of the implicit reception of this fact, by setting out with a piece of hypothesis, which stands in direct contradiction to it, viz. that "a certain portion of excitability is assigned to every being at the commencement of its existence, and incessantly exhausted by stimuli." Now the whole of Dr. Brown's theory requires that the process of *generating* excitability be supposed to be incessantly going on, for, even during the most profound sleep, stimuli, i. e. exhausting powers, are in-

cessantly applied; the cessation of all excitement is synonymous with death. If, then, some hypothesis be necessary, we apprehend that the contradiction, which has excited so much useless controversy, would have been avoided, and the general fact correctly expressed, by stating, that a *power of generating excitability* is assigned to each being at the commencement of its life.

As it is only against this inconsistent hypothesis that some of the objections, advanced by Hufeland and others, can be levelled, these will necessarily be done away, either by omitting the hypothesis altogether, or by assuming that modification of it which seems to accord with the facts.

Dr. Hufeland next observes, that "it is equally inconceivable how it should happen in the case of great indirect debility (which is supposed to arise from excessive stimulation, and the consequent exhaustion of the excitability), that *the excitability may be restored by still stronger stimuli*;" (or, to use the correction of the editor, which does not remove the verbal objection, by stimuli *little short* of those which produced the excitement), "for if the advocates of this system were consistent with themselves, these should completely exhaust it." The editor's answer to this is, "that the impression made by every stimulus is less the second than the first time, still less the third than the second time, and so forth, until it ceases to produce any further excitement; and this also unquestionably is one of the properties of the excitability, as appears from its manifest effects." (p. xciii.) We accord with the editor in this appeal to *fact* for his reply to the objection. The difficulty of conceiving the nature of this operation arises from the imperfection of language, by which we are compelled to use terms (such as exhaustion, accumulation, &c.) borrowed from mechanical operations, which bear little analogy to the actions of animal life. The *fact*, that the debility from over excitement is to be removed by gradually diminishing or changing the stimulus, and not by abstracting it altogether, is founded upon a comprehensive view of the living powers, and will not be disputed, because we cannot accurately describe the mode in which the effect is produced.

With respect to the fundamental principle of the doctrine, that health and strength are produced by regular and

moderate stimulation, and that debility is the consequence of excessive excitement on the one hand, and of defective excitement on the other, no objection has been, or can, we believe, be offered. It is the great universal law of organic life; applicable to all the variety of living beings, whether animal or vegetable; and illustrated in all their functions, vital, intellectual, and corporeal. Upon this the great merit of Dr. Brown's original theory rests; and it is a generalization which may fairly be ranked with the most demonstrable and comprehensive truths, which have been ascertained by the researches of modern philosophy. The moralist, as well as the physician, may derive advantage from keeping the principle in view; for the proper conduct of the passions and the understanding, as well as the physical circumstances which contribute to the health of the body, is inculcated by the tendencies which it points out. Moderation becomes the golden rule in all our actions, with a view to the prevention of moral and physical disease; and by the proper application of moral and physical stimuli we are taught to alleviate the morbid state when it has already been induced. The author has given us a good illustration. Great "superabundant excitability" so speedily brings on death, that the only means of restoring health is first to encounter it with a very small dose of diffusible stimulus, a dose scarcely exceeding the scanty portion of stimulus that occasioned it; after wasting a part of the superabundance, we may proceed to a somewhat stronger dose; and thus be constantly taking off whatever superfluity still remains, till at last the salutary mediocrity is regained. To give examples: a famished person is not immediately to be gratified with a full meal; a person afflicted with long-continued or excessive thirst is not immediately to be indulged with a large draught; but food should be given bit by bit, and drink drop by drop, then both of them by degrees more plentifully. A person benumbed with cold should be gradually warmed; a person in deep sorrow should have good news gradually communicated to him. The news of the safety of the Roman soldier, who survived the disaster of his countrymen at Cannæ, should have been communicated to his mother in a roundabout way; at first as having no better foundation than doubtful report; then

as being somewhat more to be depended on; afterwards as being still more probable; then as not admitting a shadow of doubt; and last of all, before he was introduced, the mother should have been at the same time fortified, or had a part of her very abundant excitability taken off, by other stimuli, and a glass of *Falerian wine*." (par. 43.)

The latter prescription may, perhaps, be considered as the recommendation of a *favourite* stimulus, rather than one which the principle would immediately suggest. Its effect we doubt not. We know that a person may become '*psuvaliant*,' and encounter danger, that might otherwise be fatal. It well illustrates, however, the efficacy of stimuli, totally different in kind, in removing a dangerous debility. Thus in the indirect debility induced by intense application of mind, the relief obtained from a change of occupation, from poetry or music, is greater and more speedy than from absolute indolence, or the total want of occupation. Numberless illustrations might be offered.

Thus far we accompany the philosopher with great pleasure, and with much instruction. In what relates to the general state of the animal economy in health, and with a view to the prevention of many diseases, we adopt the ingenious doctrine of Dr. Brown to a great extent. But however angry the editor may be with Hufeland, we cannot but express ourselves in his words: "I receive it for what it is, the doctrine of stimuli with respect to the organic body, and on this account I esteem it very highly. Only I believe that the knowledge of the relation of stimuli is *not alone sufficient for attaining a just idea of life, and of disease and its mode of treatment*." (p. cxcviii.)

When Dr. Brown affirms that all diseases arise simply from the degree or quantity of excitement, and consist simply in direct or indirect debility, and then proceeds to arrange them in a numerical scale, so many objections start up in the mind of the physician, accustomed to contemplate diseases, that a particular refutation of the system can hardly be attempted. We find that the study of the nature and operations of the different functions respectively is discarded, although general disease is much more frequently the consequence of the derangement of individual organs than of the general excitability in the

first instance, and notwithstanding that mere general remedies are but too often of no avail, when local ones will be effectual. We are satisfied of the error of denominating all remedies stimulant, and denying that they differ in their effects, except in *degree*; because we find that opium will produce sleep and constipation, with little *obvious* excitement; that volatile alkali will produce excitement, with little disposition to sleep or constipation; that hyoscyamus will produce sleep, without either of the other effects; and that alcohol cannot supply the place of any of these in every particular quality. Are emetics and narcotics, sudorifics and sialogogues, merely stimulants? If so, has the word *stimulant* any other signification than that of *acting*; and does to stimulate signify to *produce an effect*? It is obvious that the extension of the doctrine to all the varieties of disease, and every action of remedies, is either a gratuitous hypothesis, built upon a contempt of observation and experiment, or merely an unmeaning jargon, which may be modified by the imagination of each individual according to his own preconceived ideas. If indeed this were all, the mischief would be trivial: but when the most copious and unvarying experience is attempted to be denied and proscribed, merely because it is incompatible with this gratuitous hypothesis, a more serious censure is called for. When typhus, gout, and dropsy, are said to require the same remedies, because standing in the same numerical portion of the scale; and when phthisis, apoplexy, and the plague, are classed together in the same way, and with the same directions, the danger which may thence occur, in the practice of the ignorant and implicit believers in this jargon, is incalculable. If the advocates of the system really act up to this sweeping classification, we think a new code of medical jurisprudence should be framed, and a system of medical police instituted, to defend the population of the realm. But this we believe is very far from being the case. Fortunately mankind have still the good sense to accommodate their hypotheses to the results of experience, rather than to leave the solid discoveries of the latter in pursuit of hypothetical shadows; and, in this instance, the uncertain meaning of the word *stimulant* is extremely favourable to such an accommodation. Thus it is admitted that mercury is the *proper stimu-*

lant for syphilis, bark for intermittent fever, and digitalis for lowering the pulse in hectic; not that these remedies have any peculiar or *specific* qualities, or that there is any *peculiar* action going on in those diseases, for these notions are exploded, but that, in truth, the theory possesses an universal fitness, like Sterne's text, and will do for any practice that may be found most expedient.

What, then, has been the effect of the doctrine upon the general practice? Though it must be considered as inadequate to explain all the phenomena of diseases, yet we believe that its influence has on the whole been beneficial. It has induced a particular attention to the degree of *excitement* which accompanies both local and general diseases, and the regulation of which constitutes undoubtedly the most useful and the most feasible means of alleviating the morbid state, although the excitement cannot be considered, in fact, as the essence of the latter. It has hence led to a more free use of wine and opium in diseases accompanied by debility, especially in fevers; and it has also contributed to produce a greater discrimination between the use of stimulant or exciting medicines, and the abstraction of stimuli and sources of irritation; and thus has rendered our practice in many diseases considerably more efficacious and less conjectural than it was formerly. Had not its application to many local diseases, and to some general diseases, such as scurvy and syphilis, been obviously impossible, and had not even imperfect experience been preferred to a plausible but less perfect hypothesis, the errors which this doctrine would have produced would have been considerable. It tended to proscribe a particular attention to the different functions of the body, and to the peculiar effects of remedies; but the age has fortunately been actuated by a spirit of experimental research, and these subjects have attracted their share of attention. The "leaden and retarding weight" of a specious theory upon the progressive steps of medical science has been counteracted in its effects by the disposition of the times; and therefore the influence of the theory, on the whole, must be considered as productive of benefit. It has established some important general facts in the animal economy, and having enlarged our views both of health and disease, has prepared us for the reception of other truths,

which future inquiry may present to our contemplation.

In addition to the life of Brown, and the *Elementa Medicinæ* (a translation, corrected and collated by the editor), this edition contains "observations on the former systems of medicine, and outlines of the new doctrine," the latter of which is merely an analysis of the *Ele-*


menta; and also "observations on the present system of spasm, as taught in the university of Edinburgh" (1787), which occupy 100 pages, and consist of a violent declamatory rant against the Cullenian doctrines, in which irony and sarcasm in a great measure supply the place of argument.

ART. XIX. *An Essay on Respiration. Parts First and Second. By JOHN BOSTOCK, M. D.* 8vo. pp. 276.

THE function of respiration is one of the most important processes connected with animal organization; not only from its immediate influence upon the vital motions of the animal body, but from its intimate relations with all the other functions, which the different organs of the body perform. The state of temperature, the functions of digestion and assimilation, the secretion of bile, the deposition and absorption of fat, the muscular action, and even the exertions of the intellect, are all modified by the process of respiration, and reciprocally modify the operations which take place during that process. Until the nature of these operations therefore be well ascertained, our knowledge of the animal economy must be deemed extremely imperfect: and the steps of the pathologist will still be uncertain, in the obscurity which surrounds him, when he investigates the deviations from a state of health, in which those functions are particularly deranged. Mechanical philosophy, in the hands of a Boyle and a Hales, and in the most successful æra of its cultivation, necessarily failed to throw much light on the physiology of respiration. The discoveries of modern chemistry have greatly advanced our knowledge upon this intricate subject; but much is yet to be accomplished; and the *pathology* of respiration remains to be investigated. It is to this latter part of the inquiry to which Dr. Bostock particularly means to direct his attention, and to which the collection of facts contained in this volume is merely preparatory.

"During the course of my attendance upon the fever wards of this town," (Liverpool) the author observes in his preface, "I had been frequently led to notice the rapid changes of temperature which the body experiences in this disease, and I felt desirous to ascertain how far they could be reconciled to the mo-

dern doctrines of animal heat. For this purpose, I entered upon a course of experiment, respecting the chemical state of respiration in fever, and I afterwards determined to extend my inquiries to other states of the body, either natural or morbid, in which it might be supposed that this function would be affected. As however I was aware that the subject was not altogether new, it was proper to begin by making myself acquainted with what had been previously done by others, not only on this particular topic, but respecting respiration in general. But the information that has been acquired, still remains dispersed through a great variety of publications, some of which are voluminous, and others not easily to be procured. I conceived, therefore, that my first object would be to collect the best authenticated facts, and the most valuable opinions that had been advanced, and to arrange them in such a manner, as to present a correct idea of the present state of our knowledge." The volume before us is the result of this useful labour; and, from the industry and judgment, which the author has displayed in the execution of it, we are led to anticipate a considerable addition to our pathological knowledge in the completion of his plan.

The whole of the plan, of which the first and second parts are now published, is briefly stated in the introduction. "In treating upon this subject I shall begin by giving an account of the process of respiration; I shall in the second part point out its direct effects; in the third part, the different affections of respiration will be noticed, whether occasioned by the various natural situations in which the body is placed, or by the effects of morbid causes operating upon the system; I shall conclude by investigating its uses, and by an attempt to ascertain the connexion which subsists between respiration and the other functions." 

In chap. i. Dr. Bostock gives a short and clear description of the human organs of respiration; and adds in a note the different opinions of several anatomists, with regard to the form of the cells or vesicles in which the bronchia terminate. He seems to lean to the opinion of Helvetius, that they terminate in a cellular or spongy tissue, composed of a delicate or membranous substance, the cells of which have no determinate figure, or regular connexion with each other, and not in regularly rounded vesicles, as is generally described.

Chapter ii. contains an account of the "mechanism of respiration," to which he has added in several notes a description of the controversies of anatomists on this subject, and an account of the different opinions of the mechanical philosophers.

In chapter iii. he enters upon a more intricate inquiry, "into the bulk of a single inspiration, and into the capacity of the thorax in its different states of distension." The latter part of the inquiry is of peculiarly difficult research, and, owing to a difference in stature and conformation, as well as to the influence which the state of the stomach, muscular exertion, mental impressions, &c. have upon the respiration, the investigations have not been attended with satisfactory results. The author details the methods adopted by the different physiologists in their experimental inquiries, and points out with considerable ingenuity the sources of the errors into which some of them have obviously fallen. In the experiments of Dr. Menzies, Dr. Bostock observes that there is no assignable cause of error, and their coincidence with each other, (although instituted in two very different modes), and also with those of Jurin, is a strong argument in favour of their accuracy. He estimates the bulk of a single inspiration at forty cubic inches. Dr. Menzies also estimated the medium capacity of the lungs in a state of ordinary expiration at 179 cubic inches. This quantity Dr. Bostock considers as too small, and conceives that, in their natural condition, the lungs contain about 280 cubic inches of air. He believes Dr. Goodwyn's estimate of the quantity of air left in the lungs after a complete expiration, at 109 cubic inches, to be the nearest approximation to the truth, though probably not altogether correct. "From the above data," he concludes, "it may be

estimated, that by each ordinary expiration one-seventh part of the whole contents of the lungs is discharged, and that by the most violent expiration, somewhat more than four-sevenths of the air contained in them is evacuated."

Chapter iv. is entitled an "Inquiry into the Cause of the first Respiration, and of the Alternation of Inspiration and Expiration." The author thinks the explanation of Dr. Whytt, who refers the first inspiration to an uneasy sensation in the thorax, objectionable, as well as those of Boerhaave, Hartley, and Darwin, who consider the thorax as accidentally dilated in the struggles of the infant, which are excited by the painful sensations of cold, &c.; and he attributes the first expansion of the lungs to the mechanical change which takes place in the posture of the body of the infant, when it leaves the uterus, when the trunk and limbs are straightened, and the pressure being removed from the abdomen, the liver and the other abdominal viscera descend into their proper situation. We must acknowledge that the explanation of Hartley (note 22) is in our view more satisfactory.

With respect to the alternations, the author believes both the actions of inspiration and expiration to be excited, in a way which, as in other instinctive motions, cannot be explained; in consequence of the uneasy sensation produced in the thorax by the presence of blood, which has undergone a certain change in the course of the circulation, and which is again altered by the admission of fresh air: for he denies the assertion of Haller and Whytt, that the uneasy sensation arises from any impediment to the passage of the blood through the lungs in a state of expiration, since no such impediment occurs.

In chap. i. of part ii. the author examines "the mechanical effects produced by the dilatation and contraction of the thorax," especially on the contiguous parts, and considers them as much less considerable than was imagined by the older physiologists.

In chapter ii. he treats of "the change produced by respiration in the inspired air," and gives a well digested chronological view of the discoveries and opinions of the mechanical and chemical philosophers on this subject. Of this long and valuable collection of information it is impossible to give any

analysis within the limits assigned us. The author recapitulates the conclusions which may be deduced from the experiments which he has related. They are the following: 1. Atmospheric air, once respired, loses nearly .4 of its oxygen. 2. Carbonic acid is generated, the volume of which is less than that of the oxygen absorbed, nearly in proportion of 37 to 45. 3. The whole volume of the air respired is diminished by about one-eightieth of its bulk. 4. A great quantity of aqueous vapour, the amount of which is still undetermined, is emitted from the lungs. 5. It is probable that a small portion of azote is absorbed, upon an average about 1-160th of the air inspired. 6.—It appears that a greater quantity of oxygen is consumed, than is necessary for the formation of the carbonic acid which is produced.

In chapter iii. the author inquires into "the change produced upon the blood by respiration;" and, after noticing the various opinions of the mechanical physiologists, and recounting the experiments of Priestley, Lavoisier, &c. by which this intricate subject was gradually developed, he adopts the theory of La Grange and Hassenfratz, as it was modified by Mr. Allen of Edinburgh.

"According to this hypothesis, the blood in its passage through the capillaries of the lungs, absorbs oxygene, which is loosely united to the whole mass of fluid; by this union its colour is changed from a deep purple to a bright scarlet. The oxidated blood is then carried along the arteries; in the course of the circulation the oxygene leaves the whole mass of blood, and forms an intimate union with a part of the hydrogen and carbone contained in it: by this operation, it loses its bright colour, and assumes the venous appearance. This portion of hydrogen and carbone, reduced to the state of an oxide, is then carried along the veins, until it arrives at the lungs, where, after being united with an additional quantity of oxygene, it is discharged from the blood, and forms the carbonic acid and the aqueous vapour which are found to exist in the air of expiration." Page 116. "According to this hypothesis," the author adds, "venous and arterial blood differ only in the arrangement of their component parts: in the latter case the oxygene is loosely combined with the whole mass,

whereas in the former, it is in close union with a portion of the hydrogen and carbone only."

He afterwards attempts to shew that the proofs of the discharge of hydrogen from the blood are not satisfactory, and maintains in opposition to the authority of Lavoisier, and the generality of physiologists, that carbone alone is emitted from the blood during respiration, the aqueous vapour arising merely from the mucous fluid, which is poured out by secretion upon the inner surface of the lungs. The lungs therefore, as well as the skin, assist in the cooling process, when the body is placed in high temperatures. We agree with the author in the opinion that this hypothesis will assist in the elucidation of some of the anomalous facts in animal heat, which, upon Dr. Crawford's principle, are not easily explained.

The concluding chapter contains an account of the respiration of the different gases; from which it appears, contrary to the observations of Dr. Beddoes, that the same quantity of oxygen is consumed in respiration in whatever portion it is inspired; and that we have no proof that the respiration of pure oxygen is injurious to the animal economy.

Nearly half of the volume is occupied by the notes, which contain much valuable information, together with a copious index, and a list of references to all the scattered sources from which the author has collected his materials. Upon the whole, this volume will be esteemed of considerable value, by all those who are unable to refer to the various works in which the experiments on this interesting part of physiology are detailed, and will save infinite labour to all who wish to study the subject, by placing before them in one view the multiplicity of scattered facts and observations which have been at various times published. There is a candour and simplicity in the narrative of opinions and experiments, and an obvious disregard for particular systems and theories, which induce us to rely implicitly on the statements of Dr. Bostock: and his inferences are never forced beyond those limits, to which well established facts appear to bear him out. We have every reason to believe him to be well prepared for the arduous investigation, which will form the subject of his future volume.

ART. XX. *Memoirs on Respiration*, by LAZARUS SPALLANZANI. 8vo.

THE merits of Spallanzani as a naturalist and physiologist have been long highly appreciated. He possessed a mind ardently bent on the investigation of nature, and he pursued the objects of his research with assiduity and perseverance. With the exception of Haller, there is perhaps no physiologist who has made more attempts to unravel the secret operations of the animal economy by the aid of direct experiment; and although he has in some instances been deficient in accuracy, and in others been strongly perverted by a favourite hypothesis, his works must always be regarded as valuable and interesting. For some years before his death he had projected a very extensive series of experiments on respiration, and he had advanced considerably in the execution of them when this event took place. Fortunately the different branches of the inquiry were kept distinct from each other, and he had so far completed some of the divisions of his subject, that at the time of his decease, four memoirs were in a state fitted to be presented to the public. One of these has, however, from some cause, not yet made its appearance; the other three form the basis of the work now under consideration. Mr. Senebier of Geneva, who was the intimate friend and correspondent of our author, had promised him to translate his work into the French language upon its publication, and when this condition was rendered impossible, he obtained the MS. from Spallanzani's relatives, and now appears before the public both as the translator and the editor. He has prefixed a sketch of the life and writings of his friend, and a letter which he had received from Spallanzani some time before his death, on the subject of the following memoirs; this letter has already appeared in the 57th volume of the *Journal de Physique*.

We are informed that

"Spallanzani was born, the 10th of Jan. 1729, at Scandiano, in the department of Cioctolo, to the north-east of the Appennines, about seven miles from Reggio, and fourteen from Modena. He was the son of John Nicholas Spallanzani, a celebrated advocate, and Lucia Zugliani, a native of Calorni, in the duchy of Parma."

He commenced his education in his native country: at the age of fifteen

he went to pursue his studies at Reggio, and afterwards at Bologna:

"In the university of which city his cousin Laura Bassa, a woman justly celebrated throughout Italy for her genius, her eloquence, and her knowledge of physical and mathematical science, was one of the most illustrious professors. Under the direction of this enlightened guide, he learned to prefer the study of nature to that of her commentators, and to estimate their value by comparing them with the originals they professed to describe: the scholar at once perceived the wisdom of these counsels, and quickly experienced their happy effects. He evinced his gratitude to his instructress, in a Latin dissertation, published in 1763, which was dedicated to Laura Bassa; and in which he recounted the applauses she received at Modena, when entering the hall, where her pupil, on being appointed a professor, defended a thesis, *De lapidibus ab aqua resiliantibus*, she opposed it with the graces of an amiable woman, and the wisdom of a profound philosopher."

Spallanzani, however, did not confine himself to the study of physical science, he paid considerable attention to the classics, and to belles lettres: we are told that he was particularly attached to the Greek and French languages, and that "Homer, Demosthenes and St. Basil were his favourite authors." His father had devoted him to the profession of jurisprudence, and the young Spallanzani had so far sacrificed his inclination to his duty, as to be on the point of being elected doctor of laws, when Vallisneri, professor of natural history at Padua, undertook to obtain from his father that he might be permitted to study the branch of science, to which he had already shewn so powerful an attachment.

In 1754 he was appointed professor of logic, mathematics, and Greek, in the university of Reggio, in which situation he remained for six years. During this period he first gave the world a specimen of his talents as an accurate observer in his remarks upon the animalcula infusoria, by which he attracted the notice of Haller and Bonnet, and so far extended his character for science, that about the year 1760 he received invitations from the universities of Modena, Coimbra, Parma, and Cesena. He, however, determined to take up his residence at Mo-

dena, "induced," as his biographer informs us,

"—by his patriotism, and his attachment to his family, to dedicate his talents to the immediate service of his own country. Similar motives operated on him some years afterwards to reject proposals made to him by the academy of Petersburg, and he remained at Modena until 1768."

We learn, however, that during this period he was not strictly confined to the pursuit of natural knowledge. In 1761 he published some strictures upon an Italian translation of Homer, and in order to substantiate his charges against the translator, he was led into a discussion which proved his intimate acquaintance with this department of literature.

A person so devoted to the observation of natural objects must necessarily derive particular gratification from viewing them in different situations: we are informed that in 1762 our author made an excursion to the Appennines, when he had the satisfaction of witnessing a confirmation of an opinion which he had adopted respecting the origin of fountains.

In 1765 Spallanzani published his first essay on the subject of generation; it consisted of remarks upon the systems of Needham and Buffon, and an account of his own experiments, by which he attempted to prove the animality of microscopical animalcules. In the same year he published the dissertation "*De lapidibus ab aqua resilientibus.*"

In 1768 he continued his scientific career by the publication of the outline of a work on animal reproduction. This piece attracted a great share of notice in consequence of the relation of some curious experiments on the power which several animals possess of renewing the most important parts of their body after they have been amputated. Similar facts had indeed been previously noticed by other naturalists, but Spallanzani performed the experiments on a greater variety of animals, and more completely established these singular facts. In this treatise he farther develops his peculiar theory of generation, and endeavours to establish it by shewing that the females of the different species of toads and frogs contained the young tadpoles completely formed, independent of any communication with the male. About the same time his valuable treatise on the circula-

tion of the blood appeared. It contains a number of experiments which he performed on the chick in ovo, by which he was

"—enabled to observe many facts which had escaped the most celebrated physiologists, and even Haller himself: he likewise confirmed the observation of the latter, that the heart does not entirely empty itself during the systole. He observed, afterwards, that the momentum of the blood depends entirely on the action of the heart: he remarked the causes which retard the circulation; such as the obstacles produced by the gravity of the blood, the changes occasioned in the motion of this fluid by wounds, or ruptures of the vessels; and he proves that there exists a real dilatation in the arteries resulting from the impulse of the blood, which, being retarded by the cavities of the heart, strike laterally against their sides."

About this period Spallanzani received from the empress Maria Theresa the flattering distinction of being appointed lecturer in natural history in the university of Pavia. He appears to have been very successful in his new employment, and to have considerably added to his former celebrity. He employed as a text book Bonnet's contemplations of nature, which he translated into Italian, and enriched with a preface and notes. The personal friendship which subsisted between Bonnet and Spallanzani appears to have had considerable influence on some of his speculative opinions: probably it is to this circumstance that we are to attribute his zealous defence of the system of *pre-existent germs* which appeared in his "*Opusculi*," published in 1776.

The year 1783 produced what must probably be regarded as the most interesting of our author's performances, his experiments on digestion. They were conducted with much perseverance and very considerable ingenuity, and certainly may be regarded as making a very important advance in the progress of physiological knowledge. In a second volume of dissertations he again recurs to the subject of generation; he relates a variety of experiments which he performed in order to prove that tadpoles exist previous to fecundation, and that they are developed by the contact of an almost inconceivably small quantity of male semen. A considerable share of his attention about this period was occupied in collecting specimens for the cabinet of natural history in the university of Pavia, of which he had been appointed superintendent.

In 1785 he visited Constantinople under the auspices of the archduke, and, as was usually his custom, in the course of the voyage he made a number of curious and interesting observations on the different objects connected with his favourite science. He remained at Constantinople for ten months, and returned to Pavia by Vienna, where he received the most flattering marks of distinction from the emperor and his court.

His attention having been about this time directed to the volcanic productions, he undertook in the summer of 1788 a journey to Naples, and was fortunate enough to be himself an eye witness of a grand eruption of Vesuvius, which occurred while he was in the neighbourhood. He afterwards passed into Sicily, examined Mount Etna, and traversed the Straights of Messina and the neighbouring districts. The observations which he collected during this journey formed the basis of his next publication, "*Travels into the two Sicilies.*" Spallanzani was an early and zealous convert to the pneumatic chemistry, and he contributed to its establishment by the publication of some experiments which he made on the combustion of phosphorus, in opposition to an opinion started by Gotting, that this substance became luminous in pure azote.

It was about this period that he turned his attention to the subject of respiration, and commenced the train of experiments which form the subject of the present memoirs. He was continuing to prosecute his inquiries on this subject, when, on the 3d Feb. 1799, he

" — experienced symptoms of ischuria, with which he had formerly been attacked. He passed a very restless night, and in the morning lost the use of his senses, which he never recovered but at very short intervals. His intimate friends, professor Tourdes, a French physician, and the celebrated Scarpa, did every thing that genius or knowledge could devise to save the life of their friend; but he died in a few days, notwithstanding all their efforts."

Upon a review of the varied labours of Spallanzani, we cannot hesitate to rank him among those who have made important additions to our knowledge of nature. His researches embrace some of the most intricate and difficult subjects of experimental investigation, and upon all of them he has exhibited great industry and considerable ingenuity. Without adopting the style of high pa-

negyric in which his merits are appreciated by Senebier, we may pronounce him deserving of a place among the most distinguished naturalists of the eighteenth century.

The letter from Spallanzani to Senebier, to which we have already referred, is principally occupied by a general account of the results of the experiments, which are afterwards detailed with more minuteness in the subsequent memoirs. He begins by stating the effects which are produced by dead animals, upon a given portion of air in which they are confined; but he has fallen into the important error of supposing that the same effect would be produced by their bodies during life. These effects, which it is obvious must be referred to the commencement of putrefaction, and which are entirely independent of those produced by the lungs, are through the whole work confounded with the operations of respiration. Some of the observations on putrefaction, though certainly not connected with the subject of the present inquiry, are in themselves curious, but those which are detailed in the letter are stated in too general a manner to permit any certain conclusions to be deduced from them. He, for instance, informs us that when dead animals were placed in a medium entirely deprived of oxygenous gas, they emitted a greater quantity of carbonic acid than when shut up in atmospherical air. But, as the particulars of the experiments which afforded such unexpected results are not mentioned, we shall forbear to enter into any comment upon them. Proceeding upon the same erroneous supposition, that effects would be produced upon the air by the living body, similar to those produced upon it by the dead animal, he concludes that the skin acts more powerfully in absorbing oxygen from the atmosphere than the lungs themselves, a conclusion which is not merely applied to the less perfect animals, but which the author extends to the higher orders of the mammalia and birds.

" My intention was to shew you that living animals consume or absorb oxygen as wholly independent of the lungs, and that they retain this power after death. You have seen this evinced in cold-blooded animals, such as worms, insects, fishes, and the amphibia, as well as in those with warm blood, birds and mammalia.

" In the course of my experiments on the

manthia, I discovered that different parts of their bodies, as the muscles, tendons, bones, brain, fat, and blood, possessed the power of absorbing oxygen gas in different proportions; the bile alone formed an exception to this rule; but the blood, which I had supposed might evince a greater susceptibility than the other parts of attracting oxygen, from what had been written on its power of decomposing the air, did not appear to possess this property in any supereminent degree. Both the venous and arterial blood in cold and warm-blooded animals afforded similar results."

Nothing can be more obvious than the impropriety of confounding these effects with those produced by the blood of the living animal upon the adjacent air. In the one case, they evidently result from the decomposition of the fabric of which the body is composed; in the other, they depend upon the operation of a function, the immediate object of which is to prevent the decomposition from taking place.

The Memoirs are preceded by an introduction, in which the author details at some length the motives that induced him to adopt the plan which he pursued, and the particular points that he proposed to examine. He remarks that philosophers still

"— differ in opinion respecting several circumstances connected with this important function, although they had carefully attended to it in man, as well as in a few other animals. Their labours certainly merit the greatest attention; yet I will venture to affirm that such discordant opinions might have been easily reconciled, had they extended their researches to a greater number of the different classes of animals, and especially to those which form the last link in the chain of animated beings. I am even of opinion that it is with these, as being more simple in their nature, they ought to have begun their experiments, and proceeded as it were step by step, from genus to genus, and from class to class, until they arrived at those animals possessing a more complicated structure, in order, ultimately, to succeed in attaining a perfect knowledge of the mechanism of respiration in man.

"It must be admitted as a maxim by all thinking men, that it is proper in their investigations to begin with the study of the most simple objects, in order to attain an accurate knowledge of those which are the most complicated and obscure. Thus, on the subject of respiration, it may readily be perceived that new, valuable, and diversified knowledge may be obtained, by extending our views towards different genera of animals, even when the organization of their respiratory organs is not extremely dissimilar."

The idea of beginning with the lowest class of animals, and gradually proceeding to those whose structure is more complicated, at first view seems plausible, and must necessarily present a wide and curious field for investigation; yet we conceive, that even with respect to the chemical effects, observations made upon animals of such different habits and organization can scarcely be applicable to each other; and as to the mechanism of respiration, there are few, if any, circumstances in which they will be found to agree.

A general view is then given of the structure of the respiratory organs in the different orders of animals, from the worm, in which they are scarcely discernible, to the class of birds and quadrupeds, in which they are in their most perfect state. The air of the atmosphere is received into the cavity of the lungs, and is, after a short time, expelled. Its composition is then found to be changed, the oxygen gas is diminished, and a considerable quantity of carbonic acid is found to be produced. The cause of these changes naturally comes to be inquired into, and our author presents us with an outline of what he considers as the generally received doctrine upon this subject.

With respect to the immediate objects of his own experiments, he proposes in the first place to compare the different classes of animals, with respect to the mechanism of respiration, and to "inquire whether it operates in the same manner in all living beings, or whether it varies with the varieties of these different beings." In the second place, he proposes to examine the phenomena which attend the respiration of the hibernating animals.

It is well known that there are a number of animals in which the most minute examination has not yet been able to detect the smallest vestige of respiratory organs; hence a curious question occurs, whether these animals affect the air in a similar manner to those which have lungs. Our author attempted to resolve it by a variety of experiments, and he concluded from them, that they are "subject to the same laws, and that the organ of the skin performs to a certain degree the functions of the lungs."

The subject which next occupied his attention, was the much agitated question, whether the decomposition of oxygenous gas in the animals which respire,

is exclusively performed by means of the lungs, or whether it is not assisted by the action of the surface of the body. He performed his experiments upon a class of insects which are not furnished with stigmata, upon fishes, and upon serpents, by contriving that the part of the body through which they respire, should be kept out of the vessel which contained the remainder of the body, and the result was, that the air became deoxydated, although in a less degree than when the organs of respiration were permitted to act in the same vessel. Oviparous quadrupeds, it is known, have the power of sustaining life for some time after the lungs are removed from the body. He took advantage of this circumstance, to compare the effect produced by the action of the lungs with that of the remaining parts of the body, and he found, as he informs us, with astonishment, that

"The consumption of oxygen gas by the lungs is extremely small in comparison with that which is absorbed by the external surface of their bodies."

We are farther told, that

"This absorption of oxygen gas, by the external surface of the body of these animals, is so necessary to those which have been deprived of their lungs, that they perish much sooner when placed in any mephitic gas than in the common air. In like manner, they live a shorter time in atmospheric air than in pure oxygen gas, as I have frequently observed in those insects in which the action of the lungs had been interrupted, as well as in those species of fishes which can live some time in the air after the function of respiration has been suspended."

We shall offer our remarks upon the different subjects of inquiry stated in the introduction, as we proceed in our review of the experiments to which they gave birth; and we shall now therefore proceed to the examination of the memoirs themselves.

The first memoir is on "the respiration of the terrestrial testacea, and snails without shells;" and it commences with an examination of the *helix nemoralis*, or common garden snail. M. Vauquelin had already proved that snails produce the same change in the air in which they are confined, as is effected by the respiration of the larger animals, and Spallanzani took advantage of the severe frost which occurred in the spring of 1795, to ascertain what alteration is pro-

duced in the respiration and circulation of these animals during their state of torpor.

An important point to be ascertained was, whether this animal had any appropriate respiratory organs: our author determines the point in the affirmative. On one side of the aperture of the shell is a small hole, which may be observed to contract and dilate alternately. It had been previously noticed by Swammerdam, and this naturalist supposed that it served as a passage for the air, but did not establish his conjecture. Spallanzani says that

"Wishing still more accurately to ascertain the termination of this aperture, I carefully removed the first volution of the shell; by which means, without in the smallest degree injuring the animal, I obtained a complete knowledge of the mechanism of that organ."

"After this operation, it is easy to perceive that this hole leads to a membranous bladder situated in the back of the snail, which appears to supply the place of lungs, since it not only becomes inflated by the air it receives through the hole, but since that air, after being retained some time, is again expelled by the animal, as may be observed from the slight noise that accompanies its expulsion, as well as from the effect produced by it on the flame of a small candle exposed to the opening."

"Notwithstanding the breaking of the shell, the animal continued to inspire and expire the air as usual: at each inspiration the lungs were inflated for some time, but became collapsed and wrinkled on the succeeding expirations; in snails, however, the inspirations and expirations do not succeed so rapidly as in warm-blooded animals."

The heart of the animal is so situated as to be continually surrounded by the air contained in the lungs. As a proof of the necessity of respiration, it was observed, that the animals perished at the end of a few days, when placed in the vacuum of the air-pump, or under water.

Both the weight and bulk of these snails were found to be considerably increased by keeping them for some time in water, and it appears that a certain quantity of it is necessary to their existence. Hence we see the reason why these animals are generally found in moist places, why they are seen principally in humid states of the atmosphere, and in general seem to shun the direct rays of the sun.

The eudiometer which was employed

by our author in his experiments, was that in which the combustion of phosphorus serves to indicate the quantity of oxygen in the residual air; the carbonic acid he removed by lime water, and the process was conducted over mercury. Vauquelin had imagined that snails possess the power of abstracting very accurately the whole of the oxygen from a given portion of air in which they are confined, but Spallanzani found that a minute quantity of oxygen was still remaining, and that this was the case, whether he operated upon one snail only, or upon a greater number of them in the same vessel. Crawford, Lavoisier, and others, who had made experiments on man and on the warm-blooded quadrupeds, had observed that the consumption of oxygen is more rapid in proportion to the decrease of temperature; but Spallanzani found the reverse to take place in the respiration of snails, at least within certain limits, owing, as it appears, to the tendency to torpor in these animals, which is produced by the diminution of the external heat.

This gradual diminution in the effects produced by respiration as the temperature declined, naturally led Spallanzani to inquire at what degree these effects altogether cease. It appeared to correspond pretty nearly with the freezing point of water; at this degree of cold the animal seemed to become completely torpid, and to produce no farther change upon the surrounding air. The pulsations of the heart were also observed to become less frequent as the temperature was lowered, and a little below the freezing point they altogether ceased.

Another interesting question which Spallanzani proceeded to resolve, was, whether these animals absorbed azote by their respiration. This point is still undecided, in some degree, even with respect to the more perfect animals. Lavoisier, and the most accurate among the French chemists, suppose that the azote remains unchanged; while Dr. Priestley, and still more lately, Mr. Davy, conceive that a small portion of it is absorbed. The result of Spallanzani's experiments, which appear to have been conducted with the requisite degree of accuracy, is that in the respiration of snails, a quantity of azote is absorbed, amounting, upon an average, to about one-fourth of the oxygen consumed. Spallanzani found, as

might naturally be expected, that when snails were confined in pure oxygenous gas, the consumption of oxygen and the production of carbonic acid were more considerable than when they were kept in common air.

Our author is next led to examine the effect which dead snails produce upon the air, but by an unaccountable oversight, he applies the observations which he makes on this subject to explain the phenomena of the living animal. He himself mentions in different places, that the putrefactive process had actually commenced, and in some instances, the experiments were continued until the bodies of the animals had, in a great degree, lost their form and organization; yet he appears never to have suspected that the effects which he was observing were the consequence of this putrefaction. He repeatedly expresses his surprise at the phenomena, and congratulates himself upon the importance of his discoveries, which he supposes would open a path to many hitherto concealed truths. The results of the experiments were, that a quantity of oxygen had disappeared, and that carbonic acid, and a little azotic gas, had been produced. The effect of the putrefaction of animal substances in destroying a part of the oxygen of the atmosphere, and substituting in its place a quantity of carbonic acid, was among the earliest of Dr. Priestley's discoveries, and has since been repeatedly noticed by other philosophers. The production of azote, though suspected, has not been so distinctly ascertained, and notwithstanding we are fully disposed to admit the general accuracy of Spallanzani's statements, we cannot give our complete assent to it, until we are more precisely acquainted with the nature of his processes. We are confirmed in our doubts, by finding in these experiments no mention of the production of ammonia or of hydrogenous gas, circumstances which have been observed to take place by those philosophers who have attended to the phenomena of putrefaction with peculiar accuracy.

Spallanzani, in reflecting on what he calls the neglected phenomena of the absorption of oxygen by dead snails, conceived an idea, which he confesses appeared at first extravagant, viz. that the shells of these animals might perhaps produce some change in the air. Regarding these bodies as composed of

a considerable quantity of animal matter united with their calcareous part, we can readily suppose that they must be subject to the putrefactive fermentation, and must of course affect the air in the same manner with other putrefying bodies; accordingly we find that there was a consumption of oxygen, and a production of carbonic acid gas. The only conclusion, therefore, which can be drawn from these experiments on shells is, that their animal part exists in that proportion and state of composition, as to permit it to undergo the same process of putrefaction, which is experienced by other animal substances.

The second chapter contains observations and experiments on the *helix lusitanica* and *itala*, and on the *limax agrestis*, *ater*, *albus*, *flavus*, and *maximus*. The external form and habits of the *helix lusitanica*, in many respects, resemble those of the *helix nemoralis*; they appear however to be more susceptible of cold, and they remain a longer time concealed under the surface of the ground during winter. As soon as they have buried themselves, they completely exclude the external air by closing the aperture of the shell, with a membranous calcareous opercle, formed from the viscous humour which exudes from their bodies. This opercle generally remains closed for nearly six months, and Spallanzani found by experiment that the small portion of air which was contained in the shell, had not undergone the least alteration in its composition; hence we may conclude that they remained during this period in a state of complete torpor. As soon, however, as the covering begins to grow in the least degree soft or slimy, the effect of respiration upon the air becomes sensible, and a part of its oxygen is found to be absorbed.

Our author deemed it necessary to repeat with the *helix lusitanica*, the experiments which he had formerly made upon the *helix nemoralis*, respecting their effect on the air after death, and of course met with the same results, the absorption of oxygen, and the formation of carbonic acid. He enters into some speculations on the question whether the carbonic acid is produced by the union of the carbon in the body of the snail, with the oxygen in the surrounding air; or whether the carbonic acid is not emitted ready formed from the animal, at the same time that a quan-

tity of oxygen is absorbed. He concludes the latter to be the case, and endeavours to strengthen his opinion by the authority of Lavoisier, who conceived that carbonic acid is disengaged in the process of digestion, which is afterwards thrown out of the system. Without entering into the merits of the hypothesis of this celebrated philosopher, we shall merely remark, that an effect in which a vital function is concerned, must be totally inapplicable to the present question.

The effects which were observed to be produced on the air by the shells of snails, induced our author to attempt similar experiments with the eggs of birds, and he found, in like manner, that oxygen was absorbed, and carbonic acid disengaged. These changes took place not only when the entire egg was placed in a given quantity of air, but when pieces of the shell, cleared as much as possible from the adhering membrane, were submitted to experiment. These effects must obviously, as in the former instance, be ascribed to the putrefaction of the animal matter contained in them.

The memoir is concluded with some observations on the different kinds of naked snails or slugs.

The author fully established the necessity of oxygen to the life of the slugs, and even found that they perished sooner when excluded from it than snails.

As it had been so completely demonstrated, that the different animals examined in these experiments, affected the air in a similar manner to the warm-blooded quadrupeds, it seemed natural to expect that there should be, in like manner, an evolution of caloric, though much less in degree according to the smaller quantity of oxygen decomposed. By enclosing several animals in the same vessel, Spallanzani observed this evolution of caloric actually to take place, so that the analogy between the respiration of these animals, and of those of a more perfect organization, appeared to be completely established.

The second memoir is "on the respiration of the aquatic testacea." We have given so ample an account of the preceding parts of this work, that we must of necessity pass much more rapidly over the two remaining memoirs. This we the less regret, as, although they contain many curious observations, they are

upon the whole considerably less interesting than the first. The first subject of experiment was the *helix vivipara*. The respiratory organ of this animal he was unable satisfactorily to ascertain, but he distinctly observed the absorption of part of the oxygen from the air in contact with the surface of the water in which they were confined, and he found that this change went on more rapidly when part of their bodies was out of the water.

The second chapter treats of two species of the *mytilus*, the *anatinus* and the *ygneus*. The gills of these animals are sufficiently apparent, and by placing them in a situation proper for making the observation, Spallanzani distinctly perceived the alternate absorption and emission of a quantity of the water, from which there is no doubt that the animals extracted the supply of oxygen necessary for their existence. The air which had remained in contact with the surface of the water, was found to be very perceptibly deoxygenated, and, when azotic gas was confined over the water, the muscles died.

The third memoir contains "reflections and additional experiments on the crustacea already examined, and on some other animals of different orders." The author commences by some remarks on the comparative effects produced by the respiration of the warm and the cold blooded animals. Oxygen seems as necessary for the life of the latter as of the former; but the quantity which they consume is much less considerable, and they are able to remain deprived of it for a far greater length of time without injury. They are also much less speedily affected by carbonic acid, or other noxious gas, though after some time it proves equally fatal. It seems to be from this cause, that the cold-blooded animals are able to absorb so nearly all the oxygen from a given portion of air, while other animals perish when a large part of it is still remaining. The exact coincidence between the absorption of oxygen and the motion of the heart has been already mentioned, and we are irresistibly led to conclude that oxygen is, in some way or other, essentially necessary to the support of the action of this organ. Our author is led to speculate upon the cause of the torpidity which seizes particular classes of animals at certain periods of the year, but we do not perceive that he

throws much light upon this singular phenomenon.

As it appeared that the action of the heart was entirely suspended during this period in the cold-blooded animals, Spallanzani was led to inquire how far this is the case with the warm-blooded quadrupeds, who also pass a part of the year in a state of torpor. For this purpose he selected the marmot, and, during the time of a severe frost, subjected it to the following experiments.

"I confined one of them, in the first instance, in common air under a glass bell, plunged into the mercury of the pneumatochemical apparatus, which was exposed for several hours, near an open window, in the night-time, to a temperature of -12° . It is universally known, that if a cat or dog be confined in a recipient filled with common air, they attempt to escape; then respiration becomes painful, and soon ceases altogether. The marmot, on the contrary, remained as motionless as a stone. I left it three hours and a half in this situation, and during that time the mercury had not changed its level. Before I removed the mercury, I took a portion of the air in the recipient, and subjected it to a chemical analysis. I found that it had not undergone the least alteration; and that it was, in every respect, similar to the air of the chamber in which the experiment had been made."

Spallanzani found that while the animal continued in this state, it was not affected by being plunged into carbonic acid gas; but that when the temperature was raised only to zero, and when the animal exhibited only the faintest signs of animation, the operation of the carbonic acid proved fatal. It appears, therefore, that in this respect all hibernating animals agree; during the time of their torpor they do not produce the least change in the air, and their circulation seems to be completely suspended.

Our author recurs to his experiments on the absorption of oxygen by dead animals, and, as in the former instances, supposes that the effect produced in the air after the cessation of respiration, proves that during life the absorption of oxygen is carried on by other parts of the body as well as by the lungs. We shall not, however, follow him in his details. We are for several reasons disposed to question the accuracy of his experiments, and we have no hesitation in pronouncing them totally inapplica-

ble to the subject now under consideration.

From the very extended view which we have taken of this work, our readers will doubtless agree with us in allowing it the merit of considerable originality and interest. The experiments which it contains are judiciously contrived, and they appear to have been executed with persevering industry. We are, however, obliged to confess that they appear to betray some symptoms of inaccuracy; and though we would not be suspected to call in question the veracity of the author, we think that on some occasions he has been too easily led to form conclusions, which his experiments cannot justify. He appears much disposed to impress the reader with an idea of the number of his experiments, forgetting that the state to which modern chemistry is now arrived, causes more real value to be attached to one well contrived and carefully conducted experiment, than to any quantity of such as are carried on in a vague and cursory manner. We cannot bestow much commendation on the physiological reasonings which are occa-

sionally introduced. The author appears to have been but imperfectly acquainted with some of the latest experiments that have been performed in France and in this country; and the singular inadvertency into which he has fallen, is not distinguishing between the effects of putrefaction, and those produced by the operation of the vital functions, pervades a large portion of the theoretical part of the work.

With respect to the translation, we shall only remark that it appears in general to be carefully executed. We observe indeed a few gallicisms, as for instance, in the very first sentence of the preface; there are also a few passages in which we suspect some inaccuracy, either in the translator or the printer: we refer particularly to those in which the thermometrical observations are detailed. On this subject we may remark, that we think it the indispensable duty of every translator of a scientific work to reduce the weights, measures, and degrees of the thermometer to the standard usually employed in Great Britain.

ART. XXI. *The Invalid.* By a NONAGENARIAN. 12mo.

THE object of this treatise will be best explained by the author himself.

"I do not pretend to have made any new discovery, or to present to my readers any thing but what is almost universally known and acknowledged; but only to inculcate and enforce the practice of those rules of temperance and exercise, from the experience and example of one who, from a partial and imperfect attention to them, with naturally a very slender frame of body, is arrived on the verge of ninety years of age."

This work is introduced by an account of a visit which the author paid to an old friend, whose health had materially suffered from his having fallen into a habit of indolence and self-indulgence, fostered by an over-anxious attention to every circumstance relating to his own situation. In the first essay, which is entitled "on health," he relates his own history, so far as respects the subject under consideration; whether it be true or fictitious, it certainly presents a useful lesson of instruction. He was naturally of a delicate constitution, and was still further weakened by too great indulgence in the early part of life; about

the age of twenty-five he had a violent fever, and during the recovery from it was led to reflect upon the best method of recruiting his health.

"Dr. Cheyne's book 'on health and long life,' being then in great vogue in the university, I eagerly embraced his doctrine, which was to cure all diseases, if not make us immortal.

"But, alas! by living on pudding and apple-pye, and by drinking basons of green tea at the coffee-house, thence adjourning to the tavern and pouring down port wine almost an empty stomach, I effected, 'murdered sleep'; and, unless when I was persuaded to eat a slice of ham or a wing of cold fowl, I never had a good night's rest; half a year together; and of course my health grew daily worse and worse.

"At length, however, having met with the life of Cornaro, and observing that he laid the greatest stress on the quantity of food necessary for health, and that six ounces of solid food was sufficient for one day, I immediately resolved for the future to diminish the quantity of what I eat; and accordingly, on weighing two slices from a leg of mutton with garden stuff, &c. I found that according to which proportion I kept it

• A slight breakfast and supper in this northern climate may be added.

some time, and by regular exercise and care I soon recovered a tolerable share of health; without confining myself to a vegetable diet.

"If I inadvertently deviated for any time from my regimen, I was soon reminded of my error by some acute complaint; by head aches, a slight sore throat, or what is called *catching cold*; which, however, a day or two's abstinence seldom failed to remove; and by these means, through many 'hair-breadth 'scapes,' from falls and other accidents, and amidst various afflictions, by the peculiar blessing of Providence, I am arrived in the verge of ninety years of age."

An essay on empiricism next follows, and then one on temperance. He particularly dwells on the pernicious effects of excess in eating, a practice generally regarded with more indulgence than an immoderate use of intoxicating liquors; but one perhaps equally prejudicial to the constitution, and on this account a more necessary subject for animadversion. In the fourth essay, on the period of human life, he seems inclined to think, that by a proper regard to temperance,

the age of man might be protracted beyond its usual duration. "Yet," says he,

"I cannot accede to the opinion of Mr. G—n, that by any management man can make himself immortal; any more than he can ever discover a passage to the moon, as bishop Wilkins thinks he might; because after five thousand years those desirable objects have not yet been obtained."

We are next presented with a few short poems, which we think scarcely equal to the prose; and an appendix, containing a humorous letter from the housekeeper of a gentleman who had adopted the author's system of temperance, a selection from Dr. Cheyne's rules for health, and a few instances of longevity. The whole of this little volume is worth a perusal, and when we consider it as the production of a man arrived at the age of ninety years, we think it offers one of the best arguments in favour of the system of temperance which it is intended to enforce.

ART. XXII. *History of the Proceedings of the Committee appointed by the General Meeting of Apothecaries, Chemists, and Druggists in London, for the Purpose of obtaining Relief from the Hardships imposed on the Dealers in Medicine, by certain Clauses and Provisions contained in the new Medicine Act, passed June 3, 1802, together with a View of the Act, as it now stands, in its ameliorated State; to which are added the Substance of every Clause in the Acts of June 3, 1802, and July 5, 1803, and the Clauses of both these Acts, collated with each other, consolidated and explained; also a copious and carefully arranged Schedule. With explanatory Notes and Observations.* By WILLIAM CHAMBERLAINE, Surgeon, Chairman of the Committee. 8vo. pp. 53.

MR. Chamberlaine relates in this little pamphlet the proceedings of a committee of London apothecaries and druggists, who associated to apply to the legislature for a modification of some parts of the late medicine act, which

(as it appeared, unintentionally) was attended with some particular hardship and inconvenience. The application was successful, and great liberality was shewn by the persons in official situations to whom they applied.

ART. XXIII. *Surgical Observations, containing a Classification of Tumours, with Cases to illustrate the History of each Species; an Account of Diseases which strikingly resemble the Venereal Disease; and various Cases illustrative of different surgical Subjects.* By JOHN ABERNETHY, F. R. S. 8vo. pp. 263.

SURGERY, like medicine, can only be improved by being studied as a branch of natural philosophy. If this noble art should ever advance to greater perfection, it can only be by observing and comparing various and undescribed cases, in order to discover the causes from which they arise, and to point out the means by which they may be removed. The result of experience must in its point of view always be exceedingly useful, and the world are much indebted to all those who avail themselves of such

opportunities as public institutions afford, not merely to acquire the applause of the multitude, but to extend and advance the profession to which they belong. These "surgical observations" are entitled to great commendation; they display great modesty and good sense, and exhibit a variety of new and original information, equally deserving the attention of all medical readers. The author however seems to have bestowed less labour on the style of his book, than the subjects merit: the language in

which he delivers his sentiments, is often disfigured with vague expressions and obscure phraseology. • Such carelessness cannot be passed over without notice, nor without regret;—for when we see such boldness displayed in the path of observation, it is unpleasant to find the author inattentive in the no less important part description.

The first part of this volume is occupied with an account of tumours, a very important, and hitherto much neglected, class of diseases. Mr. Abernethy has made an attempt, as he calls it, to form a classification of tumours according to their anatomical structure. Something more than the mere structure of the parts should have been considered in making this arrangement:—the attempt however is laudable, and the difficulty of the task may be deemed a sufficient excuse for some defects in the execution. In treating this subject, the author has depended on his own exertions; he has examined himself, and received little or no assistance from the writings of others. To explain the origin of tumours, he refers to an accidental remark made by that distinguished surgeon and anatomist, Mr. Hunter, and concludes that in the first instance a tumour originates from coagulable lymph, which is thrown out, and rendered vascular by the growth of vessels into it, and that its future structure is the consequence of their arrangement and action. This theory has some facts to support it, but it does not appear sufficiently well founded, to account for the origin of all sorts of tumours in different parts of the body.

The word tumour is used by Mr. Abernethy in a new sense; he restricts its meaning to such swellings as arise from some new production, though he allows some enlargements of glands to be included in the definition. Sarcoma is employed as the generic term, and tumours are divided into nine different species; the characters of each are particularly described, and cases are given to illustrate the general description. The 1st species is called, common vascular or organized sarcoma. 2. Adipose sarcoma. 3. Pancreatic sarcoma. 4. Cystic sarcoma. 5. Mastoid or mammary sarcoma. 6. Tuberculated sarcoma. 7. Medullary sarcoma. 8. Carcinomatous sarcoma. 9. Encysted tumours.—Many curious remarks will be found under each of these divisions. Before entering into this detail, the author has given a few

practical remarks on the local treatment of these swellings. Topical blood-letting, and the application of cold sedative lotions, are principally recommended. The good effect of the last mentioned of these remedies is ingeniously attributed to their diminishing vascular action, by removing the heat of the surface by evaporation. When the growth of a tumour is suspended by these means, another curative indication is supposed to arise, to promote the absorption of the new formed parts by stimulating remedies. The remarks however here offered, respecting the period of directing the application of these two opposite modes of practice, appear more refined than useful. How can we ascertain precisely, when one set of remedies should be discontinued, and the other be begun?—Some danger attends the indiscriminate use of stimulating applications,—as it is justly acknowledged, that if employed too early, or at an improper time, they will increase the morbid action, and aggravate the disease which they were intended to remove. The instance alluded to, as a fact universally admitted, viz. the aggravation of pleurisy by a blister before evacuations are directed, is rather unfortunate for the illustration of our author's remark: for strange as it may appear, in these days of heresy, some practitioners never employ any evacuations in this disease, but trust almost to blisters alone!

The early removal of encysted and sarcomatous tumours is strongly recommended, and some cases are related to show the fatal consequences of allowing such swellings to ulcerate and burst spontaneously. On cancer, which is denominated carcinomatous sarcoma, our author treats at some length. No notice is taken of the different books published on this subject, nor are any of the remedies in any manner hinted at, which have been proposed for the cure of this formidable malady. The success ascribed to these chirurgico-quack methods of treating these diseases, has probably been often exaggerated, often false. A tumour in the breast, very different from cancer, may have been treated and cured as such: yet a comparison of the histories of some of the numerous cases on record, and a brief notice of the most celebrated practical observations, would have rendered this part of Mr. Abernethy's book more complete and more useful. The remarks on cancer are coa-

fined to its history, its anatomical structure, and to a comparison with other diseases which resemble it. Among many meriting particular attention, the following observations are selected:

"Carcinoma sometimes condenses the surrounding substance so as to acquire a capsule; and then it appears, like other sarcomatous tumours, to be a part of new formation: in other cases the mammary gland seems to be the nidus for this diseased action. The boundaries of the disease cannot be accurately ascertained in the latter case, as the carcinomatous structure, having no distinguishable investment, is confused with the rest of the gland. In either instance carcinoma begins in a small spot, and extends from thence in all directions, like rays from a centre. This observation will serve to distinguish it from many other diseases which, at their first attack, involve a considerable portion, if not the whole of the part, where they occur. The progress of carcinoma is more or less quick in different instances. When slow, it is in general unremitting; at least I am inclined to think that the disease, though it may be checked, cannot be made to recede by that medical treatment which lessens the bulk of other sarcomatous tumours. I state this opinion however with some hesitation, for I have been informed by surgeons, that diseases, the event of which proved them to be carcinomatous, have suffered a considerable reduction in size by that kind of local treatment mentioned in the preliminary observations. This circumstance affords, in my opinion, another criterion, by which it may in general be distinguished. This obdurate and destructive disease excites the contiguous parts, whatever their nature may be, to the same diseased action. The skin, the cellular substance of muscles, and the periosteum of bones all become affected, if they are in the vicinity of cancer. This very striking circumstance in the history of carcinoma distinguishes it from most of the diseases already described. In medullary sarcoma the disease is propagated along the absorbing system, but the parts immediately in contact with the enlarged glands do not assume the same diseased actions. Neither in the tuberculated species does the ulceration spread along the skin, but destroys that part only where it covers the diseased glands.

"It was observed by Mr. Hunter that a disposition to cancer exists in the surrounding parts, prior to the actual occurrence of the diseased action. This remark, which is verified by daily experience, led to the following rule in practice: 'That a surgeon ought not to be contented with removing merely the indurated or actually diseased part, but that he should also take away some portion of the surrounding substance, in which a diseased disposition may probably have been excited.' In consequence of this communication of disease to the contiguous parts, the skin soon

becomes indurated, and attached to a carcinomatous tumour, which, in like manner, is fixed to the muscles, or other part over which it was formed.

"As a carcinomatous tumour increases, it generally, though not constantly, becomes unequal upon its surface, so that this inequality has been considered as characteristic of the disease, and it is a circumstance which deserves much attention. A lancinating pain in the part frequently accompanies its growth; but in some cases this pain is wanting. It attends also on other tumours, the structure of which is unlike carcinoma; of which I have given an instance in speaking of pancreatic sarcoma. This pain cannot therefore be considered as an infallible criterion of the nature of the disease.

"The diseased skin covering a carcinomatous tumour generally ulcerates, before the tumour has attained any great magnitude; a large chasm is then produced in its substance by a partly sloughing, and partly ulcerating process. Sometimes, when cells contained in the tumour are by this means laid open, their contents (which are a pulpy matter of different degrees of consistence, and various colours) fall out, and an excoriating ichor distils from their sides. This discharge takes place with a celerity, which would almost induce a person ignorant of the facility with which secretion is performed, to believe that it cannot be produced by that process."

This classification, the author seems aware, is not complete; such as it is, it has assisted him in his inquiries, and he offers it for the assistance of others. Some well executed plates, and the history of the particular habits or temperaments in which the different kinds of tumours most frequently occur, would have added much to the value and utility of these observations, excellent as they are in many respects.

The next subject that occupies a considerable part of this volume, is an account of diseases resembling *syphilis*. Here again we find our author enrolling himself under the banners of Mr. Hunter. The existence of some disease resembling lues venerea, did not escape the acute penetration of that great man, and Mr. Abernethy has considerable merit in prosecuting so curious and important a part of surgical pathology. In this interesting inquiry, the author proceeds upon a question that is assumed—he takes it for granted, that the venereal disease is regular and progressive in producing constitutional symptoms, and that these never disappear unless mercury be employed; whereas those diseases resembling *syphilis* in many respects, are irre-

gular in their progress, and disappear spontaneously, or get well without the aid of medicine. If these premises be conceded, (and all our histories of the venereal disease seem to be in favour of them,) the conclusions seem legitimately deduced, and the author seems warranted to affirm, that symptoms which have the appearance of venereal, do arise in consequence of the contagion of some other morbid poison, and that these symptoms differ from syphilis in several important particulars. As the frequent occurrence of these disorders seems to prove that they are increasing of late, other practitioners must meet with them, and thus the arguments here brought forward will be subjected to the strict test of multiplied experience, by which they must ultimately stand or fall. The cases related by Mr. Abernethy are very striking, and suggest many curious reflections, respecting the modifications of syphilis, or the various changes which morbid poisons undergo in different constitutions and in different circumstances. The primary sores which are capable of producing secondary symptoms like those of syphilis, do not possess any uniform character; there seems to be no characteristic mark by which these pseudo-syphilitic diseases may be distinguished. The history and the progress of the complaint must direct in forming a diagnosis. The effect of mercury on these diseases is various.

"It sometimes cures them very suddenly and very differently from the gradual amendment which it produces in truly venereal diseases. Sometimes, however, these diseases yield more slowly to its operation, and are cured permanently. Sometimes the diseases recur in the same parts after a severe course of mercury; sometimes mercury merely checks the disease, and can scarcely be said to cure it; in which case it seems important to support the strength of the constitution, and to keep up that mercurial effect which controuls the disease, and can be borne without material derangement of the constitution for a great length of time. Sometimes also the use of mercury aggravates these diseases."

With regard to the practice to be followed in these puzzling and perplexing cases, Mr. Abernethy lays it down as a general rule of conduct, that surgeons are not to confide in their own powers of discrimination, but in all cases of ulcers arising from impure intercourse to give mercury sufficient to affect the constitution slightly, and to endeavour to remove quickly the local disease.

The remaining contents of this work are miscellaneous. They consist of some important observations on injuries of the head—on aneurism—on the operation of puncturing the urinary bladder—on *tic douloureux*—and lastly, on the removal of loose substances from the knee-joint. Various practical inferences may be drawn from several valuable cases here related. Various too are the reflections suggested to the mind by the perusal of them. A few only can with propriety be stated in this place, and those will be confined to the latter of the two cases detailed, in which the operation for aneurism was performed, and both the patients died. The death of the lady who submitted to the operation for femoral aneurism, is attributed to some peculiar irritability in her constitution, by which she was unusually affected by the operation, and to the disturbance of the parts surrounding the vessel, which necessarily took place during the performance of it. A farther explanation, which appears more plausible, is to say, this patient died from secondary hæmorrhage, and perhaps this hæmorrhage might in some measure be attributed to the manner the operation was performed in, as well as to some peculiarity in the state of the vessel itself. The aneurism was situated in the thigh, about three inches distant from the part where the *arteria profunda femoris* is given off. Might not the situation where the ligature was necessarily passed round the artery, prevent the coagulation of the blood in the divided extremity, and thus interrupt that series of actions which produce the complete union or obliteration of it? It sometimes happens, that ulceration takes place in an artery before the coats of the divided vessel are completely united. This unfortunate occurrence seems most likely to happen, when an artery is taken up near the branching off of a large vessel. A case of this kind is mentioned by Mr. Hunter, where the artery was included in a ligature within half an inch of the *profunda femoris*; no union took place, no complete coagulum was formed, hæmorrhage followed, and the patient died in consequence of it. Other cases of a similar nature might be mentioned. Perhaps it would be worth inquiring into the practical application of these unfortunate occurrences, and to consider the comparative advantages of tying the artery above or below the branching off of a large vessel, in

those instances where the aneurism is situated very near such a ramification.

The operation of puncturing the bladder from the rectum in cases of suppressed urine, has been sanctioned by the experience of Mr. Home and other eminent surgeons. But cases sometimes occur, in which this mode of operating is attended with great difficulty, if not altogether prevented. The chief of these are owing to enlargement of the prostate gland and false passages in the course of the urethra. In such instances, Mr. Abernethy has punctured the bladder above the pubis, and he recommends this practice as safe and salutary. No ill consequences followed making an opening into the distended bladder, by directing an incision about two inches in length through the integuments between the muscoli pyramidales abdominis, then distinguishing the bladder by the finger, and introducing a common trochar obliquely downwards. The elastic catheter was afterwards employed with the

best effects. Both these methods of operating in suppression of urine, it may be remarked, were practised and recommended many years ago by two very celebrated French surgeons, Pouteau and Petit, although the practice has only been lately common in this country.

Monsieur Petit, *Traité des Maladies chirurg.* tom. iii. speaks of puncturing the bladder above the os pubis, not only as being free from danger, but in terms of great approbation.

The case of *tic douloureux* is interesting on many accounts: and the practical observations on the best mode of removing loose substances from the knee joint deserve attention.

We have thus attempted to give a general view of the important contents of this volume. To have aimed at a more particular and correct analysis would have been unnecessary, because the whole work has so many just claims to a careful and attentive perusal.

ART. XXIV. *The Anatomy and Surgical Treatment of Inguinal and Congenital Hernia.*
By ASTLEY COOPER, F. R. S., Member of the Royal Medical and Physical Societies of Edinburgh; Lecturer on Anatomy and Surgery, and Surgeon to Guy's Hospital.

THE treatment of hernia is not one of those rare and curious parts of surgery which it falls to the lot of but few to undertake, or which can be generally referred, like lithotomy, to the surgeon of hospitals or of extensive practice. The complaint itself is one of the very commonest of all the palpable derangements of the human frame; for though the ease with which it is generally borne, and the situation of the parts, prevent its extreme frequency from being universally observed, the youngest and least experienced practitioner cannot fail to have frequent opportunities of seeing it, and the anatomist constantly meets with it in one state or other in casual subjects. It is true that a very small proportion of ruptured persons ever are reduced to the formidable necessity of submitting to surgical operation; but when that operation comes to be required, very prompt decision is often necessary; and, besides, it is no trifling part of the surgeon's office to ascertain the existence of the disease, to distinguish accurately the seat and the species, and to apply those palliative means by which the patient is enabled to go through the common business of life without trouble or risk.

The varieties of hernia are many and

important, and the diagnostic marks are often obscure and perplexed; hence a considerable minuteness is required to render the description of the disease really serviceable to the practitioner; and, as actual subjects or preparations cannot be multiplied, it becomes almost indispensable to give the assistance of engravings on a scale sufficiently large for distinctness and accuracy. Such a description was certainly wanting to the English student, when the author of the work before us undertook the present plan, which we may here mention is only begun; it remains to examine how far the execution corresponds with what will be expected from a lecturer of eminence, and a surgeon to one of the largest and best appointed hospitals of the metropolis.

In a short preface the author, after explaining his reasons for undertaking the work, professes to draw the whole materials from actual observation, or the communications of friends whose accuracy he can rely on. He says,

"I have almost uniformly, in the following work, avoided quoting the opinions of authors on this part of surgery. This I have done, certainly not from any wish to slight or undervalue the labours of some of the

most excellent physiologists and practitioners that have adorned our profession, but because it did not form a part of my plan to give a history of this branch of surgery, and because I wished to confine myself to the very wide scene of observation afforded by the two noble institutions of St. Thomas's and Guy's hospitals, and to that portion of the practice of this metropolis which I have been personally enabled to authenticate. I have therefore related no case, and given no remark, to the truth of which I cannot vouch; and for the same reason the subjects of all the plates annexed to this volume are from preparations, either in my own possession, or in the anatomical museum at St. Thomas's hospital, which may at all times be consulted."

The first chapter is taken up with a general description of hernia, and the different varieties of situation and circumstances. Those relating to the sac are of great practical importance, and some singular anomalies are pointed out.

The anatomy of the parts connected with inguinal hernia follows. It is drawn up with the clearness and precision of one long accustomed to accurate dissection, and with the illustration afforded by the plates it becomes very intelligible to the reader. Particular pains are taken with the complicated structure of the crural arch.

To this succeeds the description of inguinal hernia, and the marks by which it is distinguished from other swellings of the groin and scrotum. The diagnosis is often practically difficult, nor is it possible for words to impart that skill of *tact* which is the result of long experience. The distinction between hernia and varicocele is thus pointed out.

"But of all the diseases of the scrotum, which are ever mistaken for hernia, none is so much so as the varicocele or enlargement of the spermatic veins. Often have I known persons (even the children of medical men) to wear trusses for a supposed hernia, which they complained did not fit, gave them pain, and could not prevent the descent of the tumour, when it was found that the disease was this enlargement of the spermatic veins.

"Varicocele has indeed many of the marks of hernia. When large, it dilates upon coughing, but not otherwise; it appears in the erect position, and retires when the body is recumbent; and it is first observed near the ring. The only sure method of distinction with which I am acquainted is this: place the patient in the horizontal posture, and empty the swelling by pressure upon the scrotum, then putting the fingers firmly upon the upper part of the abdominal ring, desire the patient to rise: if it is a hernia the

tumour cannot re-appear as long as the pressure is continued at the ring; but if a varicocele, the swelling returns with increased size owing to the return of blood into the abdomen being prevented by the pressure.

"Some judgment may also be formed by the feel of the tumour, for that of varicocele is always ropy, as if a bundle of cords were contained within the scrotum."

The causes of hernia are stated to be, generally, those which diminish the resistance of the abdominal muscles, and those which increase the pressure of the viscera. A great variety of specific causes are enumerated, all of which operate, either by producing relaxation of the parietes of the abdomen, or a preternatural stress on its contents. We cannot however agree to the author's assertion that hernia is a more frequent disease in hot climates, without a much greater body of evidence than is here adduced. In Malta and Egypt it is stated to be very common, and often to be seen of an enormous size. But how little can be inferred from such vague assertion! It is true that travellers and navigators have found most formidable specimens of this disease in every part of the globe, but we are convinced that their opinion of the frequency of hernia has been much biassed by the state of the disease, and the enormous bulk to which it has been suffered to proceed. In this country the habit and opportunity of applying trusses and deriving benefit from surgical assistance are so universal, that thousands of ruptured persons walk the streets and pursue without inconvenience their usual occupations, so that a stranger only judging by appearance, might be led to suppose that the disorder was extremely rare. The worst and most unsightly cases are confined by the sense of public decorum to hospitals, workhouses, or private dwellings. Compare this with the supine indolence of the lower classes in Egypt or Turkey, and the brutal neglect with which they are treated, and the reason of the frequency of these miserable objects will soon appear.

On the other hand Mr. Cooper gives indisputable evidence of the extreme frequency of hernia in this country, especially in the hard-working poor when at an advanced period of life. This is so important a fact that we shall quote his words.

"Old age also, from the general relaxation which it produces, is very frequently accompanied with this disease, so much, that I have been surprised to find but few old

men entirely exempt from it. Since I have had this publication in view I have neglected no opportunity of procuring specimens of this disease, and on inspecting the bodies of old people I have scarcely ever been disappointed in finding either inguinal or femoral hernia. The subjects which I have examined, however, have principally been old persons who have been obliged to labour for their subsistence after their strength became unequal to great exertions.

"Those who work hard, and live more on fluid than solid food, are also very subject to hernia; whence its frequency among the poor of this town, who work to the utmost of their strength, and subsist very much upon liquids."

Besides the many obvious causes of hernia here enumerated, there can be little doubt that an original defect of strength in the tendinous parietes of the abdomen largely contributes to the frequency of the disease. Mr. Cooper does indeed mention hereditary conformation; but we much doubt whether this will sufficiently apply to a majority of those numerous cases of hernia that occur in persons of easy circumstances, not exposed to any great or sudden strains of the abdominal muscles, and, in whom the disease arises often from so trifling an accident as clearly to prove that the real cause was a natural defect in the resistance of the abdominal ring.

Many very useful directions for the application of trusses are given in the succeeding chapter.

Irreducible hernia and its causes are next described, and some instructive cases are given. The inconvenience from the increasing bulk of the tumour may often be prevented, and even an entire return sometimes procured, by means which are here pointed out.

"When the contents of hernia have become so large and encumbered with fat as to render the disease at that time irreducible, it has been recommended previous to any attempt at reduction, to make the patient undergo a course of extraordinary fasting, accompanied with cathartic medicines, and every means used to keep up a free perspiration. It is scarcely to be doubted that such a plan would, after a considerable time, be attended with ultimate success; but I have never met with any one who would submit to so severe a regimen, to free himself from a disease, which only gives a present inconvenience, and does not alarm the patient for the future event.

"A more easy and equally effectual remedy is to apply a bag truss to support the scrotum, and made to lace before. In this way a considerable pressure is steadily preserved upon

the parts, which occasions a gradual absorption of the adipose matter of the protruded hernia; and thus, after some days confinement, the tumour becomes very much diminished, and at last may be returned.

"In some cases the application of ice also occasionally procures the return of the hernia which appeared irreducible."

The symptoms of strangulated hernia, the reduction by the taxis, and the operation as the last resource, are described in the three following chapters.

It is not our intention to attempt an abstract of a series of minute and accurate description, extremely clear and intelligible, and chiefly of that plain instructive kind which it is the business of every surgeon to store in his memory and apply to practice. The caution respecting the tobacco clyster should be carefully remembered. Mr. Cooper advises no larger a dose than one drachm of the herb infused in twelve ounces of boiling water, and even this to be used in two equal portions with the interval of half an hour between each. In justification of this extreme caution he relates two fatal cases from the use, in the one case of two drachms, in the other of a single drachm. The latter produced violent pain of the abdomen, and some of the tobacco liquor appeared to find its way upwards, and was discharged by vomiting.

Mr. Cooper places much reliance on the application of ice, which however should be enclosed in a bladder so as not to keep the skin wet, as this has in one instance occasioned a mortification of part of the integuments.

Some very curious matter will be found on the subject of wounds of the intestine. In those unfortunate cases where the bowel is found partly mortified, it is the usual practice not to return it into the cavity of the abdomen, but to tie it to the outer wound, there to produce an artificial anus. It not unfrequently happens, and several cases are here given in confirmation, that the *feces* some days after the operation come away by the natural passage, and finally the wound closes and a perfect cure is effected. Where this does not happen, and the artificial anus is permanent, the situation of the patient is truly pitiable, and unfortunately cannot afterwards be relieved.

But sometimes, instead of the gut being merely burst by the gangrenous slough forming a hole through the side,

it is entirely separated, and a portion of the whole cylinder comes away. In this case Mr. Cooper advises to cut away the whole of the diseased part above and below, to reunite the intestine by sutures, and to return the whole into the abdomen. Some curious experiments on dogs, which he relates partly from his own observation, and partly from similar trials made by Mr. Thompson of Edinburgh, shew that a divided intestine again united by ligature will entirely heal, preserving the natural canal, and in the dog producing even very little inflammation or apparent inconvenience during the process. The other circumstances of these experiments are very curious.

Very large irreducible herniæ, when strangulated, are difficult and dangerous to treat. The great adhesion which commonly takes place by length of time between the omentum and intestine in the irreducible portion, and between these and the sac, oppose often an insuperable obstacle to their return when the operation is performed. Under these circumstances Dr. Monro has advised in his lectures that the sac be not opened, but only that an incision be made at the ring on the outside of the sac, with a view simply of relieving the strangulation, and allowing the fresh portion of descended intestine to return. Mr. Cooper strongly recommends the same practice, and gives two very instructive cases in support of this opinion.

Of the varieties of bubonocoele, the most important is that which emerges from the abdomen immediately opposite to the abdominal ring. This has been described for many years at the lectures in St. Thomas's and Guy's hospitals, and examples of it are now pretty frequent in anatomical collections. In operating, the great danger in this case is that of wounding the epigastric artery (generally a fatal accident) which in this variety lies on the outside of the tumour, nearer to the ilium, and therefore would be exactly in the way of the history in the usual direction in which the stricture is

dilated. This is avoided by dilating in all cases, as Mr. Cooper advises, directly upwards. It also appears from two cases here given, that even in bubonocoele, with all the common appearances, the epigastric artery sometimes takes this unusual direction, and therefore a fatal accident may take place from the common mode of dilatation without any fault of the surgeon; as from a wound in the same artery in the common place for puncture in tapping. A very rare anomaly of congenital hernia is given from Mr. Forster, senior surgeon to Guy's hospital, in which the upper opening of the abdomen remained open, but the ring was closed; so that the hernia descending in the direction of the spermatic cord was truly congenital, or contained within the tunica vaginalis, but also enclosed in a proper sac. A similar case is related by Mr. Hey, of Leeds, in his excellent surgical memoirs.

The general style and manner of this publication is that of the lecture-room, where the object is rather to convey direct instruction in concise and simple language, than to enter into the discussion of difficult and disputed points. The reader that consults it for information, will generally find all that the operating surgeon can want; whilst the practice of two large hospitals for a number of years, together with the opportunities afforded by a considerable school of anatomy, probably include almost all the varieties that are likely to be met with in this very important part of surgery.

The plates added to this splendid work are eleven in number; the engraver has done ample justice to the draughtsman, and the latter to the preparations that were set before him. The subject could not have been well explained without the assistance of plates, and these are numerous, well selected, executed apparently with great accuracy, and as large as life. In intrinsic value and beauty of execution they will stand a comparison with the most esteemed specimens of anatomical engravings.

ART. XXV. *The Anatomy of the Human Body; containing the Anatomy of the Viscera of the Abdomen, the parts in the Male and Female Pelvis, and the Lymphatic System, with an Appendix.* By CHARLES BELL, Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh. Vols IV. 8vo.

WITH this volume Mr. Bell concludes his arduous undertaking of describing the whole anatomy of the human body. The contents of this volume

are, the viscera of the abdomen and pelvis, the lymphatic system, the veins, and the structure of the teeth, together with some collateral matter.

It would be injustice to Mr. Bell to confound this work with the ordinary compilations from the common stock of elementary writers, and the transcribed lectures of the class-room. It is obviously the result of very extensive study both in books and in the dissecting-room, and its completion now supplies a want which was much felt by the English reader.

Any analysis of the contents of this volume would be superfluous; in the parts that we have examined, the description is clear and accurate, and the engraved sketches occasionally introduced are often very happily devised in assisting the reader to gain a full idea of the relative situation of important and complicated parts of anatomy. They add much to its sterling value as a comprehensive and well-executed system of anatomy.

What there is of originality in these volumes, chiefly, if not entirely, consists of occasional remarks on the theories formed by eminent men concerning the functions of different parts of the system, and of some addition to the stock of ingenious conjecture. We must think, however, that when the author quits the descriptive for the theoretical part, he shews himself much more acute in detecting inconsistencies in others than in supplying their deficiencies by luminous conjecture or happy analogy. Nor is he entirely free from the very common fault of exaggerating the weak part of those opinions on which he wishes to fix a ridicule, and weakening the force of the arguments of his predecessors when they approach too near to his own. His speculations on the use of the spleen and of the lymphatics afford instances of both these errors. For example, the following is the way in which he represents Mr. Hunter's opinion on the functions of the absorbent system.

"Mr. Hunter has given to the lymphatics not only the grovelling qualities of animals, as eating, but the higher attributes of intellect. They do nothing without forethought and intention; when they absorb, it is because they have found the parts useless in the economy. He has carried this notion so far, that he does not only speak of the absorption of the thymus gland, membrana pupillaris, alveoli of the teeth, &c. but of the body in fever as a consequence of its becoming useless when under disease!"

We do not mean now to defend the consistency of Hunter's opinions, but it is somewhat of exaggeration to infer from them that he allowed to the absorbent system "the higher qualities of intellect," or that the inherent power of selection and rejection which he gives to them is the result of thought, or is actuated by metaphysical motives. At any rate, it is singular that he should have chosen this hypothesis as a mark for ridicule, when in his own explanation of the functions of the capillary vessels he has transplanted to them this very opinion of a discriminating appetency for certain substances to the exclusion of the rest, between which and Hunter's hypothesis but a hair's-breadth of difference can be fairly deduced. The following are his words.

"The capillary vessels are those extreme branches which are as minute as hairs; but this, though the literal, is not the general meaning of the term. By capillary vessels is rather understood those branches in which the changes are wrought from the blood, and which are either so minute as not to allow the promiscuous flow of the blood, or possessed of such a degree of irritability and appetency, as only to allow certain parts of that fluid to be transmitted.

"It is proved that in the living body there is no exudation; but no sooner is the animal dead, than the fluids exude from the vessels, the secretions pass through the coats of those receptacles which formerly contained them, and the whole parts partake of an universal colour. From this simple fact we are led to think that a property exists in the living fibre, which by contraction or some other property repels the fluids. Admitting this, it is very natural to suppose that the fibres, and more particularly the vessels, have a discriminating property; so that the capillary texture of each organ possesses sensibility, which has its relations to the fluids passing through them, or to be secreted from them."

The following general view of the long-disputed question of venous absorption is interesting, and well drawn up.

"In this general account of the venous system, it remains only to speak of the subject of absorption. Before the suite of experiments made on this subject by Mr. Hunter, a vague notion was entertained that the veins were absorbents; but about that time, the doctrine that lymphatics are absorbents having been established, the opinion that the red veins were also absorbents was first questioned, and finally confuted, at least in the opinion of most physiologists.

"The chief argument to show that veins, arising from cavities, particularly from the intestines, acted as absorbents, was, that some anatomists said they had seen white chyle in the blood taken from the mesenteric veins. It was however soon observed that the serum of the blood, taken from the veins of the arm, was sometimes white, which must arise from some other cause than the absorption of chyle*.

"The experiments of Mr. John Hunter proved that there is no absorption of fluid from aliment contained in the intestinal canal, by the veins of the mesentery, while the lacteals were rapidly absorbing. Emptying a portion of the gut, and the veins of their blood in a living animal, he poured milk into the intestine. The veins remained empty, and without a drop of the milk finding its way into them, while the lacteals became tinged with it. In another experiment, leaving the arteries and veins of the mesentery free, and the circulation through them perfect, still no white fluid could be discovered tinging the stream of blood in the veins; neither did pressure upon the gut, in any instance, force the fluid of the intestines into the veins. He repeated and varied these experiments, so as to show in a very satisfactory manner that chyle, or the fluid of the intestines, never is absorbed by the veins.

"Yet I must say that these experiments are still unsatisfactory, as they regard the general doctrine of absorption by the veins; in the intestines there is a peculiar set of vessels evidently destined to the absorption of the chyle and of the fluids of the cavity; but there remains a question which will not be easily determined; do not the veins throughout the body resume a part of that that substance, or of those qualities, which are deposited or bestowed by the arteries? We are assured that in the circulation of the blood through the lungs, and in the extremities of the pulmonic veins, there is an imbibing or absorption; and in the veins of the placenta there is not only an absorption similar to what takes place in the extreme branch-

es of the pulmonic circulation, but the matter and substance which goes to the nourishment of the fœtus is imbibed from the maternal circulation†. So by the vessels in the membrane of the chick in ovo, there is absorbed that which, being carried to the chick, bestows nourishment and increase. For my own part, I cannot but suppose that, while the lymphatics absorb the loose fluids which have been thrown out on surfaces, or into cavities—the veins receive part of what is deposited from the arteries; but, which is not so perfectly separated from the influence of the circulating system, as that which the lymphatics receive; and that there are certain less palpable, and perhaps gaseous fluids, which they imbibe in the course of the circulation by an affinity of the venous blood, similar to the attraction which takes place in the lungs. We must at the same time acknowledge, that the conclusions made in favour of absorption by veins, from experiments upon the dead body, are fallacious, and have no weight. It is seldom we can determine whether minute injections have taken a course by a natural, or by a forced passage; neither are the experiments of some of the older physiologists more satisfactory or conclusive. Lower affirmed that, by throwing a ligature on the inferior cava of a dog, he produced ascites. He tied the jugular veins of a dog, and the head became dropsical. Hewson repeated these experiments, but without the same result. And if the tying of the veins had always produced œdema or dropsy, the experiment would have proved nothing more than is already established by the very common occurrence of œdema of the legs, from the pressure of the womb on the iliac veins, or a tumor in the groin, or in the pelvis. Now in these instances the compression of the vein does nothing more than cause a difficult circulation of the blood, from the extreme arteries into the veins, and consequently a greater profusion of the discharge into the cellular texture by the serous arteries."

ART. XXVI. *An improved Method of treating Strictures in the Urethra.* By THOMAS WHATELY, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in London. 8vo.

THE chief object of this publication is to recommend the use of the kali purum as a caustic to strictures of the urethra, in preference to the lunar caustic, so much employed, and with so much success, by Hunter, Home, and now by most surgeons (in this country at least) who have the care of these obstinate and dangerous complaints. Mr. Whately

also takes occasion to censure the degree and the mode in which the lunar caustic is used by Mr. Home, whose valuable publication on the subject we noticed in our last volume.

As general experience has not yet enabled the public to form a fair comparison between these two caustics, we shall do little more than mention the way in

* "See Hewson Exper. Essays and Lymphatic System."

† "Dr. Hunter; Hewson, &c. say that it is probable there are many small lymphatics in the placenta, which open into the branches of the veins, and do not take a course along the cord. This is very improbable, and has no support from analogy."

which the author of the present work advises, which bears all the marks of accurate description, and certainly merits a fair trial.

The cases for which the alkaline caustic is recommended are precisely those in which the lunar caustic is resorted to; nor is there any material difference in the mode in which the bougie is prepared for this purpose. In both the caustic is fixed firmly into the end of the bougie, and is of such small dimensions that it cannot come in contact with any other part of the urethra than that in which the stricture exists, except by being dissolved in the mucus, or injudiciously applied. The quantity of the kali recommended by Mr. Whately is no more than a piece of the size of a pin's head. The precautions to be taken, and all the minutiae of the mode of using this application (of the utmost importance in practice), are detailed and described with great precision.

The author attempts, but with very little success, to explain the reason of the superior mildness of the kali over the lunar caustic, chiefly from nicety of the manipulation, and the mode which he recommends of passing the bougie backwards and forwards through the stricture, with a view of *abrading* its sides without proceeding to such an extent of action as to form a slough. The following are his words.

"Before the kali purum can be safely taken into the stomach, its caustic properties must be entirely destroyed by dilution; but, under proper management, it may be applied to the urethra, even as a caustic, without producing a slough, as it commonly does when applied in the usual method. The mode of applying it on the extremity of a bougie, which is gently moved backwards and forwards, and the time that the caustic may be supposed to be in the act of dissolving, have been already explained. By this procedure the kali is equally diffused over every part of the strictured surface, and only *rades* the membrane of the stricture, without producing a slough. The degree of this action is entirely under the controul of the operator; by a little attention to the quantity of caustic employed, it may be increased or lessened at each application, as circumstances dictate. In this operation a slimy substance is formed, compounded probably of the abraded matter of the stricture, and of the oil and lard used in the operation, combined with the kali. This slime is found adhering to the bougie, and some of it generally finds its way down to that part of it which is held by the operator's hand. In

this manner the kali penetrates and dissolves the hard and diseased surface of a stricture, with a facility which no other remedy, that can be safely applied, will equal. That this is the mode of its action, when applied as directed, I am convinced from ocular demonstration; for, in applying it to a stricture near the orifice of the urethra, I have had frequent opportunities of remarking the degree of abrasion it produced without occasioning slough, together with the formation of the saponaceous slime I have mentioned."

All this elaborate explanation of the action of the kali is mighty trifling, when it is considered that the piece of alkali is no more than the size of a small pin's head. How the slime formed by its union with the lard used to fix it on the bougie can be distinguished, both from the oil with which the bougie is smeared, and from the natural mucus of the bladder, we are utterly unable to conceive. Nevertheless, the fact may probably be, that the alkali gives less pain than the lunar caustic.

We were somewhat surprised to see it laid down as a general rule by the author, that

"In every case of stricture, before we apply this remedy, we ought to be able to pass a bougie into the bladder of at least a size larger than one of the finest kind. This is necessary both to enable us to apply the caustic to the whole surface of the stricture, and likewise to put it into our power to remove a suppression of urine, should it occur, during the use of the caustic. In the greater number of all the cases of stricture we meet with, a bougie above the smallest size may be passed into the bladder. These, therefore, are proper cases for the use of caustic, provided none of the above stated objections to its immediate application exist."

Most assuredly, if a surgeon were to confine the use of the caustic to those cases in which a bougie (and that not of the smallest size) will pass the stricture, he would not frequently meet with those formidable cases described by Mr. Home. But Mr. Whately is aware that the caustic is particularly demanded where a bougie will *not* pass, at least not without using much violence; for in a subsequent part of the volume (p. 61) he proceeds to treat of strictures impervious to a bougie, and of the use of the alkaline caustic to them also.

We do not at all suspect any intentional misrepresentation, but many of the arguments in favour of the kali over the lunar caustic, that are given along

with the treatment of the first-mentioned kind of stricture, are not very clearly opposed to those in favour of the lunar caustic *in like circumstances of disease*, but rather contrasted with the severer cases.

The author passes some pretty strong censure on many of Mr. Home's cases, and the persevering severity of his plan of treatment. It must be acknowledged that the application of lunar caustic *upwards of a hundred times*, without forcing a passage through the urethra (as in some of Mr. Home's patients), does

not speak very highly in favour of the practice; but many of this gentleman's cases exhibit a flattering success over a most obstinate disease, by an equally obstinate perseverance in this painful and dangerous remedy. The general advantage of the treatment by caustic is such as to warrant at all times a very full trial, at the same time that the severity of the lunar caustic, and its frequent failure, fully justify, and even demand, the adoption of other applications with a similar intent.

ART. XXVII. *Observations on the Cataract, and Gutta Serena.* By JAMES WARE, Surgeon, F. R. S. *The second Edition, with many Additions.*

WE insert this article simply to announce its publication, as nearly all the contents have been already before the public in one form or other, and are now collected in this volume.

It contains the translation of baron Wenzel's celebrated Treatise on the Cataract, with many and valuable notes by Mr. Ware; the author's Enquiry into the Operation of extracting the Cataract; his well-known case of recovered sight, published in the Philosophical Transactions for 1801; a counterpart to Cheselden's famous case; a Tract on the Dissipation of the Cataract, and another on the Cure of Gutta Serena, both published in the third volume of the Memoirs of the Medical Society of London.

The only additions here noticed are,

a short set of aphoristic memoranda on the various steps of the difficult operation of extracting the cataract, and three additional cases to the cure of gutta serena. In these, with the defect of sight, there was an inability to move the upper eyelid, together with some affection of the general health. They all terminated favourably, and in two of them very decided benefit was obtained, by letting blood pretty largely from the vein that runs by the side of the nose, together with leeches and topical blistering. The value of all Mr. Ware's communications, on subjects connected with this branch of surgery, is too well known to require any further comment on what has already appeared before the public.

ART. XXVIII. *Observations on the Cause and Formation of Cancers.* By WILLIAM CRAADDOCK BUSH, of Bath; Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, London. pp. 24.

THE author announces in his preface his intention, "at some future time, to write respecting the treatment of cancer, when longer experience shall have ma-

tured his practice and observations." In this he will act wisely; and, when that period arrives, we shall be happy to receive the benefit of them.

ART. XXIX. *The London Dissector; or, a Compendium of practical Anatomy; containing a Description of the Muscles, Vessels, Nerves, and Viscera of the human Body, as they appear on Dissection, with Directions for their Demonstration.* 8vo. pp. 293.

THE parts of the human body are here described in the order the most convenient for dissection, and the whole forms a very useful vade-mecum for the student of anatomy. A supplement,

containing full directions for injecting, for making anatomical preparations, and other manipulations of the dissecting room, would add much to its utility.

ART. XXX. *A brief Essay on the peculiar Advantages of the flexible metallic Bougies, in the Treatment of Strictures of the Urethra, and the Evacuation of the urinary Bladder.* By WILLIAM SMYTH, Inventor and sole Proprietor.

THE value of Mr. Smyth's bougies and catheters is now very generally ac-

knowledged. They certainly combine three most important excellences—fir-

ness, flexibility, and inalterability by contact with the mucus of the urethra, the urine, or any of the animal fluids. The testimonies which he brings are highly creditable and decisive.

The sole object of this little treatise being to recommend their use, and advertise their sale, no further notice of its contents is requisite, except to speak in

strong disapprobation of the way in which he passes a sweeping condemnation on the use of caustic in general. Surely he might have been satisfied with the honourable testimony he has obtained to his invention, without adopting the common empirical art of undervaluing an important practice, to enhance the value of his specific.

ART. XXXI. *The New Edinburgh Dispensatory.* By ANDREW DUNCAN, Jun. M. D. Second Edition, much enlarged and improved.

IN our former volume we noticed, with high approbation, this very valuable system of pharmacy; and the public has acknowledged its value by the rapid sale of the first edition. The author announces the following improvements in the present.

"The principal alterations and additions which have been made, consist in the characters which salts derive from their bases in the Epitome of Chemistry; the account of the general properties of common and mineral waters, charcoal, and a few other articles, in the *Materia Medica*, with a short notice of every article contained in the *Pharmacopœia-Borussica*, *Formulario Pharmaceutico* of the hospital of Genoa, *Marabelli's Appa-*

ratus medicaminum, Van Mons's *Pharmacopœia*, and that of La Grange, which had not been previously mentioned; a list of the Genera of Medical Plants, according to the natural system of Jussieu, as improved by Ventenat, while the natural orders of Murray are retained, in the *Materia Medica*; and a posological and prosodial Table, which cannot fail to be acceptable; besides the introduction of every pharmaceutical improvement which has come to the author's knowledge during the interval which has elapsed between the publication of the two editions."

For the satisfaction of the recent purchasers of the first edition, we may assure them, that the additions are of very inferior importance.

ART. XXXII. *Elements of Materia Medica and Pharmacy.* By J. MURRAY, Lecturer on Chemistry, and on *Materia Medica and Pharmacy.* 2 vols. 8vo.

THE first volume of this work is an outline, considerably in detail, of the author's system of *Materia Medica*, intended as a very ample syllabus of his lectures, and sufficiently enlarged to be useful and acceptable to the general reader.

It begins with a short outline of what the author terms pharmaceutical chemistry. It is rather a very slight sketch of general chemistry, part of which has nothing to do with pharmacy; and the rest is composed of materials easily got from any modern system.

The author has taken more pains with the classification of the *Materia Medica* which follows. His theory is entirely Brunonian; but, as a practical writer cannot shut his eyes to the extreme difficulty of applying this system to the real distinctions which are exhibited in the operations of similar medicines, the author has bestowed a good deal of pains in stretching, adapting, and accommodating his system to his experience. The following is his classification:

"TABLE OF CLASSIFICATION.

A. General Stimulants.

- a. Diffusible. { Narcotics.
- { Antispasmodics.

b. Permanent.

B. Local Stimulants.

C. Chemical Remedies.

D. Mechanical Remedies.

- { Tonics.
- { Astringents.
- Emetics.
- Cathartics.
- Emmenagogues.
- Diuretics.
- Diaphoretics.
- Expectorants.
- Sialagogues.
- Errhines.
- Epispastics.
- Refrigerants.
- Antacids.
- Lithontriptics.
- Escharotics.
- Anthelmintics.
- Demulcents.
- Diluents.
- Emollients."

As this arrangement does contain the distinct classes of narcotics, tonics, antispasmodics, diuretics, &c. and, (what is of equal consequence), as their respective operations are given very fairly and impartially, the ultimate end of classification is obtained.

The following is a specimen of the description of the individual articles:

"CONIUM MACULATUM. Cicuta. Hemlock.
3 I 2

Pentand. Digyn. Umbellatæ. Folia, Semen. Indigenoua.

"The stalk of hemlock is large and spotted; the leaves are of a dark-green colour, have a faint disagreeable smell, and a nauseous herbaceous taste. The seeds are inferior in strength.

"Hemlock is a very powerful narcotic. In a very moderate dose it is apt to occasion sickness and vertigo; in a larger quantity it induces anxiety, dilatation of the pupils, delirium, stupor, and convulsions.

"The free internal use of this plant was introduced by Störck. He recommended it particularly in scirrhus, and in cancerous sores, in which it received a very extensive trial. While its inefficacy towards effecting a radical cure is established, its utility as a palliative is admitted. It has likewise been found serviceable in scrofulous and venereal ulcerations, glandular tumors, chronic rheumatism, and several other diseases. The dose is two or three grains of the powdered leaves, one or two grains of the inspissated juice. It requires to be increased, in general, to a very considerable extent: at the same time, this must be done with caution, as both the dried leaves and inspissated juice are va-

riable in their strength. The dried leaves are less liable to injury from keeping than the inspissated juice. The drying should be performed quickly before a fire, and the powder should be kept in phials closely stopped and secluded from the light. The proof of the drying having been properly performed, is the powder retaining the odour of the leaves, and the deepness and freshness of their colour.

"*Offic. Prep.*—Succ: spiss: Conii Macul. Ed."

The second volume is a translation of the new edition of the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia, with the insertion, in their respective places, of those prescriptions of the London and some foreign colleges, where any material difference occurs, or that have no corresponding place in the Edinburgh edition.

A very short notice of the medical use of the gases, of electricity, and galvanism, is added in a supplement, which is followed by a still slighter outline of the method of composing medical prescriptions.

ART. XXXIII. *Pharmacopœia Medici Practici Universalis, sistens Medicamenta preparata & composita, cum eorum Usu & Dosibus. Auctore F. SWEDIAUR, M. D.* pp. 500.

THE title of this work sufficiently explains its contents. We shall only add, that it will be found a very useful manual of pharmacy, containing a considerable number of prescriptions, on the whole very well selected, and well

calculated to assist the prescriber. The arrangement is that of the form of medicines, like the standard pharmacopœias, and the tables and indexes are full, and apparently accurate.

ART. XXXIV. *An Inquiry into the Rot in Sheep, and other Animals; in which a Connection is pointed out between it, and some obscure and important Disorders in the human Constitution. By EDWARD HARRISON, M. D. F. R. A. S. Ed. Member of the Royal Med. and Royal Phys. Soc. Ed. of the Med. Soc. London, &c.* pp. 56.

THE author of this treatise is a physician of respectability at Horncastle, in Lincolnshire, and must, therefore, both from his situation and the peculiar turn of his studies, be well qualified to afford us information on the subject. The importance of the inquiry will not be doubted; and if it be admitted, according to Dr. Harrison's opinion, that the rot in sheep bears a strong analogy to some of the diseases which affect the human frame, we shall have an additional motive for its investigation. The term "rot" seems to have arisen from the effect which the disease has upon the liver; the texture of the part becomes less firm, and when boiled, it separates into small pieces. The disease is

produced in those situations only where the ground is occasionally covered with stagnant water.

"Grounds that are always dry, or always under water, and such as are wet enough to preserve a continual run and circulation, were never known to suffer from the rot."

Hence it follows, that an imperfect drainage of a district has made the rot more frequent than before, by causing land to be sometimes dry and sometimes flooded, which before was always covered with water.

This fact respecting the origin of the rot, naturally suggests an analogy between this disease and the intermittent fever; and it appears that they are both

prevalent in precisely the same situations. The conclusion which almost irresistibly follows is, that they are both produced by the same cause, viz. marsh miasmata. Some singular exceptions are noticed to the general fact: marshes exposed to the tide do not, it is said, produce the rot; some of the bogs in Ireland, and peat mosses in general, are considered as exempted from its attacks. It is difficult to give any satisfactory reason for these anomalies: and it is certainly desirable that the facts themselves should be carefully ascertained. With respect to peat mosses, we have heard it asserted, that agues are not found to prevail in the neighbourhood of those large tracts of this description, which abound in Lancashire.

A variety of causes have been assigned for the origin of the rot, which are enumerated by the author.

"The disorder has been imputed, 1st, to a vitiated dew.

"2ndly, To a crust, which adheres to the grass after wet weather, or the over-flowing of running water.

"3dly, To the luxuriant and quick growth of plants in hot, moist, seasons.

"4thly, To grazing upon certain herbs.

"5thly, To fasciolæ hepaticæ, or their ova, being introduced into the stomachs of animals, by feeding on swampy and low grounds in moist weather.

"6thly, It has been called the sheep pox, by professor Vibourg, of the veterinary college at Copenhagen."

"7thly, It is ascribed by Daubenton to poor diet, and drinking too much water.

"8thly, It seems to be occasioned by poisonous effluvia, which, under certain circumstances, are emitted from marshy soils."

Some remarks are offered upon each of them in succession.

The existence of animals called flukes in the livers of diseased sheep, has been frequently noticed, and the opinion at present most prevalent respecting the cause of the rot is, that the ova of these animals being taken into the stomach, penetrate to the liver, and by their action on that part produce the disease. It is,

however, asserted upon good authority, that sheep, even in the last stages of the disease, do not always, upon examination, exhibit any traces of these animalcules; and, upon the whole, Dr. Harrison concludes, "that flukes are never the cause of this complaint, although they are commonly to be found in its advanced stages."

It has been stated, that cow-pox will preserve sheep from the rot; and it has been hence conjectured that this latter disease was of an analogous nature. Our author however imagines, that the disease which is kept off by the cow-pox is the *clavéau des moutons*, an eruptive and febrile affection not known in this island, and altogether different from the genuine rot. Some curious, and apparently unequivocal instances are adduced, where the disease has been contracted in a very short space of time; in one case there is every reason to conclude, that the disease was produced in a flock of sheep, by their feeding for one hour only in a marshy lane. The author concludes this part by remarking, that he thinks himself justified in attributing the rot in sheep, and other animals, to paludal effluvia.

The prevention of the disease is obviously to be sought for in an effective draining of the land. There are, however, situations in which this cannot be accomplished; in these cases we must endeavour to mitigate the evil. It has been remarked, that the rot is less liable to be produced, where the herbage is so considerable as to screen the surface of the ground from the action of the sun. Sheep are found to be most liable to the disease immediately after losing their fleeces. The disease is produced almost exclusively in particular seasons of the year, when there is a combination of heat and moisture. Facts of a similar description are recorded about the ague, and seem to confirm the analogy between these diseases. The work concludes with an account of the symptoms of the disease, and the appearances of the viscera after death.

• This is not properly the cause of the rot.

CHAPTER XVII.

MATHEMATICS

AND

NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.

THE mathematical world has been enriched this year by another volume of the *Scriptores Logarithmici*, by Baron Maseres, whose ardour does not diminish as his years increase; and every one must wish him long to retain the high pre-eminence which he has reached, and which he deserves so well to occupy, both by his own labours, and the encouragement he is ever ready to afford to others. In the death of professor Robison it has sustained a great loss, which every person will lament who reads his *Elements of Natural Philosophy*, a work which proves him to be one of the few who study the Newtonian philosophy at the fountain-head. Mr. Newton, late of Jesus college, Cambridge, has in a short work aimed, and with great success, to correct the errors that have crept into this philosophy, particularly at Cambridge, and proves that its principles rest on the surest foundation of sound mathematical reasoning. Mr. Brinkley has enriched the Irish, and Mr. Woodehouse the English, *Philosophical Transactions*, with their researches on very deep subjects, and displayed great talents in developing very abstruse points in mathematical reasoning. To these we may add the name of professor Playfair, whose *Euclid* will engage attention; and we must not deny to the French the merit due to them for their encouragement of science, as their annual work, the *Connoissance des Temps*, continues to be the repository of science and scientific information.

ART. I. *The Complete Navigator: or an Easy and Familiar Guide to the Theory and Practice of Navigation, with all the requisite Tables: illustrated with Engravings.* By A. MACKAY, LL. D. &c.

THIS is a work of considerable merit, though there is an inconsistency in the title. To be at the same time a complete book for navigation, an easy and familiar guide, and to contain all the requisite tables; to do all this in the compass of an octavo volume; is an impossibility. For, in the first place, the tables requisite for a complete navigator, in a part only of his science, require very nearly as large a volume as this before us: we mean the tables of logarithms of numbers, from one to 1,000,000, and of sines, tangents, &c. The nautical almanac and the tables accompanying, are

further requisites to the complete navigator; and others we might, if necessary, point out, if the above were not sufficient for our position, that the author could not in his volume present to the complete navigator all the requisite tables. As the volume could not contain what the title-page declares, and yet there is a great number of tables, it necessarily follows that in aiming at so much, the tables must be imperfect. We have therefore tables of logarithms to only five decimal places, and trigonometrical tables to only five decimal places, and of sines, tangents, &c. to only five decimal places.

Navigation is a very extensive science, and persons will be deceived if they imagine that it can be attained in an easy and familiar way. The shortest and easiest road to it is, in our opinion, the study of the six first books of Euclid, and the tracts of plain and spherical trigonometry at the end of Simson's Euclid: to this must be added as much algebra as will enable the student to solve a simple and quadratic equation, to understand the nature of arithmetical and geometrical proportions, and thence the doctrine of logarithms and the calculation of sines, tangents, &c. The easier methods that are pointed out, as in the work before us, give the learner a little insight into geometry and trigonometry; but the principles not being sufficiently impressed on the mind, the future practitioner is continually at a loss in any operation which is a little out of the way, or to recollect his rules if he happens to have lost his guide.

The work begins with the principles of the sphere, and questions on longitude and latitude; these are followed by an account of the log, the compass, the method of sounding, the tides, Gunter's scale; and at the seventh chapter we have the principles of geometry, in which, of course, we have the definitions of angles and triangles, though they have been spoken of before, and the reader must be supposed to understand what they are before he comes to the definition of them. The geometrical part is contained in about a dozen pages, consequently is very meagre; trigonometry occupies about a dozen more pages: and thus we have in the fifty-eight first pages the grounds of the science.

The second book explains the nature of different modes of calculating, as by plane, traverse, parallel, middle latitude, Mercator's, oblique, and current sailing. The construction of charts is then given; the plane and Mercator's instruments are described, as Hadley's quadrant, the octant, the sextant, the compass. A journal of a voyage is given, with necessary instructions how to make one. The above articles are contained in four books: the fifth book is employed upon miscellaneous articles, as mensuration of heights and distances of objects; the method of surveying coasts and harbours; observations on the wind, and directions for predicting the weather. The sixth book contains the tables, with their explanation, in 216 pages, the former five books occupying 263 pages.

From the acknowledged talents of the author, it cannot be doubted that this work must convey much useful knowledge, and many of our commanders of ships will find their leisure time well employed in studying the various problems, and performing the operations by the tables accompanying the work. But how far it can be generally useful, the author may know by an easy experiment; and that is, by taking a person who is not a novice in navigation, and has been two or three voyages, and by hearing him read a few pages in the beginning of the work. We apprehend that he will hesitate in several places, and thus point out to the writer the necessity of adapting his language more to the vulgar standard of capacity, and not using any term of science which he has not previously defined.

ART. II. *Connoissance des Tems, ou des Mouvements celestes pour l'An XIV. de l'Ere de la Republique Française; or French Astronomical Almanac.*

THIS volume contains the usual matter, and arranged in the same order as in the preceding almanacs. Upon the admirable plan adopted by the French, and which will make Paris the depot of astronomical science, the additions contain what has been produced of importance relative to astronomy in other countries; observations on the newly discovered planets; a twelfth catalogue of new stars, and that also of Maskelyne; tables of aberrations of 140 stars; various observations by eminent astronomers; the history of astronomy for

the year 1802; and an index for all the volumes from the year 1760.

From the history we collect, that the king of Naples has added sixty pounds a year to Mr. Piazzi's salary, for the discovery of the new planet, and honouring it with the royal name. So small a reward assuredly justifies astronomers in refusing to accede to the new title, and in immortalising the discoverer rather than the monarch. The national institute had in 1798 proposed a prize for new lunar tables, which were produced by Mr. Burg of Vienna; but Mr. Bou-

ward had also on the same subject laboured with great success. It was decided to divide the prize between them: but Bonaparte, who presided on that day, amended the resolution by doubling the prize, and thus giving to each the sum of about a hundred and twenty guineas. Laplace considered this to be too small a sum for the labours of Burg, and proposed a new prize of about two hundred and fifty pounds; and on the 25th of July, the committee of the board of longitude waiting on Bonaparte with a report on Burg's work, he doubled this prize also, and desired that Burg might be invited to come to Paris, and receive a pension of a hundred and twenty guineas a year. His tables were put to the press, and a copy sent to professor Maskelyne, for the use of the nautical almanac. The Arabic text of Ibn Junis is printed, and the translation by Caussin put to the press. Henzenberg at Hamburg, from 31 experiments on falling bodies, from the height of 235 feet, determines against the perpendicular descent, there being a declination of four lines towards the east, and one and a half towards the south. The French minister has established a board for meteorological observations, which has received communications from 90 places, established between the convent of Mount Cenis and the sea. Several persons have sent communications on the tides, currents, and winds in different parts of the world. The account of the Bibliography of Lalande forms an article in this book, to which is added a supplement, containing a list of books that the author has become acquainted with since its publication.

The measuring of a degree in Sweden is detailed with the precision which the importance of the subject required. That by Maupertuis and his associates had long been generally looked upon as incorrect, no doubt can now be entertained upon this head. He measured an arc of only $0^{\circ} 57' 28'' 67$; the arc measured by the Swedish mathematicians, contains $1^{\circ} 37' 19'' 49$. Their astronomical observations were made at the two extremes of a meridional arc at Malorn, in lat. $65^{\circ} 31' 32'' 14$, and Pahlavara in lat. $67^{\circ} 8' 51'' 53$. They used iron rods, a French toise in length, to measure their first base, and wooden rods for their second base. All the angles in each triangle were measured several

times, till they were assured that the error could not amount to more than a second, excepting in two triangles, in which the third angle was deduced from the other two angles. The polar star was used in their astronomical observations, and from very accurate calculations they conclude that a degree on the meridian in lat. $66^{\circ} 20' 12''$ amounts to 57209,22 toises, the thermometer at the time of measuring being at zero; and if it is at ten, it will be 57197. As that of Maupertuis is estimated, at the same height of the thermometer, to be 57405, the difference between them is 208 toises, a difference which Mr. Melanderhselm, the Swedish astronomer, attributes to an error in the French calculation of latitudes.

This detail of the Swedish degrees is followed by an estimation of the ancient Egyptian measures, from the orbit dug up by Girard in the ruins of the nilometer at Elephantis. Several observations are given, made by Haugergues at Vivier, in 1802 and 1803, on the eclipses of Jupiter's moons, the appearances of Saturn's ring, and on the spots of the sun. A singular observation, and the explanation of the appearance of the spots deserves our notice. They are generally considered to be black; but examined with attention in a dark room, through a good refracting telescope, they are rather of a greyish blue, and sometimes approaching to a red; and Mr. Haugergues is of opinion, that if these spots could be detached from the sun, and were seen by us in the heavens at night, they would surpass Jupiter and Venus in splendour. To explain the reason of their appearing of a dark colour, he placed a small looking-glass in such a manner that it should reflect the light of heaven to the eye, and be at the same time projected on the sun's disk. Looking then at the sun and glass, through a smoked glass, the looking-glass appeared on the sun's disk as a perfectly black spot. Now, as the light of heaven is superior to that of Venus or Jupiter, it is inferred that the spots of the sun, though appearing dark, may possess a brilliancy far superior to that of the two planets.

Laplace's remarks on the bulk of Saturn, and the tables of Jupiter, display his usual, but uncommon ingenuity. From the accounts given of the stones falling from the atmosphere at Aigle, it is

concluded that they must have been formed at the same time in the air as the ball of fire. An account of Herschel's power of penetrating space by telescopes, and a paper in the Philosophical Transactions by don Mendoza Rios, conclude this interesting part of the work, which

we cannot put out of our hands without applauding the French for their exertions, and regretting that similar encouragement is not held out to the promotion and diffusion of science in our own country.

ART. III. *A Collection of Mathematical Tables, for the Use of Students in Universities and Academies, for the Practical Navigator, Geographer, and Surveyor, for Men of Business, &c.* By A. MACKAY.

THIS collection contains 216 pages of tables, the same as in the Complete Navigator, and 44 pages more with hyperbolic logarithms, the reciprocals of numbers, the square roots and cube roots of numbers, amount and present value of 1*l.* at compound interest, and of annuities for terms of years, with probabilities of life at different places,

and annuities on lives, with several other tables, among which one is a page of chronology. It is needless to observe, that where so much is attempted, the purchaser must not expect much in any peculiar branch; but in schools and colleges these tables will be found useful.

ART. IV. *Observation on the Effects which Carriage Wheels, with Rims of different Shapes, have on the Roads: respectfully submitted to the Approbation of the Board of Agriculture, and to the Consideration of the Legislature.* By A. CUMMING, Esq.

ENGLAND is celebrated for the gravel walks in its gardens, and the excellence of some of its turnpike roads. Very great pains are taken with both, yet no one ever thought of rolling his garden walks with a conical roller. How comes it to pass then, that the turnpike roads of this country are suffered to be rolled by conical wheels, on which are raised waggons of enormous weight? The question may surprise many of our surveyors of roads, and is only one among many proofs how custom blinds the eyes, and the most absurd practices will prevail in spite of every effort of reason and even self-interest. The author of this work has studied the subject with very great attention, and has shewn, by an ingenious set of experiments, the different operations of cylindrical and conical wheels upon roads: the whole might be comprised in few words, that the cylindrical wheel preserves, the conical wheel destroys, the roads.

This will be evident to every one who considers the nature of the cone and the cylinder. Every point on the surface of a cylinder has the same rotatory motion; it is different with the cone, for if a cone is drawn forward in the same direction with the cylinder, and the circumference of the largest circle in the cone is the same as that of the cylinder, the points in the circumference of this largest circle

alone have the same rotatory motion as the points in the surface of the cylinder; and the other points on the cone have different rotatory motions, according to their distance from the vertex of the cone. Hence if a cone and cylinder are drawn forward in the same straight line, and with the same velocity, there must be a constant dragging forward of the thinner parts of the cone, and the road, instead of being equally pressed down by every part of the surface, will have different pressures at different places, and will of course, according to the weight of the cone, sustain injury by the crushing of the materials upon it, or opening interstices to the bad effects of the weather.

The introduction of the conical shaped wheels is naturally accounted for, by the endeavour to accommodate the wheel to the carriage upon it; little regard being paid by the possessor of the carriage to the state of the road. The surveyors of roads, not being men of very great observation, though accustomed to see various carriages pass before them, did not calculate the effects of each upon the road. The waggoner was still less likely to notice the different effects of wheels, on the horses which drag the carriage; and the wheelwright, whose business it is to turn out the best made wheel on any construction, troubles himself not at all

with their use in carriages. Thus the possessor of the carriage gained his point by enlarging his waggon, and thought he had gained a great point by the increased convenience in stowing his goods, not considering the loss he sustained by the labour imposed on his horses, to drag a quantity of this weight, instead of drawing it by means of a circular motion.

The consequences of this fatal error are much greater than a cursory observer would apprehend. It makes a difference in the number of horses employed in transporting the commodities of this kingdom, and in the materials and horses employed to carry them on the roads, which amounts to some millions; and if the improvement of roads, the saving of labour, and the saving of money, are any objects to a people, the legislature will have few subjects proposed to them of such importance as this in the work before us. From considering this importance, and with the view to induce all persons concerned with wheel carriages and the management of roads to study this work with the attention it deserves, we transcribe the author's judicious summation of the different effects of the cylindrical and conical rims.

" The Cylindrical Rims.

- " 1. Naturally advance in a straight line ;
- " 2. Have no friction or rubbing at the circumference ;
- " 3. No rubbing against the sides of deep ruts ;
- " 4. No throwing up of dirt by the hind part of the wheel ;
- " 5. Do not increase friction on the axis ;
- " 6. Have no pressure against the linch pin ;
- " 7. The only resistance to their rolling in a straight line is from compressing, smoothing, and levelling the substances on which they roll ;
- " 8. They have no tendency to displace, derange, break the texture, or retard the concretion and induration of the parts on which they roll ;
- " 9. Their frequent rolling on compressible substances renders them more compact, smooth, hard, and impervious to water ; and leaves them in a state more favourable to concretion and induration ; and by keeping the interior and softer parts dry, they are better enabled to resist violence, and to support the crust that protects them ;
- " 10. They have no tendency to open the joints in paved streets ; but, on the

contrary, to improve them by producing the effect of ramming the stones on which they pass, by the dead pressure produced from the uniform velocity of all the parts ;

- " 11. And they advance in a straight course with the least possible resistance, and with advantages superior to any other possible shape ;
- " 12. They serve equally to improve the roads, to relieve the cattle, and to preserve the tires of the wheels.

" And all these properties are as peculiar to, and inseparable from the cylindrical shape as they are favourable to the roads and to the cattle.

" Conical Rims.

- " 1. They naturally roll in a circular direction, round their conical centre ;
- " 2. A constant force is required to confine them to a straight course ;
- " 3. When constrained to move in a straight direction, a rubbing and friction take place at the rim ;
- " 4. They increase friction on the axis ;
- " 5. They occasion a rubbing against the sides of deep ruts ;
- " 6. And a throwing up of dirt from the hind part of the wheel ;
- " 7. In dry weather they pulverise the best materials ;
- " 8. Which occasions much sludge in wet seasons, and much dust in dry ;
- " 9. In a compressible state of the roads they derange and break the texture of the parts, and leave them in a broken state ready to imbibe water, which introduces all the ruinous effects of wet seasons and severe frosts ;
- " 10. They promote the destruction of paved streets and causeways, by forcibly opening the joints and admitting water under the stones, which ultimately floats and discharges the gravel, loosens the stones, and sinks the pavement into holes ;
- " 11. They increase the labour of the cattle ;
- " 12. And promote the wearing of the tires of the wheels by their constant dragging and grinding on the roads, none of which take place with the cylindrical wheels.

" Such are the effects that unavoidably arise from the conical shape, and they seem as much calculated for the destruction of the roads, as those of the cylindrical wheels are for their preservation and improvement.

" 33.—And, seeing that the cylindrical rim is the most favourable that can possibly be adopted for the preservation and improvement of the roads, and that the conical is the most destructive, a certain advantage must be gained by using the former instead of the latter ; and as this advantage must be in proportion to the space or surface

that is rolled; it cannot be thought excessive to rate that difference at one shilling for every acre of road that is rolled with an

improving roller, instead of an impairing one."

ART. V. *Elements of Mechanical Philosophy: being the Substance of a Course of Lectures on that Science.* By JOHN ROBISON, LL. D. &c. 8vo. pp. 696.

PROFESSOR Robison is well known to the scientific world. This work is intended to give the substance of his lectures in the university of Edinburgh, for the space of thirty years. The first volume only is published, and whilst we are writing we have to lament that death has cut off its author. In what state he has left his papers we do not know, but from what we have seen we feel a great interest in the completion of this work, of which the present volume contains dynamics and astronomy. By the advertisement of the author it should seem that in the short space of a six months session it was expected that a course of lectures in natural philosophy should be given, and on such a plan it is evident that "justice could not be done to the various branches of this extensive science." Of course the professor had the choice of one of two things: either to enter very superficially into every subject, or to omit some particular branch. With great judgment he selected the latter, and thus in one session he omitted magnetism and electricity, which were discussed in the next session, optics being then omitted.

This very rational plan was not however approved, and this work was to enable him to shorten the lecture, and to include "all the articles in one course." In what mould the students of Edinburgh are formed, we do not know, but their powers must be far beyond those of their colleagues in the south, if they can in so short a time digest to any good purpose so great a quantity of matter. The volume before us contains six hundred and ninety-six pages, and in it we find the most difficult things in the Newtonian philosophy. There cannot be less than another volume of the same size, and to read either, the previous study of Euclid, algebra, and fluxions, is absolutely necessary. Several pages require many hours' close application, and there is a danger that in such a course of lecturing, the hearers will retire with a very superficial knowledge of the articles discussed, and, what is worse, they will flatter themselves that they do understand the discoveries of our great philosopher,

which are meditated upon with such profound attention, and so much longer application, by the students of the university of Cambridge.

But, whatever may be the effect of the lectures at Edinburgh, this book will be found very useful to every teacher of natural philosophy where our language is known, and to the teachers particularly; to the tutors of Cambridge it may be recommended, as more beneficial to them than to the student. It opens with an explanation of the symbols; and in noticing the term ultimate ratio, the author justly observes that there is an impropriety in the term ultimate, because the ratio under that term is never attained. Hence he conceives that the term limiting ratio is more proper, and desires to be understood only in this sense when he speaks of prime and ultimate ratios. We can have no hesitation in acceding to this just distinction, and particularly so, because when Newton talks of two quantities being ultimately equal, he both unnecessarily and improperly gives a modification to the idea of equality of which it is not susceptible.

Having explained the symbols, the professor begins his subject with the nature of motion, under the two heads of uniform and variable motions, and the latter is subdivided into accelerated and retarded motions. From these we are led to compound motions and curvilinear motions, the latter being explained agreeably to the first proposition of the second section of Newton. Matter is now defined, and we enter upon dynamics. The three laws of motion are explained, and we rush into all the perplexities of forces, accelerating motions, and central. From them we are led to astronomy, the author giving a just reason why this branch of philosophy should take the precedence of the others, since "the knowledge which we can acquire in astronomy approaches near to the certainty of first principles, whilst in those other departments it is only a superficial knowledge of some very general property that we are able to acquire."

The phenomena in the heavens are first described, and in noticing the pre-

cession of the equinoxes a just observation is made, of the little dependence to be placed on the use ascribed to it by sir I. Newton in chronology. For we cannot, from the description by Aratus, be certain of the position of the vernal equinox within five or six degrees, and consequently the date of any event depending upon it will not be ascertained within four hundred years. On the astronomical phenomena we do not perceive much of novelty; the usual subjects are discussed and arranged in the usual order; but in the next part, physical astronomy, we were highly gratified with the developements of the discoveries of Kepler, the theory of Newton, and the improvements that have been made within the last century on the Newtonian system. The intention of the author was, as he informs us, "to assist the ignorant in the elements of physical astronomy, and to insert nothing but what seemed to be elementary in the Newtonian philosophy;" but we cannot flatter the ignorant that they will be competent to understand these pages without deep thought and reflection, nor the idle, however endued with talents, that they can derive much satisfaction from a cursory perusal. The theory of gravitation, the irregularities occasioned by the disturbing forces of three or more bodies, the figures of the earth and planets, the nature of the tides, the investigation of complicated expressions, and minute errors, are subjects which cannot be made easily familiar to ignorance, and never to idleness. The professor has, however, done in this part as much as could be expected from him, and the diligent student will, after a few perusals, acknowledge his obligations.

Our limits will not permit us to enter into the detail of particulars, for what would this be but to conduct our readers through the greater part of the *Principia*? We cannot, however, deny ourselves the pleasure of observing with what care every thing is introduced that has been used, or might be suggested for the establishment of the Newtonian system. Thus, on the attraction of matter, the celebrated experiments of Dr. Maskelyne on Mount Shihallien, and Mr. Cavendish on balls of lead, are accompanied with a suggestion that we hope may not be lost. The professor conceives that the rising of the tide at Annapolis-royal, in Nova Scotia, might afford a very useful experiment. The

water rises there above a hundred feet every spring-tide, consequently a leaden pipe, a few hundred feet long, laid at right angles to the coast, and filled with water, so that it should rise to a certain height in glass tubes, set upright at each end, would indicate by the water sinking at one end, as the tide rose, that the accumulation of water on the strand had an effect on the water in the tube. The same might perhaps be shewn by a long plummet or a spirit level.

On the subject of the inequalities of the satellites, to the remark made by La Grange, on the perturbations of Jupiter's satellites, one from the author is subjoined, which proves him to have studied nature in the true spirit of the old English school, and, like our great teacher Newton, not to forget in explaining the properties of created matter, the glory of the creator.

"In the course of this investigation, M. de la Grange has made an important observation, which he has demonstrated in the incontrovertible manner, namely, that necessarily results from the small eccentricity of the planetary orbits—their small inclination to each other—the immense bulk of the sun—and from the planets all moving in the same direction—that all the perturbations that are observed, may all that can exist in the system, are periodical, and are compensated at opposite points of every period. He has also, that the greatest perturbations are moderate, that none but an astronomer can observe any difference between this present state and the mean state of the system. The mean distances and the mean periods remain for ever the same. In short, the whole assemblage will continue almost to eternity in a state fit for its present purposes, and distinguishable from its present state, only by the prying eye of an astronomer.

"Cold, we think, must be the heart is not affected by this mark of beneficent wisdom in the Contriver of the magnificent fabric, so manifest in selecting for its connecting principle a power so admirably fitted for continuing to answer the purposes of its first formation. And he must be little susceptible of moral impression who does not feel himself highly obliged to the Being who has made him capable of perceiving the display of wisdom, and has attached to the perception sentiments so pleasing and delightful. The extreme simplicity of the constitution of the solar system is perhaps the most remarkable feature of its beauty. In this circumstance are we indebted for the pleasure afforded by the contemplation of it is this alone that has allowed our feeble understanding to acquire such a comprehensive body of well-founded knowledge exceeding, both in extent and in accuracy,

ny thing attained in other paths of philosophical research. But we have not yet seen the capabilities of this wonderful power of nature. Let us therefore still follow our excellent leader in a new path of investigation."

In this spirit our author pursues his researches into the figure of the earth, and changes in the heavens, which afford him frequent opportunities of displaying those pious and religious sentiments which are the true glory of the philosopher; and, after a very elegant inquiry into the nature of the tides and the causes of their apparent irregularities, he breaks out into the following animated reflections:

"726. With this we conclude our account of physical astronomy, a department of natural philosophy which should ever be cherished with peculiar affection by all who think well of human nature. There is none in which the access to well-founded knowledge seems so effectually barred against us, and yet there is none in which we have made such unquestionable progress; none in which we have acquired knowledge so uncontroversially supported, or so complete. How much, therefore, are we indebted to the man who laid the magnificent scene open to our view, and who gave us the optics by which we can examine its most extensive, and its most minute parts! For Newton not only taught us all that we know of the celestial mechanism, but also gave us the mathematics, without which it would have remained unknown."

Tu Pater et rerum Inventor. Tu patria nobis
Suppeditas præcepta, tuisque ex inclyte chartis

Floriferis ut apes in saltibus omnia libant,
Omnia nos iudem depascimur aurea dicta.
'Aurea, perpetuâ semper dignissima vitâ.'

LUCKÉTIUS.

For surely, the lessons are precious by which we are taught a system of doctrine which cannot be shaken, or share that fluctuation which has attached to all other speculations of curious man. But this cannot fail us, because it is nothing but a well-ordered narration of facts, presenting the events of nature to us in a way that at once points out their subordination, and most of their relations. While he magnificence of the objects commands respect, and perhaps raises our opinion of the excellence of human reason as high as is justifiable, we should ever keep in mind that Newton's success was owing to the modesty of his procedure. He peremptorily resisted all disposition to speculate beyond the province of human intellect, conscious that all attainable science consisted in carefully ascertaining nature's own laws, and that every attempt to explain an ultimate law of nature by assigning its cause is absurd in itself, and against the acknowledged laws of judgment

will most certainly lead to error. It is only by following his example that we can hope for his success.

"It is surely another great recommendation of this branch of natural philosophy, that it is so simple. One single agent, a force decreasing as the square of the distance increases, is, of itself, adequate to the production of all the movements of the solar system. If the direction of the projection do not pass through the centre of gravity, the body will not only describe an ellipse round the central body, but will also turn round its axis. By this rotation, the body will alter its form. But the same power enables it to assume a new form, which is perfectly symmetrical, and is permanent. This new form, however, in consequence of the universality of gravitation, induces a new motion in the body, by which the position of the axis is slowly changed, and the whole host of heaven appears to the inhabitants of this earth to change its motions. Lastly, if the revolving planet have a covering of fluid matter, this fluid is thrown into certain regular undulations, which are produced and modified by the same power.

"Thus we see that, by following this simple fact of gravitation of every particle of matter to every other particle, through all its complications, we find an explanation of almost every phenomenon of the solar system that has engaged the attention of the philosopher, and that nothing more is needed for the explanation. Till we were put on this track of investigation, these different movements were solitary facts; and, being so extremely unlike, the wit of man would certainly have attempted to explain them by causes equally dissimilar. The happy detection of this simple and easily observed principle, by a genius qualified for following it into its various consequences, has freed us from numberless errors, into which we must have continually run while pertinaciously proceeding in an improper path. But this detection has not merely saved us from errors, but, which is most remarkable, it has brought into view many circumstances in the phenomena themselves, many peculiarities of motion, which would never have been observed by us, had we not gotten this monitor, pointing out to us where to look for peculiarities. We should never have been able to predict, with such wonderful precision, the complicated motions of some of the planets, had we not had this key to all the equations by which every deviation from regular elliptical motion is expressed.

"On all these accounts, physical astronomy, or the mechanism of the celestial motions, is a beautiful department of science. I do not know any body of doctrine so comprehensive, and yet so exceedingly simple; and this consideration made me the more readily accede to those reasons of scientific propriety which point it out as the first article of a course of mechanical philosophy. Its simplicity makes it easy, and the exquisite

agreement with observation, makes it a fine example of the truth and competency of our dynamical doctrines."

We could with great pleasure transcribe more from this valuable author, whose manner of treating his subject, whether as a mathematician or a man of piety, does equal honour to his head and his heart. From the authors referred to in this work, which are

very numerous, the student will know to whom to refer for the best and most copious explanation of every subject, and in every research he will be greatly assisted by the previous information he has derived from this work; which will be, we doubt not, as we said before, a standard book for the teachers of the Newtonian philosophy.

ART. VI. *The experienced Millwright, or a Treatise on the Construction of some of the most Useful Machines, with the latest Improvements, to which is prefixed a short Account of the General Principles of the Mechanical Powers, illustrated with Forty-four Engravings.* By ANDREW GRAY, Millwright, Edinburgh.

THE theory of the mechanical powers, well drawn up, with some remarks on motion, practical directions for the construction of machinery, the velocity of machines, and the powers of various water-wheels, precede the description of various machines, chiefly for grinding, in the construction of which the author has been concerned, and in giving their plans he has taken uncommon pains. It is justly observed by him, that "machines or engines seldom owe their origin or improvement to considerations deduced from the laws of motion. They are derived from other sources. It is from long experience and repeated trials, errors, deliberations corrections, &c. continued throughout the lives of individuals, and by successive generations of them, that the practical sciences derive their gradual advancement from awkward beginnings to their most perfect state of excellence. To be a good mechanic requires the labour of a whole life. It is an art rather perfected by practice than theory. The principles of mechanism may be learned by books, but the art must be acquired by experience." It is true indeed that a mere knowledge from books would seldom enable a man to construct a complicated machine; but it is equally true that the practical mechanic, who, from the knowledge he has de-

rived in one branch of the art, attempts to make a complicated machine in which other branches are concerned, is equally liable to expose himself to ridicule. Just theory and long experience form the true mechanic. *Alterius sic altera poscit opem res et conjurat amice.* It is evident that the writer must be of the same opinion, or he would not have taken so much pains to communicate information to his colleagues; and we should have been more pleased if, to the description of each machine, he had subjoined the best estimate he could of its powers. Millwrights are seldom conversant with this branch of their business. They are content to form a machine upon the model given to them, and their powers are chiefly employed in constructing and adjusting the parts one to another, rather than ascertaining the precise effects of the arrangement. It is with mills as with ship-building, the artists can seldom tell what is to be the effect of their work. We recommend, however, to every millwright who is desirous of improving himself in his business, to read attentively what is said on the mechanical powers in this work, and to study the plans, by which he cannot fail of enlarging his knowledge.

ART. VII. *A Dissertation on the Influence of Gravitation, considered as a Mechanic Power, explaining the Reason why the Effective Power of the same Quantity of Matter in descending the same Height, is twice as great in its uniform Descent as in its accelerated Fall, and why twice the Quantity of Resistance is required to bring a Pendulum to Rest, when gradually applied to it, as when applied at once in its lowest Point.* By A. CUMING, F. R. S. &c.

THIS dissertation appeared at first to us rather too prolix; but when we considered the case of many ingenious persons with which the author must have had frequent opportunities of being

acquainted, we could not blame the pains taken to place the subject in the clearest light possible. The delusion of a perpetual motion seizes the imagination of the mechanic, and he wastes his

time in a pursuit which ends in the ruin of himself and family. To show him the impossibility of obtaining his object is a great benefit conferred upon him, and in this work the idea by which many have been deluded is developed, and the nature of the effective power of gravity is examined.

The more experienced mathematician will comprehend the whole in a very short time. Falling bodies, actuated merely by the force of gravity, go through about sixteen feet in the first second, and sixty-four feet in the two first seconds. The force of gravity is the same in each second, and therefore the effect of that force in the second second is, that the body should fall through sixteen feet as in the first second. Hence, by the force of gravity acting constantly on the body during the two first seconds, it is made to fall through thirty-two feet. But experience shews us that, in the two first seconds, the body falls through sixty-four feet, therefore a space of thirty-two feet is described for which we are to account. This we do by considering the velocity acquired at the end of the fall through sixteen feet, and with which, if the operation of gravity had been suspended, the body would have moved uniformly forward for ever in a right line; and the space described in the second second by this velocity being thirty-two feet, the velocity acquired at the end of the fall down sixteen feet, is such as will carry a body uniformly through twice the space in the same time. Hence, at the end of the second second, if the force of gravity were suspended, the body would move uniformly forward with twice the velocity acquired at the end of the first second; for the force of gravity communicates an additional velocity at the end of the second second, equal to that at the end of the first second. In the third second therefore, the body moves by the communicated velocity through four times the space it fell in the first second, and by the force of gravity, through a space equal to that it fell through in the first second; that is, through five times the space it fell through in the first second. In the fourth second, by parity of reasoning, it must go through seven times the space fallen through in the first second; and therefore the spaces fallen through from a state of rest, in any number of seconds, must be as the squares of the times. The last acquired velocity will also be as the

times, or as the square-root of the heights.

Let a body fall through a given space, which we will divide into four equal parts. The momentum of this body at the end of the fall, is as the quantity of matter multiplied into the last acquired velocity, that is, as the quantity of matter multiplied into the root of its height. The same body being checked at its fall through each of the four divisions, so as to lose its whole velocity by the check, would have a momentum at each check, varying as the quantity of matter multiplied into the root of the fourth part of the height down which the body fell without any check. That is, the momentum of the unchecked body will be double of the momentum of the checked body at each check, but only one half of the sum of the moment at the four checks. Hence, a body falling freely by the force of gravity, will communicate only one half of the motion that the same body would do by falling through the same space divided into four equal parts, and communicating the whole of its motion at the end of each check.

This being the case, it might be supposed that, by increasing the number of checks, a greater quantity of motion might be produced, and, by the application of this motion, a body that had fallen through a number of spaces might be raised again to the same height, and thus a perpetual motion be produced. But however the space down which a body falls from rest is divided, the quantity of motion, says our author, communicated by all the checks, cannot be greater than twice the momentum of the body at the end of the fall freely through the whole height. At this position we feel staggered, for upon the same principle that the author proves the sum of the moments of a body receiving the four checks in its fall, to be double the momentum of a body falling freely through that space, by dividing each of the spaces the checked body fell through, into four equal parts, and letting the body receive a check at each new division, the momentum of the body at the end of each division is one half of the momentum of the body falling through one quarter of the whole space. And the sum of the momentums of the body checked in its fall through the sixteen divisions, will be double the sum of the moments in the body checked by four divisions, that

is, four times the moment of the body falling freely through the first given space. And if we divide the given space into n equal parts, at each of which a body falling receives a check, the velocity at each check being to the velocity of a body falling freely through the whole space, as unity to the root of n , the moment of the body at each check will equal the moment of the body falling freely, divided by the root of n . As there are n checks, n times the moment at each check is equal to the sum of the moments of the checked body, during its fall, that is, n times the moment of the body falling freely divided by the root of n , or to the moment of the body falling freely multiplied by the root of n . Hence, if a body received one hundred checks, the sum of its moments lost would be ten times the moment of a body falling freely, at the end of its fall, through the same space, and by increasing the number of checks the proportion between the sum of the moments lost by the checked body and the moment of the body falling freely may be increased without end.

But if the sum of the moments of the checked body is so much greater than that of the body falling freely, the time in which these first moments are produced is to be considered, and that in the last instance will be ten times greater in the checked body than in the body falling freely. To consider, therefore, the relation between the moments of a checked body and a body falling freely, we should suppose them to be in action exactly the same time; and now, if we suppose a body falling freely whilst another receives a hundred checks at equal distances in its fall, the body falling freely will move through ten thousand of the spaces between two adjoining checks, and its lost velocity will be ten times the velocity acquired in falling freely through the space between two adjoining checks. Hence the quantity of motion communicated by two equal bodies, the one falling freely, and the other receiving any number of checks in its fall, is the same, provided the two bodies employ the same time in their fall.

We submit this examination of the question to the consideration of the author, whose language, at the conclusion of this part of his subject, we do not exactly comprehend. "After the time of the descent is prolonged, he says, to twice the time in which the body would

fall the same height, no farther increase of effective power can be gained by diminishing the velocity or prolonging the time. *The solicitations of gravity, which become non-effective.*" This last sentence is explained in a note, by saying that "the impulse of gravity must be obeyed with a certain degree of alacrity, otherwise it becomes non-effective." A metaphor is a very dangerous thing, and a subject very abstruse, and reduced to the precision of mathematical reasoning.

The ingenious writer seems to us to have been led into the mistake, by taking the ratio of two to one, as his limit from dividing the space fallen through into four divisions only, when that ratio certainly holds; that is, the momentum of a body falling freely, is to the sum of the moments of a body checked four times, as one is to two, or as half the height fallen through to the whole height. Hence he concludes, too generally, that the quantity of motion impressed at the checks being as the number of checks or spaces, it is as the whole height, whereas the latter motion is only as half the height. But the true ratio is to be derived from the last acquired velocity of the body falling freely through the whole space, and the acquired velocity at the end of each check. The ratio of these velocities being one to $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$ is rather a constant ratio nor a limited ratio.

According to our position, therefore, the ratio of the sum of the moments to the moment of a body falling freely, may be increased without end; but the time must be increased, and the moment at each check is also diminished without end; and the searcher after the perpetual motion derives no advantage by his checks. To make this clearer, let a body of one pound weight fall freely down ten thousand feet, its last acquired velocity will be such as to carry it uniformly through eight hundred feet in a second, and the time of fall is twenty-five seconds. Let another body of one pound fall down the same space, but receive a hundred checks in its fall, the space between each check being one hundred feet. The velocity, therefore, acquired in the fall from check to check is such as would carry the body uniformly through eighty feet in a second, and the time of fall from check to check is two seconds and a half. The momentum of the body when it receives a check is to the momentum of the body at the end

a fall down ten thousand feet, as eighty to eight hundred. But since the checked body receives a hundred checks, the sum of its moments lost will be a hundred times eighty, or eight thousand. Consequently the sum of the moments lost by the checked body is to the moment of the unchecked body, as eight thousand to eight hundred, or as ten to one. The time of fall of the checked body is a hundred times two seconds and a half, that is two hundred and fifty seconds. Consequently the time of fall of the checked body is to the time of fall of the unchecked body, as two hundred and fifty is to twenty-five, or as ten to one. That is, the sum of the moments, and the time in which they are produced, are ten times greater than the moment

of a body freely down the same space without checks, and the time of this fall.

Our limits will not permit us to pursue our author's examination of the experiments made by Smeaton, on under-shot and overshot wheels, resistance to pendulums, impracticability of forming a self-moving machine on mechanical principles by the influence of gravitation, and other points which deserve the consideration of the mechanic: and in differing in opinion with the author we trust that he will receive our remarks as a test of the true respect which we bear to him, and which is best manifested by the evident degree of attention paid by us to his mode of reasoning.

ART. VIII. *Elements of Geometry; containing the first six Books of Euclid, with a Supplement on the Quadrature of the Circle, and the Geometry of Solids: to which are added Elements of Plane and Spherical Trigonometry.* 2d edit. enlarged. By J. PLAYFAIR, F. R. S. &c.

WHEN a rich repast is set before us, to contend on the names of the dishes instead of enjoying the liberality of our host, might seem to be an idle waste of time; and whatever title professor Playfair may choose to give to his work, we cannot doubt that his talents will render it worthy of a perusal by every mathematician. But there is a strict propriety to which all men are bound to submit; and if men in common life, or those who cultivate works of imagination and most of the sciences as they are called, may occasionally depart from it, the deviation is less pardonable in a mathematician. This work is said to contain the first six books of Euclid, by which the common reader would naturally conclude that he should here meet with six books translated from the Greek of Euclid; and if some passages differed from others in various editions, he would naturally consider the change to be due to the superior talents and investigation of the professor. This is by no means the case in the work before us, which differs from other editions of Euclid not only from a difference in the translation or emendation of certain parts, but from an entire expunction of certain passages, and introducing in their stead what appeared to the professor more valuable than the words of Euclid. Thus, the very first line of the book is not Euclid's, but the professor's. "A point is that which has position but not

magnitude." The twelfth axiom is exchanged for this. "Two straight lines which intersect one another cannot be both parallel to the same straight line."

These are alterations which cannot be allowed to an editor of a work, and much less can it be justified to change the form of demonstration of a whole book. Thus, in the fifth book, scarcely a trace of Euclid is to be seen. There are his propositions, but the figures have disappeared, and an algebraical mode of demonstration is adopted. That there is a great advantage in using the algebraical mode we do not deny, but then it should be in union with and not to supersede that adopted by Euclid, which possesses a particular degree of elegance, and when well studied leaves the learner completely instructed in the doctrine of proportion, and without that study many, we fear, arrive at some degree of eminence in the mathematical world, without clear ideas on the subject.

It is not necessary to point out farther deviations from Euclid. We have sufficiently proved that this work does not contain the six books of Euclid; and it should rather be entitled Playfair's Elements of Geometry, formed upon the model of Euclid, and adopting most of the propositions, with their demonstrations, of the first six books of Euclid. How far the emendations are an improvement, may admit discussion; for

if the first line of the Greek geometrician is not very intelligible, our author's definition will as little assist a learner; and whether we say that a point has neither parts nor magnitude, or that it has position but not magnitude, we must have recourse to nature to shew what we mean by a point, before the learner can have an idea of it by the definition. The fact is, that it is a simple idea, and of course cannot be defined, and the attempt to do what cannot be done has introduced obscurity into the clearest of sciences.

The professor objects, and with good reason, to the twelfth axiom of Euclid, which he properly observes, though true, is not self-evident, and of course it ought not to be admitted into the number of axioms. But then he falls into a similar error, and introduces a "proposition which, though true, is by no means self-evident;" and he makes this strange remark, that the proposition he has introduced appears to be "more obvious and better entitled to be accounted an axiom." The fact is, neither of them have any right to be accounted axioms, and a geometrician is not to deduce any consequence from them till their truth has been demonstrated, which, in both cases, may be done with great facility. The remarks, however, on parallel lines, and the attempts to reduce that difficult subject to satisfactory demonstration, are peculiarly worthy of attention.

We agree entirely with the professor, that Euclid's is still the best book of elementary geometry that has been hitherto published; but we cannot ascribe its excellence to an arrangement most happily contrived for the purposes of instruction. On the contrary, the difficulties in the second and fifth propositions of the first book, which are insurmountable barriers to a number of students who have the advantages of instructors, prove that the author had not

so much the purposes of easy instruction in view, as to lay down the principles of his science in a manner to be adopted and embraced by the greatest geometricians of his time. The professor in his notes has very properly inserted an easy demonstration of the fifth proposition, suited to the capacity of a learner, and this we recommend to all teachers in preference to Euclid's, till the student by practice is able to connect together with ease the different parts of this proposition. In fact, Euclid's work is excellent in its kind, and we deprecate any attempt to substitute another system in its room until its superiority has received the approbation of the scientific world; but without an instructor, Euclid is the most difficult author that a student can take into his hands, and it would be well for all if they were in an easy method introduced into a general knowledge of the properties of lines and figures, before they attempted to walk in the path prescribed for them by their Grecian master.

The first book of the supplement, containing the doctrine, as it is called, of squaring the circle, or the ratio of polygons inscribed in, and circumscribed about a circle, is a valuable addition to the work, as is also in the trigonometrical part the construction of trigonometrical tables, and in spherical trigonometry Napier's rules are explained more fully and better than in the generality of works upon the same subject. As we said at first it could not be otherwise than that we should reap much instruction from every thing that fell from the professor's pen, and though we cannot recommend this work to be used by students in preference to Simson's edition, every instructor will be happy to avail himself of the very valuable comments with which it abounds.

ART. IX. *An Illustration of Sir Isaac Newton's Method of reasoning by Prime and Ultimate Ratios, comprehending the first Section of his Principia, and as much of the second and third Sections as is necessary to explain the Motion of the Heavenly Bodies.* By the Rev. T. NEWTON, M. A. F. L. S. &c.

THE author was a few years ago tutor at Jesus college, Cambridge, in which situation he had an opportunity of observing the perplexity into which young minds are thrown by the usual methods of explaining to them the reasoning of sir Isaac Newton. The care which he took to guard his readers from

conceiving quantities to be infinitely small, and, therefore, at times to be neglected, was unavailing. It has been the practice to assert that quantities are ultimately equal whose "difference vanishes with respect to the quantities themselves, which is meant to apply to all sorts of quantities, to infinites, and

infinitesimals; so that if the quantities compared are infinite, the difference may be neglected even if it be finite: if the quantities are finite, the difference to be neglected must be an infinitesimal; and if the quantities be infinitely small, then the difference must be infinitely smaller, or an infinitesimal of the second order, and so on. Thus perplexing the minds of youth with expressions of which they can form no ideas, and which can be of no use except to avoid a little circumlocution." In this manner the purity of the mathematics has been sullied at Cambridge, but they are beginning to see their error; and as several of their most distinguished mathematicians have protested against such an abuse of the reasoning powers, we may expect that they will in due time be improved, instead of being abused by an application to the clearest of sciences.

Sir Isaac himself has, however, led some astray by his own improper use of language. He talks of quantities and ratios of quantities, as being ultimately equal, as if equality could be modified, and things which in their nature must always be unequal, as the chord and tangent of an arc, could ever become ultimately equal. He, indeed, intends to speak only of the limiting ratio, and that is undoubtedly a ratio of equality; but the things instanced cannot exist under this ratio, and it is therefore an improper use of language to say that they are ultimately equal. We agree with this author that "the method of ultimate ratios is extremely perspicuous, strictly logical, and more concise than any other of modern invention;" for according to this method, "certain magnitudes are considered as the limits of others which are perpetually varying, and from the known relation of the variable magnitudes, that of their limits is discovered." Here is no difficulty in the conception, and it is a mathematical problem to find the limits of variable quantities; and if sir Isaac Newton had merely taught this in his first section, and not using the terms ultimately equal, had shewn that the limits of the quantities under examination were equal, a great deal of

time and trouble would have been saved. Our author, indeed, excuses him by saying that if he chooses to make use of such terms (as ultimately equal), "for the sake of brevity, and explains the meaning of them, we cannot object to it." This, however, cannot be allowed; for upon the same principle another writer might talk of square circles, and cubical cylinders, joining together two inconsistent ideas, and no two quantities can be called ultimately equal, unless there is an absolute equality of the variable terms in their last state.

It is certain that sir Isaac Newton's language has been the first cause of obscurity, which has been increased by his followers adhering more closely to the language than the sentiments of their master. His namesake is in the work before us endeavouring to bring them back to the true geometrical reasoning, and he does it in a very clear manner, shewing in a variety of instances what are the limits of quantities and their ratios, and proving the equality of those limits. The work will, however, be more useful at first to the teacher than the learner, and in reading the first section of the *Principia*, the remarks of this author deserve particular attention. Half of the volume is taken up with the first section, the remainder with the doctrine of forces. Both subjects are treated with great judgment, and we with pleasure observed that the writer had renewed his application to studies in which, from the specimen given some years before in his *Conic Sections*, we could not doubt of an addition to our stock of science. In his *Conic Sections* he improved considerably on the foundation laid by Boscovich. In this work he has placed the doctrine of his namesake in its true colours, and we hope that he will pursue a similar mode of investigation on other sections. The last proposition of the seventh, and the whole of the eighth section will afford sufficient matter for his pen, and the university press would, we should apprehend, be happy in assisting him to give to the public, in a better form, the fruit of his labours.

ART. X. *Scriptores Logarithmici; or, a Collection of several curious Tracts on the Nature and Construction of Logarithms. Volume 5. 4to.*

THIS volume contains upwards of a thousand pages, and is a convincing proof of the industry and energy of the

compiler, who has pursued his design with unceasing activity, and has nearly finished another volume of the same size,

with which, in the course of next year, he will favour the public. This volume contains fourteen numbers, of which Baron Maseres gives an ample account in a preface of a hundred and eight pages. The first is an investigation of sir Isaac Newton's binomial theorem in the case of the reciprocals of the roots of a binomial, by the baron himself. It is done by making the series $1 - Bx + Cx^2 - Dx^3 + Ex^4 - Fx^5$

all equal to $\frac{1}{1+x}^n$ and finding the

value of the numeral coefficients; the first three or four being found by an actual division of unity by the expanded

binomial $\frac{1}{1+x}^n$. Every step is

marked down with the author's usual accuracy, and it is a good study for the algebraist, who will here find no difficulty in his progress; and by going through the same operations with a pen in his hand, will acquire the art with facility of managing algebraical terms.

The second is the analysis fluxionum, by Dr. Hales, a strange compound of English, French, Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, fraught with philosophy and philology, religion and metaphysics, whose bearing on the general subject of the work is not easily ascertained. The third is a very curious demonstration of the binomial theorem, by Mr. Glenie. The remaining numbers to the fourteenth relate to questions on compound interest, in which various high equations are solved, and the use of logarithms is seen in their approximations. We have here Halley's treatise on compound interest, with an appendix by the baron; De Moivre's letter to Halley on one of his algebraical expressions; Robertson's investigations of twenty cases of compound interest; Jones's theorems, or rules for the solution of several questions relating to compound interest; Dodson's illustrations of them; Dodson's questions on the same subject, from his mathematical repository; Ward's clavus usuræ, with an appendix to it by the baron. The last number contains Dr. Hales's corrections and additions to his analysis fluxionum.

From this view of the contents it is evident that this volume is particularly interesting to those who study the more curious and intricate questions on compound interest, on which, however, we shall observe in general, that their so-

lution is not difficult, if it is attempted by the common methods of approximation, with the use of logarithms. Thus all of this form $1,090909 \times r^{21} - r^{22} = 0,090909$ having evidently two roots, of which one is unity, are easily solved.

For $r^{21} \times 1,090909 - r = 0,090909$ therefore r must be less than 1,090909, and by finding the maximum value of r in the expression $1,090909 r^{21} - r^{22} = 0,090909$, the greater root that we are in quest of is confined within very narrow limits, as it must be between 1,041322 the maximum root, and 1,090909; and also, as we know that the greater root is nearer to the maximum root than the lesser root, we are certain that the greater root is less than 1,082644. Hence, for the first approximation from the nature of this equation, 1,07 ought to be taken, and the root by logarithms is easily discovered.

A similar method may be applied to the equation $967,6481367 r - r^{70} = 966,6481367$, though we do not discover easily a limit from the term $967,6481367 - r^{70}$, but as it is evident that the root must be between one and two, and the maximum root being easily found, the solution is easy. We point out this easy mode because many persons are alarmed at the sight of a high power in an equation, whereas the roots in all equations of the form

$px - x^n = q$ are found with great facility, as far as seven figures, by means of the logarithmical tables. We may observe here that most of the equations being deduced from a previously settled question on the interest of money, the true answer is known; but though this is stated to be the true value of the root of the equation, this in fact is not the case, as may be seen in the equation $967,6481367 r - r^{70} = 966,6481367$, whose root by approximation is found to be 1,0599973, but the true root is stated to be 1,06. We allow that 1,06 was intended to be the true root to be discovered in the equation, resulting from the question; but 1,06 cannot be the root of the equation $967,6481367 r - r^{70} = 966,6481367$; for if we substitute 1,06 for r , the first term $967,6481367 r$ will contain nine places of decimal figures, and the second term r^{70} will contain a hundred and forty decimal places; of course the difference between the first and second terms must contain a hundred and forty decimal places.

But the third or known term contains only seven decimal places, consequently 1,06 cannot be the true value of the root of this equation, nor can any number be found which shall actually solve it. In fact, though we have not tried it, we apprehend the number 1,0599973 to be nearer the true value of the root than 1,06. Any person who will go through the equations solved by the baron, with a pen in his hand, will find no difficulty hereafter in the solution of algebraical equations.

We cannot put this volume from our

hands without expressing our high obligations to the baron for the services which he is thus rendering to the mathematical world, which cannot but be greatly improved by the perspicuity which prevails in his writings, and the example he has set will, we hope, excite emulation in the way he has recommended, encouraging the rich to collect the most valuable writings on the subjects of science they particularly cultivate, and by embodying them in a solid form preserve their memory and the history of science to future ages.

ART. XI. *Evening Amusements; or the Beauty of the Heavens displayed, in which several striking Appearances to be observed on various Evenings in the Heavens, during the Year 1805, are described.* By W. FREND, Esq. M. A. and Fellow of Jesus College, Cambridge.

WE are happy to find that the encouragement of the public has induced Mr. Frend to continue this admirable work, which is so well calculated both to amuse and instruct. Whether we consider the simple yet masterly manner in which the various appearances in the heavens are pointed out, the skilful connection of the digressions with the

main subject, or the genuine spirit of piety which breathes through the whole, we are amply justified in bestowing upon it our unqualified approbation, and earnestly recommending it to the careful attention of all young persons to whom the starry glories of the heavens are an object of interest or admiration.

ART. XII. *Elements of Natural Philosophy, explaining the Laws and Principles of Attraction, Gravitation, Mechanics, Pneumatics, Hydrostatics, Hydraulics, Electricity, and Optics, with a general View of the Solar System, adapted to public and private Instruction.* By JOHN WEBSTER. 8vo.

THE title-page is a sufficient information that the subjects treated of in this volume can be noticed only in a cursory manner, and the writer does not aim, as he very properly states his design in the preface, at any thing more than to collect and methodise those truths which have been "demonstrated by the researches of the philosopher, and to render them plain and evident to those whose time and education will not enable them to draw their information from original sources." The task which he has undertaken, he has performed in a manner which is highly pleasing and satisfactory, and his work may not only be read with improvement by those who have studied these subjects with greater opportunities of instruction and leisure, but will induce among other classes of readers, a desire for further information, and by bringing a variety of subjects level to common apprehension, may excite a spirit of inquiry that will be highly useful in the promotion of science. We may say of science, what is the peculiar

boast of the gospel, that it is preached to the poor; and those writers deserve peculiar encouragement who bring from the studies of the learned and the scientific into common use, the fruit of their laborious hours, and dissipate the ignorance and prejudices of the inferior classes, by making familiar to them that knowledge which the higher classes are apt to esteem to be part of their unalienable privileges.

In the body of the page are given wooden cuts, descriptive of a variety of machines and experiments, and those which are the more commonly used are the most numerous, and explained in a clear and able manner. Among them we remarked particularly various pumps, and the ingenious machine, which by the compression of the air raises liquor from the cellar to the bars of taverns, a machine which will probably be soon in general use throughout the united kingdom. In explaining also the nature of machines, continual reference is made to similar powers in our own bodies, or

those of other animals, and the processes of vegetation are well explained, when the doctrine of capillary tubes is considered, as are those of thunder and lightning, under the examination of electricity.

Upon the whole we agree with the writer, a person entirely unknown to us, that his work is adapted to both public and private instruction. In schools it would form a very useful course of reading, the teacher making it his business to dilate on the various subjects brought

before him, and encouraging his scholars to make the experiments that are here pointed out. The schools that possess the various machines in miniature here described, will send out scholars to the world who have derived much useful knowledge in the easiest manner, and lectures on these subjects would diversify agreeably their time, and render them more expert in the drier studies, on which it is in too many places too much employed.

CHAPTER XVIII.

GENERAL SCIENCE.

UNDER this head of our work there are only three articles. The new volume of the Philosophical Transactions possesses uncommon value. The Irish academicians by the publication of their ninth volume have acquired a new claim to the regard of their country; and the third volume of Dr. Rees's Cyclopaedia will not diminish the favourable reception which has hitherto been experienced by this arduous and meritorious undertaking.

ART. I. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London for the Year 1804.* 4to. pp. 404.

AS it is our intention to enter as fully as our limits will allow into a particular analysis of this interesting volume, any general opinion on its merit would be wholly superfluous. We cannot refrain however from sincerely congratulating our countrymen on possessing an institution so zealously and successfully devoted to the illustration of science, and which in the value of its communications to the public, unquestionably stands at the head of every other similar society whether domestic or foreign.

1. *The Bakerian Lecture. Experiments and Calculations, relative to physical Optics, by T. YOUNG, M. D. F. R. S.*

THE experiments are intended to prove the assertion that fringes of colours are produced by the interference of two portions of light; experiments which are easily made and whose results are clearly detailed. Application is made to the supernumerary rainbows, and the lecturer hazards his conjecture that the "luminiferous æther pervades the substance of all material bodies with little or no resistance, as freely perhaps as the wind passes through a grove of trees." We conceive that the author would be more likely to gain his point, if he expressed less attachment to his own system, and was more ready to allow the praise due to Newton for his researches.

2. *Continuation of an Account of a peculiar Arrangement in the Arteries of slow-moving Animals, &c. in a Letter from Mr.*

ANTHONY CARLISLE to John Symmons, Esq. F. R. S.

IN a former paper by the same accurate anatomist, published in the Transactions for 1800, a distinction was traced out between the arteries that supply the slow-moving and long-contracting muscles, and those that are distributed to the muscles whose contractions and relaxations follow each other in rapid succession. The present paper is a short continuation of the same curious research, with a plate shewing the arteries of the bladder of the tench, and those of the intestinum of the cavia aguti.

3. *An Account of a curious Phenomenon observed on the Glaciers of Chamouny, together with some occasional Observations concerning the Propagation of Heat in Fluids, by BENJAMIN COUNT RUMFORD, &c. F. R. S.*

THE phenomenon is this: on the more level parts of the *mer de glace* a number of cylindrical pits, like wells, a few inches in diameter and three or four feet deep, are formed during the summer, gradually increasing in depth as long as the warm weather lasts, and are again obliterated by being frozen up on the return of winter. The sides of these pits are perfectly smooth, and the bottom is a well defined hemisphere. The water which they contain being on all sides in contact with ice, must give off its caloric in every direction, provided this fluid was a proper conductor of heat, and in

consequence the pits would be shallower in proportion to their depth, and of a more irregular form. This however not being the case, the count argues that caloric is incapable of penetrating through water by passing from one particle to another, but is transported by each particle, either upwards or downwards according to the specific gravity of the particle compared with that of the surrounding medium. The count concludes this paper by expressing his wonder that Dr. Thomson should suppose the motions of amber, in water that is changing its temperature, to be occasioned by variations in the specific gravity of the amber, and not by currents in the liquor. But the ingenious author has forgotten to account for the fact, that if the upper or lower half of the fluid is coloured, the pieces of amber will pass freely from one into the other a long time before the coloured and colourless portions are mingled together, which delay certainly would not happen if the pieces of amber were moved only by being involved in a current.

4. *Description of a triple Sulphuret of Lead, Antimony, and Copper, from Cornwall, with some Observations upon the various Modes of Attraction which influence the formation of mineral Substances, and upon the different Kinds of Sulphuret of Copper, by the Count DE BOURNON, &c. F. R. S.*

THIS triple sulphuret has hitherto been found only in Cornwall and in one particular mine which has never been regularly worked. It is therefore a rare substance, and as yet unnoticed by mineralogists. The able author of this memoir first gives an accurate description of the external characters of this mineral and the modifications of crystallization, to which it is subject. He next enters into an inquiry concerning the difference between the common attraction of aggregation and the crystalline aggregation or polarity; this latter he divides into regular, irregular, and amorphous; the amorphous is considered as a peculiar mode of crystallization, to which chalcidony, opal, white steatite, &c. are subject, the essential character of which is that although it produces a crystalline grain and texture, yet it never gives birth to polyhedral figures. The count then enters into a very interesting discussion on the effect which the common attraction of aggregation produces on crystalline polarity, and shews that ma-

ny crystals, especially of the metallic sulphurets which have been reckoned perfectly homogeneous, contain a mixture of particles which do not obey the crystalline polarity; and, on the other hand, that some crystals are really homogeneous, which have been reckoned to be largely alloyed with heterogeneous particles. Hence he proves that crystallized minerals may and do exist, which when chemically analyzed, shall very nearly correspond and yet be decidedly of different species. Thus the tetrahedral yellow sulphuret of copper consists of copper, iron, and sulphur, and the octahedral pyrites contains iron, sulphur, and a variable proportion of copper, and specimens may be found in which not only the ingredients but even the proportions of them may nearly correspond; yet the mineral in one case will be a proper double sulphuret of copper and iron, crystallizing according to peculiar laws, and in the other case will be a simple martial pyrites accidentally mixed with copper, and wholly different in its crystallization from the other.

In the short space to which by the nature of our work we are restricted, it is impossible to do justice to this important paper, but we must content ourselves with earnestly recommending it to the study of the chemist and mineralogist.

5. *Analysis of a triple Sulphuret of Lead, Antimony and Copper, from Cornwall, by CHARLES HATCHETT, Esq. F. R. S.*

THE subject of Mr. Hatchett's analysis is the mineral described in the preceding paper by Count Bourmon. The method of analysis is the following:—the ore reduced to a fine powder, was digested in muriatic acid mixed with a little nitric acid, and entirely dissolved in this menstruum, except the sulphur which was thus separated. The hot solution being poured into hot water, the oxyd of antimony was thrown down and separated by filtration. The lead was then separated, partly by evaporation and crystallization in the state of muriatic acid, and the remainder by precipitation with sulphuric acid. From the residue ammonia dissolved out the copper and left behind some oxyd of iron, and finally the copper was procured in the state of black oxyd from the ammonia by caustic potash.

The constituent parts thus obtained were

17 sulphur
24,23 antimony
42,62 lead
1,20 iron
12,80 copper

97,85
2,15 loss

6. *Observations on the Orifices found in certain poisonous Snakes, situated between the Nostril and the Eye, by PATRICK RUSSELL, M. D. F. R. S. With some Remarks on the Structure of those Orifices, and the Description of a Bag connected with the Eye, met with in the same Snakes, by EVERARD HOME, Esq. F. R. S.*

LA CEPÉDE has noticed and recommended to future examination, an orifice on each side of the head of the yellow snake of Martinique, supposed to be connected with the organ of hearing.

From the present examination it appears that it has no connection with the organ of hearing, the whole apparatus being an orifice leading to a bag lined with a secreting cuticle. Their use is entirely unknown. They have hitherto been only found in several of the colubers and in the rattle snake, all venomous; but not in any of the genus anguis.

Another bag is also described by Mr. Home, connected with the outer part of the eye, the use of which he conceives to be that of retaining a lubricating water for the surface of the cornea.

These are all illustrated by plates, one of which is the cast skin of the snake's head, that shews these minute parts with great accuracy.

7. *An Inquiry concerning the Nature of Heat and the Mode of its Communication, by BENJAMIN COUNT OF RUMFORD, &c. F. R. S.*

OF this interesting essay we merely transcribe the title, reserving a full consideration of it till our next volume, where we shall notice it in conjunction with Mr. Leslie's valuable book on the same subject.

8. *Experiments and Observations on the Motion of the Sap in Trees, by THOMAS ANDREW KNIGHT, Esq.*

MR. Knight had in a former paper hazarded a conjecture that the vessels in the bark of vegetables which pass from the leaves to the extremities of the

roots were by their organization better calculated to transmit the fluids which they contain towards the roots than in the opposite direction, and this independent of the attraction of gravitation which in common circumstances operates in this direction. For the determination of this point he selected a strong horizontal vine shoot, and depressed a part of it while young and succulent into a pot filled with mould, but without making any incision in the shoot thus employed as a layer. In the course of the summer and autumn the pot was nearly filled with roots that had shot from the depressed part of the stem. When the leaves had fallen, the layer was disengaged from the tree, and each end was reduced to the length of five inches, reckoning from the roots: all the buds were also removed except one at each extremity, situated about an inch below the termination of the stem. In the succeeding spring both the buds vegetated strongly, and at the proper end of the layer the common appearances took place; the piece of the stem above the bud became dry and lifeless, and that portion between the bud and the roots increased in diameter during the summer as usual; but at the inverted end quite a different series of actions took place: new wood rapidly accumulated on the portion of stem beyond the buds, and roots of considerable length were thrown out from the same place, while no sensible growth took place in that part of the stem between the bud and the roots. Exactly analogous phenomena occurred in a parcel of currant cuttings which were planted, some in the natural and others in an inverted position, except that in these latter there were no terminal roots produced. From these facts Mr. Knight justly concludes that his conjecture was well founded; and he is inclined to suppose that the vessels of the bark, like the veins in the animal system, are furnished with minute valves which prevent an inverted motion of the fluids which they contain.

9. *Analytical Experiments and Observations on Lac, by CHARLES HATCHETT, Esq. F. R. S.*

THIS is a very interesting paper, not merely because it informs the chemist of the composition and properties of lac, but because it affords an admirable example of the method of analysing this kind of substances. The cause of this

inquiry which Mr. Hatchett has thus successfully pursued, was a fact communicated to him by C. Wilkins, Esq. viz. that the Hindûs dissolve shell lac in water by the addition of a little borax, and the solution being then mixed with ivory-black, is employed by them as an ink, which, when dry, is not easily affected by damp or moisture. This experiment was repeated with success by Mr. Hatchett.

The memoir commences with a short statement of the natural history and different kinds of lac, and of the facts which had already been ascertained by chemists with regard to this substance. The author then proceeds to state from his own experience the effects of different menstrua on the varieties of lac. Simple digestion in water will separate the greater part of the colouring matter: alcohol when cold will take up the resin and part of the colour, and when heated will form a turbid solution of some of the other ingredients also. Sulphuric ether dissolves part of the resin, but not so completely as alcohol. Sulphuric acid in part decomposes it, and reduces it to a thick black liquor. By nitric acid it is first changed to a yellow opaque brittle substance, and is at length dissolved. When the resin has been previously separated, the muriatic and acetic acids will dissolve the residual colouring matter and the gluten. Acetic acid when heated takes up for the most part the colouring matter, the resin and gluten, leaving behind only the wax. Borax in the proportion of 20 parts to 100 of lac with about 2000 parts of water makes a compleat but turbid solution, similar to those produced by the caustic fixed alkalies. The proportions of the constituent parts of lac are subject to considerable variation: the resin is however the principal ingredient, amounting to from 75 to 90 per cent.; besides this it contains a colouring extract similar to that of vegetables, a portion of gluten analogous to that of wheat, and wax exactly resembling that produced by the myrica cerifera or candle-berry myrtle.

10. *On the Integration of certain differential Expressions with which Problems in Physical Astronomy are connected*, by R. WOODHOUSE, M. A. F. R. S.

THE chief object of this paper is to exhibit the integral of $dx \sqrt{1 - e^2 x^2}$
 $\frac{1 - x^2}{1 - x^2}$
 for all the values of e , and to reduce

other integrals to it, and this the writer does in the following case: when e is small; when e is nearly equal to unity; when e is greater than $\sqrt{1 - e^2}$ and than

$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ and the contrary, and when e and $\sqrt{1 - e^2}$ are equal, or when each equals $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$. The analysis is carried on

with great skill, and it is shewn that the computation of the fluent of $\frac{\sqrt{1 - e^2 x^2}}{1 - x^2}$

is perfectly independent of the existence of the ellipse and its properties. The paper is of such an abstruse nature that it is impossible in the limits to which we are confined, to give the reader an adequate idea of its contents. The author has studied very attentively the foreign writers, and we agree with him entirely, that the aid derived from geometry by analysis is but small, and that when the circle and the conic sections are removed, "we only create for ourselves unnecessary and circuitous operations, by introducing curves into the discussion of questions purely analytical." This remark the writer will constantly keep in view, and our analysis will be greatly improved; the comparison of the results with the properties of curves will be curious, and lead to new discoveries in both; but the limits between the sciences of continued and discrete quantity may be well drawn, and neither stands in need of the other to defend its cause, though both may mutually assist each other in the promotion of science. The use of the foreign notation dx for x seems to us to be injudicious, the mark x is clearer, and in our eyes more elegant than dx ; and besides the foreigners used dx merely because d was the first letter of differential. Now the idea of difference is not the idea of a fluxion; they are two very distinct ideas, and the English seem to be right in their notation, as they have thus appropriate marks for fluxions, whilst the joining of d and its powers to x confounds fluxional with common algebraical terms.

11. *Observations on Basalt, and on the Transition from the vitreous to the stony Texture, which occurs in the gradual Refrigeration of melted Basalt*, in a Letter from GREGORY WATT, Esq.

THE present paper is unquestionably the most important in its class of any that have ever been presented to the Royal So-

ciety; and, while we contemplate its high merit, we cannot but deeply regret the premature death of its author. What interesting discoveries might not the science of mineralogy have derived from the mature knowledge of one in whom intuitive sagacity was combined with profound learning; and who, in early manhood and as it were by way of introduction to the public, has produced a work, of which the ablest philosophers might, without reproach, be proud! The interesting experiments of sir James Hall, on the effects of slow cooling, in converting the vitreous to the stony texture, as exemplified in the fusion of basalt, are, we presume, known to all our philosophical readers: but, as these were performed in small crucibles, and therefore upon only a few ounces of materials, Mr. Watt imagined that something more might be learned on this curious subject, by operating upon a much larger mass. Accordingly he fused, in a common reverberatory furnace for the fusion of pig iron, about seven hundred weight of amorphous basalt, known in the neighbourhood of Birmingham by the name of Rowley rag; the fusion was accomplished with ease, and at the expence of less than half the quantity of coals that would have been required for an equal weight of iron. A ladleful of the melted matter being taken out, and allowed to cool, presented all the characters of perfect glass. The remainder of the glass was covered with hot sand, the furnace was filled with coals, and eight days elapsed before the contents of the furnace were sufficiently cool to be taken out. The mass produced by this fusion and slow cooling of the basalt, was of an irregular wedge-shape, about three feet and a half long, two feet and a half wide, and from four to eighteen inches thick. From the diversity in thickness, and the unequal application of the heat, the regularity of its refrigeration had been considerably interrupted, and in consequence its texture was very heterogeneous; thus fortunately exhibiting all the changes of texture undergone by this substance as it cooled.

The first change of texture in the particles of fluid glass, is the formation of minute spheroidal bodies, like seeds, projecting into the bubbles, and accidental cavities of the glass, and thickly distributed throughout the whole mass; they are seldom so large as a line in diameter, being in general so near to each other

as to come into contact before they acquire this size. The mass becomes perfectly compact, possessing a flat conchoidal fracture, is opaque, of a brownish black colour, a somewhat greasy lustre, and resembles some varieties of jasper. Its magnetic action is very feeble, and its specific gravity is greater than that of the glass.

When the preceding formation is perfect, another series of changes commences, which is denoted by the appearance of secondary spheroids, essentially different from the former, in the centres of their formation being more remote from each other, and the spheroids consequently much larger; the diameters of some, in this very specimen, being equal to two inches. These spheroids are of a radiated fibrous texture, and so extremely compact, that when two come into contact, no intermixture of their fibres takes place; but they mutually compress each other, and their limits are defined by a plane, at which a separation readily takes place, by the action of external force: the compressing surfaces are invested with a rusty colour. These spheroids are formed of concentric coats, which separate from each other on being struck. The next change that takes place is the obliteration of the fibrous radiated structure of the spheroids: they become perfectly compact, and the same arrangement pervades the amorphous matter intercepted between them; so that the whole mass assumes a compact stony texture, possessed of great tenacity. Its colour is black, its specific gravity is increased, and its action on the magnetic needle is very considerable. The divisions between the spheroids, though no longer visible to the eye, are, however, by no means annihilated, and their rusty surfaces are often exposed by casual fractures. The sides in the accidental cavities in the mass are no longer granular, as mentioned in the first formation, but are mamillated.

When this arrangement is completed, a new, and still more remarkable change takes place. The texture becomes more granular, the colour somewhat lighter, the brilliant points, which before were very few, and very minute, become both larger and more numerous, and soon arrange themselves in regular forms; so that the whole mass becomes penetrated by thin crystalline laminæ, crossing each other in every direction, and lining the cavities with projecting crystals. The

specific gravity is still further increased, the action on the magnetic needle is prodigiously augmented, and the mass acquires some polarity. This formation is the last which Mr. Watt's experiment presented.

The remainder of this valuable memoir is occupied by deductions from the above facts, in which the production of amorphous, globular, and prismatic basalt, is most beautifully illustrated, and the impression of difficultly fusible crystals by those of easy fusibility, is shown to be no longer impossible, even on the volcanic theory. But these, and the explanation of many other geological difficulties, it is impossible to convey to the reader, without occupying a much larger space than we can afford; and this is the less necessary, as the whole paper is pregnant with the most interesting remarks, and will be the object of profound study to all those for whom the science of geology possesses any attractions.

12. *An Analysis of the Magnetical Pyrites, with Remarks on some of the other Sulphurets of Iron.* By CHARLES HATCHETT, Esq. F. R. S.

THE magnetical pyrites, which had been procured only from Norway, and some parts of Germany, was discovered by the Hon. Rob. Greville, in 1798, near the base of the mountain Moel Œlia, in Caernarvonshire. This Welsh pyrites is the subject of Mr. Hatchett's experiments. From two very careful analyses, it appears to consist of 36.5 sulphur, and 63.5 of iron; this latter being very nearly, if not quite, in the metallic state. By way of comparison, five varieties of the common, or unmagnetic sulphuret were then decomposed, and found to consist of 52.15—54.34 sulphur, and 47.85—45.66 iron. This result leads Mr. Hatchett to a very interesting inquiry concerning the effect of sulphur on the magnetical property of iron. He began, by preparing an artificial sulphuret, by adding sulphur to fine iron wire in a moderate heat; the substance resulting from this union bore a considerable resemblance to the magnetical pyrites, and by being placed between magnetical bars, acquired a large and permanent quantity of magnetic polarity. By distilling some of this artificial pyrites with sulphur, it combined with an additional quantity, so as to contain thirty-five per cent. of sulphur, yet still retained its ca-

pability of magnetism. By a further distillation with sulphur, it was made to contain 45 or 46 per cent. of this substance: it had now acquired the greenish yellow colour of common pyrites; but was still completely attractable by the magnet. Now, since metallic iron with forty-six per cent. of sulphur is perfectly obedient to the magnet, and entirely ceases to be so when combined with fifty-two per cent. of the same, it is certain that the limit of saturation is between these two extremes, unless some unsuspected change in the iron or sulphur has taken place. Hence there appears to be a strong analogy between carbon and sulphur in their effects on iron, a certain quantity of either enabling this metal to acquire and retain magnetic polarity, and a larger portion entirely destroying this capability; and, in this respect, phosphorus exactly coincides with the two former inflammable bodies.

13. *Account of the voluntary Expansion of the Skin in the Neck of the Cobra de Capello, or hooded Snake of the East Indies.* By PATRICK RUSSEL, M. D. F. R. S. with a Description of the Structure of the Parts that perform that Office. By EVERARD HOME, Esq. F. R. S.

THE curious apparatus of the hood of the cobra here described, is formed by an elevation of the ribs nearest the head, and a corresponding extension of the skin of the back. We cannot be well understood without the plate. No conjecture is given as to the use of this singular piece of natural mechanism.

14. *Continuation of an Account of the Changes that have happened in the relative Situation of double Stars.* By W. HERSCHEL, LL. D. F. R. S.

THE first part of this paper contains the arguments of this able astronomer on the motion of the double star α , of the twins, and the remainder the account of changes in various stars. From the list it appears, that of fifty changeable double stars, "twenty-eight have undergone only moderate alterations, such as do not amount to an angle of ten degrees. Thirteen of the stars have altered their situation above ten degrees, but less than twenty. Three stars have undergone a change in the angle of position, of more than twenty, and as far as thirty degrees." The other six have undergone a greater change, from forty to a hundred and thirty degrees. From the

changes in α Herculis, it is inferred, that there is a mutual revolution of the two stars round each other. From the extraordinary change of position of ξ , ursæ, we may expect in a few years to obtain considerable information on the cause of its motion; ω leonis is supposed to have a real motion, as is also π arietis H. 4, aquarii 144, has a real motion, whose nature cannot remain many years unknown, its velocity hitherto having been at the rate of nearly two degrees a year of angular change. The observations on the other stars are all curious, and deserving attention: but we may justly doubt, whether we have by any means a sufficient number of clear and decisive facts, on which the true theory of their motions can be grounded. Many years must elapse before this can be expected, but in the mean time every observation from this very accurate observer will be treasured up for the instruction of future ages.

15. *Observations on the Change of some of the proximate Principles of Vegetables into Bitumen; with analytical Experiments on a peculiar Substance, which is found with the Bovey Coal. By CHARLES HATCHETT, Esq. F. R. S.*

IN answer to the arguments which are generally adduced, to prove the vegetable origin of coal, and the other bituminous mineral inflammables, it is commonly and fairly urged, that the ashes of vegetables afford potash, by lixiviation, which those of coal never do; and that the vegetable resins, and mineral bitumens, differ in many essential characters, and are never observed to graduate into each other. The paper before us is therefore of peculiar value, as furnishing a satisfactory reply to these objections, and as connecting the vegetable with the mineral world, and thus consolidating several important geological phenomena into a harmonious system.

Among the specimens which sir Joseph Banks brought with him from Ireland, was a singular argillaceous schistus, formed by thin alternate layers of earthy matter and alder leaves; these leaves are of a blackish brown colour, and are in part, though not entirely carbonized. When examined by the reagents, they appeared to contain a substance nearly resembling vegetable extract, and a small portion of resin; but the tannin had wholly disappeared, and the ashes, after combustion, gave not

the smallest appearance of alkali. Here, therefore, was an acknowledged vegetable substance, forming an essential constituent part of a mineral stratum, and which, by some unknown agency, had been so far mineralized as to lose two of the substances which are obviously contained in the fresh leaves.

Bovey coal is composed almost wholly of trunks of trees, which, like all extraneous substances that are found in argillaceous strata, are remarkably flattened and compressed; so that a horizontal section of the trunk, instead of being circular, is a very narrow ellipse. This fossil wood may be traced, by very easy gradations, from a perfectly ligneous and fibrous texture, to a compact glossy substance, nearly as heavy, and strikingly resembling common coal. A specimen, intermediate between these two extremes, was selected for analysis by Mr. Hatchett, which, upon examination, was found to have lost its vegetable extract and other matter soluble in water, but still retained a very small portion of resin. Its ashes, after combustion, afforded no alkali. Adhering to the coal are sometimes found moderate-sized masses of a yellowish brown inflammable substance, resembling resin; and this being examined by Mr. Hatchett, was found to be a singular compound, consisting of

55 resin,
41 asphaltum,
3 earthy residuum

—
39.

Thus it appears that vegetable matter, when exposed to mineralization, first loses its tannin, mucilage, and all its other principles (except extract) that are soluble in water, together with the property of yielding alkali by combustion; then the extract disappears, the production of bitumen takes place, the resin begins to diminish, and the process finishes by the entire conversion of resin into bitumen.

16. *On two Metals found in the black Powder remaining after the Solution of Platina. By SMITHSON TENNANT, Esq. F. R. S.*

THE black powder remaining after the solution of platina, was at first supposed to be plumbago: it has, however, of late attracted the attention of chemists, and appears to be wholly different from plumbago. Mr. Tennant, in England, and Messrs. Descotils and Vauquelin in

France, were occupied upon it at the same time. The French chemists obtained from it a new metallic substance, characterized by the property of giving a deep red colour to the solutions of platina. Mr. Tennant discovered two metals, one of which was that which had been observed by Vauquelin. If the black powder is treated alternately with caustic alkali, and muriatic acid, it is divided into two portions; one soluble in the acid, and the other in the alkali. The acid solution is of a dark-blue colour, which afterwards changes to a dusky olive green; and, by further continuance of the heat, becomes of a dark red. From these variations of colour, Mr. Tennant has given it the name of *iridium*. The muriatic solution being evaporated to dryness, and afterwards dissolved in water, gave distinct octahedral crystals, which tinged water of a deep orange red colour. By simply exposing the crystals to heat, the acid and oxygen are expelled, and a white infusible metallic mass remains behind. Lead unites with this, and, by cupellation, the iridium is procured in the state of a coarse black powder. With silver it forms a malleable alloy, not decomposable by cupellation; with gold it also unites, so as to be inseparable by cupellation, or quartation; but, by solution of either alloy in acid, the iridium is left behind in form of a black powder.

The other new metal is contained in the alkaline solution of the black powder mentioned above, and is procured in the following manner: put the solution into a retort, and add sulphuric acid, and distil by a very gentle heat; a clear liquor is collected in the receiver, of a sweetish taste, and a peculiar pungent smell. It consists of water, holding in solution a very volatile metallic oxyd, which, from its odour, is called by Mr. Tennant—*osmium*. It may be obtained in a more concentrated state, by distilling the original black powder with nitre at a very low red heat. An oily fluid sublimes into the neck of the retort, which, on cooling, concretes into a solid colourless semitransparent mass, and this, when dissolved in water, forms a solution exactly similar to the first mentioned. This oxyd, in the concentrated

state, gives a permanent dark stain to the skin, and, with an infusion of galls, produces a purple colour, which soon becomes of a vivid blue. If the aqueous solution of oxyd of osmium is shaken with mercury, an amalgam is produced, and, by distilling off the mercury, a dark-grey or blue powder remains, which is pure osmium; when heated with access of air, it oxydizes, and evaporates with its characteristic smell; but, when inclosed in a charcoal crucible, and exposed to a strong white heat, it fuses into a button. In this state it is not acted on by nitro-muriatic acid, but, when fused with caustic alkali, it combines with it, forming the same compound as is produced by treating the original black powder in the same manner.

17. *On a new Metal found in crude Platina.*
By WILLIAM HYDE WOLLASTON, M. D.
F. R. S.

THIS is an obscure and unsatisfactory paper: the quantities operated upon were very small; and, as appears to us, this new metal, to which Dr. Wollaston gives the name of *rhodium*, is no other than Mr. Tennant's *iridium*. It is procured from the nitro-muriatic solution of platina, after this latter metal has been separated by sal ammoniac. But, according to M. Descotils, a small portion of iridium is always taken up during the action of nitro-muriatic acid on platina; therefore the solution from which Dr. Wollaston procured his new metal ought to contain iridium also; but, in the analysis which he gives of it, there appears only platina, copper, lead, iron, palladium, and rhodium; either, therefore, Dr. Wollaston's analysis of the nitro-muriatic solution is incorrect, or his rhodium is iridium. The palladium of Mr. Chenevix, which was supposed by that gentleman to be an artificial amalgam of platina and mercury, appears to be contained in the crude platina, and is probably a simple substance. This discovery Dr. Wollaston had made before Mr. Chenevix undertook his experiments; since, if we are not misinformed, all the palladium which was announced in so mysterious a manner, and sold at a much higher rate than even Hahnemann's pneum, was prepared by Dr. Wollaston himself.

ART. II. *The Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy.* Vol. 9. 4to. pp. 680.

THE most valuable articles in the present volume are the mathematical ones,

which bear strong testimony to the profound knowledge of the astronomical

professor in the Dublin university, and to his familiar acquaintance with the most abstruse and difficult parts of mathematical science. Dr. Richardson has communicated some interesting mineralogical information, Mr. Dunne has furnished a very curious paper, relative to the Indian tribes of North America, and Mr. Preston's three memoirs evince a cultivated taste, and a laudable desire for the prosperity of his country.

1. *On Dr. Halley's Series for the Calculation of Logarithms.* By the Rev. R. MURRAY, D. D.

THE great patron of science in England, Baron Maseres, has, it is well known, employed much of his time, and been at great expence, in collecting every paper of importance on the subject of logarithms; and in the sixth volume of the *Scriptores Logarithmici*, on which he is now engaged, the original work of Neper will be inserted, together with an investigation of various methods of calculating logarithms, particularly this which makes the subject of the paper before us. The generality of students, and of those who use the tables of logarithms, are content with the vulgar definition that they are a set of numbers in arithmetical corresponding to another set in geometrical progression, or if numbers are represented by the powers of a given number, then their logarithms correspond to the indexes of those numbers. The definition corresponding to the meaning of the term that they are measures of ratios, contains something too subtle, and is too frequently neglected. This was however the idea of the inventor, and the principal difference between him and Dr. Halley consists in the manner of extracting the root.

The subject is here concisely explained. By *rationcula* is meant a ratio of inequality very near to equality, thus the ratio of $1 + r$, or $1 - r$ to unity is when r is exceedingly small a *rationcula*. Let there be placed between unity and ten 999999999 mean proportionals, then will the ratio of unity to ten be compounded of 1000000000 *rationculæ*, each equal to the ratio of unity to the first or least of those means. Now if the ratio of unity to two is compounded of 301029995 *rationculæ* of this kind, then will 1000000000 and 301029995 be the logarithms of the ratios of unity to ten, and of unity to two. But unity may be

taken for the logarithm of the ratio of one to ten, in which case 301029995 will be the logarithm of the ratio of one to two. Now let it be required to find the first *rationcula*, of which the ratio of unity to $1 + e$ is compounded, the whole number of *rationculæ* being n ; then that *rationcula* is the ratio of unity to

$$\sqrt[n]{1 + e}$$

The great merit of Dr. Halley was in the manner of extracting this root, and the writer has laid down four lemmas, by which it is clearly explained. The essay was found among Dr. Murray's papers after his death, and was drawn up for the use of his pupils. The subject will be treated more at large in the *Scriptore Logarithmici*, but in its present form merits the attention of mathematicians.

2. *Account of the Whynn Dykes, in the Neighbourhood of the Giant's Causeway, Bally Castle and Belfast, in a Letter to the Lord Bishop of Dromore, from WILLIAM RICHARDSON, D. D. late Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin.*

A CONSIDERABLE part of the counties of Derry and Antrim is basaltic. The tract occupied by this species of rock is from twenty to thirty miles from east to west, and more than thirty-five in its greatest length from north to south; it comprehends the precipices of Fairhead, and the celebrated columnar rocks at Portrush and the Giant's Causeway. The basalt is divided into sixteen or more prodigiously thick strata, accumulated on each other, to the height, in some places, of 1200 feet. This enormous mass appears to rest on a bed of white limestone, about 200 feet in thickness. Below the limestone stratum, and beyond the visible limits both of this and of the basalt, there extends on the west a tract of argillaceous schistus, and on the east of sandstone and clay, alternating with coal. Dr. Richardson resides in the neighbourhood of the Giant's Causeway, and has been in the habit of attending to the curious geological appearances which present themselves on this bold and magnificent coast. The dykes which traverse both the basalt, and the adjoining sandstone strata, have especially attracted his notice, and, in the paper before us, are described the situation, structure, and other circumstances worthy of attention, of six dykes passing through basalt, and three intersecting the sandstone. These dykes are a few feet thick, and of un-

known length and depth, forming long compact walls, intersecting vertically all the strata in their way, and composed of basalt, either in horizontal columns, mixed sometimes with the globular variety, or amorphous. Of these, only one has been noticed before; and future mineralogists, when visiting this part of the country, will derive much advantage from a careful perusal of this interesting paper.

3. *An Essay on Credulity.* By WILLIAM PRESTON, Esq.

THE main object of Mr. Preston in this essay is to establish the position, that credulity, or a disposition to believe without evidence, is an innate principle of the human mind: that it is rather an emotion of the human feeling, than an operation of intellect. To this circumstance he attributes the amazing success, which some of the most bungling impostures have experienced, and the readiness with which the most absurd rumours have been believed. He then notices the mischievous effects of this principle, and enquires into the means of counteracting it. He disapproves of the statutes, by which spreading false news, to make discord between the king and nobility, was made punishable by fine and imprisonment, and contends, that the only way of safely and effectually checking the growth of this evil, is by the diffusion of general knowledge, and facilitating the publicity of important facts, by means of a free press.

4. *An Examination of various Solutions of Kepler's Problem, and a short Practical Solution of that Problem pointed out.* By the Rev. J. BRINKLEY, A. M., &c.

UNLESS we were to transcribe the whole of this very valuable paper, we could not give to our readers a true idea of its contents. The problem is well known to be of the utmost importance, and to have exercised the talents of the most eminent mathematicians. The present times, from the discovery of the two new planets Olbers and Piazzi, and from the probability that the number will be considerably increased by a more attentive observation of the heavens, call particularly for this investigation, and it could not have fallen into better hands, nor into any from whom greater advantage to science might be expected. Kepler's own solution, Boul-

liald's first hypothesis, and its simplification by Seth Ward, commonly known by the name of the simple elliptic hypothesis, Boulliald's correction of Seth Ward's hypothesis, Mercator's hypothesis, Newton's two practical methods, Cassini's, Machin's, Dr. Matthew Stewart's methods, Simpson's practical rule, Lacaille's method, are each examined in the order mentioned, and to these is subjoined a convenient practical solution, exemplified on the planet Olbers.

This solution takes its rise from Cassini's method; in examining which, it has been proved that the error of his first approximation depends only on the third and higher powers of the eccentricity. By considering the nature of this error, the writer is enabled to lay down the following practical rule for obtaining the true from the mean anomaly.

"1. Subtract the Log. of the aphelion from the Log. of the perihelion distance, and call the remainder B. B + the Log. tang. of $\frac{1}{4}$ the mean anomaly = the Log. tang. of an arch, which being added to $\frac{1}{4}$ the mean anomaly, the sum will be the approximate excentric anomaly.

"2. Add together the constant Log. 5.8144251, the Log. of the eccentricity and the Log. sine of the computed approximate excentric anomaly: the sum diminished by 10 will be the Log. of a number of seconds to be added to the approximate excentric anomaly, to obtain the corresponding mean anomaly.

"3. Find the logarithm C either by a table previously constructed, or by computation, viz. $C = 19.6989700 - 2 \text{ Log. cs. } \frac{1}{4} e$, being an arch the Log. cosine of which = Log. excent + Log. cs of the approximated excentric anomaly. When the approximated excentric anomaly is greater than 90° is also greater than 90° .

"4. Add the Log. of the error of the computed mean anomaly to C, and the sum will be the logarithm of the error of the first approximated excentric anomaly. This error has always the same sign as the error of the computed mean anomaly.

"5. The sum of $\frac{1}{4}$ B and Log. tang. $\frac{1}{4}$ the correct excentric anomaly is the Log. tang. of $\frac{1}{4}$ the true anomaly.

"Note, when the mean anomaly is greater than 180° . Take its supplement to 360, and compute the corresponding true anomaly: its supplement to 360 will be the true anomaly required.

"By the above operations, the true anomaly will be had to less than a second, for all the planets. In orbits more excentric, it may be necessary to repeat the second, third and fourth rules, using the corrected excentric anomaly instead of that first computed. And then using the second corrected excentric

tric anomaly to obtain a third, and so on till no error remains. The successive corrected excentric anomalies will rapidly approximate to the true excentric anomaly, as has been before shewn.

"Although a second operation will never be necessary for the planets, yet as a second operation is very readily performed, it may be used for two reasons. 1. It serves as a check, to verify the corrected excentric anomaly, and 2. when the sine of the corrected excentric anomaly is taken out from the lo-

garithmic tables, the cosine of the same may be taken out, which will readily give us the logarithm of the planet's distance from the sun, viz. $2 \text{ Log. } cs, \frac{1}{2} = 19.698700$ being the arch, the $\text{Log. } cs$ of which = $\text{Log. excentricity} + \text{Log. } cs$ corrected excentric anomaly."

The maxima of the errors of the three hypothesis of Ward, Bouilliald, and Mercator, for all the planets, are given in the following table.

	Mercu.	Venus	Earth	Mars	Ceres	Pallas	Jupiter	Saturn	Georg.
Ward	33	" 2	15	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	57	2	2	2
Bouilliald	20	0	" 1	" 1. 52	" 1. 8	" 39. 49	" 16	" 24	" 14
Mercator	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	" 1	" 2. 7	" 1. 19	" 45	" 19	" 29	" 16

The examination of Mr. Ivory's method, and comparison with those of his predecessors, occupies we presume at present the attention of the writer of this paper, and we may expect it in the next volume of the Transactions. That method struck us for its elegance, but the Irish professor will from more accurate investigation and comparison, assign to it its proper rank. From the labours of such valuable men what may not be expected!

Journal of the Thermometer, Barometer, Hygrometer, Winds and Rain, kept at Windsor, Nova Scotia. By the Rev. WILLIAM COCHRAN, President of King's College.

THE place where these observations were made is situated about ten miles south of the bay of Fundy; and the period to which they relate is, from January 1794, to December 31, 1796. The average yearly quantity of rain was forty inches, and the range of temperature from 1° to 87° .

A Theorem for finding the Surface of an oblique Cylinder, with its geometrical Demonstration. Also an Appendix containing some Observations on the Methods of finding the Circumference of a very excentric Ellipse; including a geometrical Demonstration of the remarkable Property of Elliptic Arcs discovered by Count ANN. REV. VOL. III.

Fagnani. By the Rev. J. BRINKLEY, A. M. &c.

THE difficulty of finding the surface of an oblique cylinder is well known, and when it is called insuperabilis by Dr. Barrow, no common sagacity would, we may reasonably conclude, surmount it. The theorem is thus expressed. The surface of an oblique cylinder is equal to a rectangle contained by the diameter of its base, and the circumference of an ellipse, the axes of which are the slant side and the height of the cylinder. This theorem is demonstrated in a very elegant manner from the following property of the ellipse, discovered by the writer. If the semidiameter of an ellipse be taken, which is a mean proportional between the semiaxes, and be produced to meet the circumscribing circle, then the point where the ordinate to the circle drawn from the point of intersection cuts the ellipse, divides the quadrantal arc of the ellipse into two parts, the difference of which is equal to the difference of the semiaxes.

As the rectification of an ellipse is requisite for the discovery of the cylindrical surface, the mode of rectifying an elliptical arc is laid down from the

fluxional expression $\frac{x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \times \sqrt{1-e^2 x^2}$ reduced to the form
 $\int \frac{x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \times \sqrt{1-e^2 x^2} dx$
 § L

P_x
 $\sqrt{a + bx + cx^2 + dx^3} + P$ being
 a rational function of x . an expression
 exercising the ingenuity of the deepest
 mathematicians, and from their re-
 searches the circumference of a very ex-
 centric ellipse may be derived from the
 circumferences of two ellipses, the ex-
 centricities of which may be as small as
 we please.

"Let b, b', b'' &c. be the semi-axes minors
 of a series of ellipses, the semi-axes majors of
 which are unity; so that $b' = \frac{4b}{1+b}, b'' =$

$\frac{4b'}{1+b'},$ &c. Then the rectification of two

adjacent ellipses of this series being known,
 the rest are easily had by the above-men-
 tioned theorem. Let E, E', E'' represent
 quadrants of three adjacent ellipses of this
 series, the respective eccentricities of which

are e, e', e'' then $\frac{2E' - (1+e')E}{1-e^2} = \frac{1+e}{2}$

$\frac{4E'' - 2(1+e')E'}{1-e^2}$

The terms of the series b, b', b'' rapidly ap-
 proach to unity, so that the rectification of a
 very excentric ellipse, is reduced to the recti-
 fication of two of small excentricity, to be
 performed by the common theorem.

"But when the ellipse is very excentric, a
 series may be obtained of as easy application
 as the common series, and therefore is to be
 preferred to the above methods."

Fagnani's theorem is applied from the
 circumstance that while the series for the
 whole quadrantal arc of an excentric
 ellipse is useless, from its slow conver-
 gency, a part commencing at the extremi-
 ty of the axis minor, may be found by a
 sufficiently converging series, and the re-
 mainder by its relation to the first arc,
 according to the theorem, which is de-
 monstrated in a very elegant manner,
 and will be studied with pleasure by the
 geometrician.

The paper concludes with a defence
 of ultimate ratios, a defence which does
 by no means seem so necessary to us as
 to the writer of the paper, nor does he
 appear in this instance to have added
 much to the discussion on this subject.
 The dispute must be referred after all to
 the improper language used by Newton
 in the first lemma of his first book of the
 Principia, where ultimo gives a meaning
 to *aequales* which the idea of equality does

not admit. Every one knows that the
 square of the hypotenuse of a right-
 angled triangle is greater than that of
 its side, and consequently the secant is
 always greater than the tangent of an
 arc. The secant cannot ever be said then
 to be equal to the tangent, nor can the
 corresponding chord, arc, and tangent
 ever be equal, nor can $\frac{x^2 - a^2}{x - a}$ ever be

equal to $2a$. yet equality is the limit to
 which the ratio of an increasing secant
 and tangent is constantly tending, and
 of the corresponding chord, arc, and tan-
 gent, and of $\frac{x^2 - a^2}{x - a}$ and $2a$. To find

this limit is evidently a mathematical
 problem, and it is evident that there is
 no absurdity in finding the limit of the
 increments of x^{12} and x^n by the com-
 mon method. For the increment of

being o that of x^n is $nx^{n-1}o + \dots$

$x^{n-1}o^2 + \dots$ the limiting ratio of which
 quantities is evidently that of unity to

nx^{n-1} not that o ever becomes nothing, x
 is supposed to be nothing, but the smaller
 it is taken, the nearer is the ratio to the

of unity to nx^{n-1} . We observed with plea-
 sure that this writer was very proper
 on his guard in determining the limit
 of $\frac{x^2 - a^2}{x - a}$ and avoided the errors into

which the Cambridge mathematicians
 are repeatedly falling, and in which they
 are likely to continue, of asserting that
 $2a$ could be equal to $\frac{x^2 - a^2}{x - a}$ when

is equal to a , in which case $\frac{x^2 - a^2}{x - a}$

would, if it could exist, be equal to
 nothing divided by nothing, or nonsense
 intelligible only to mathematicians
 mad. The authority of this very able
 writer will be of use in exploding this strange
 language, and freeing science from so
 an incumbrance. He has also properly
 noticed, in the application of the
 algebraical process to the method of finding
 the sine in terms of the arc, that the
 equation is not deduced by neglecting
 quantities infinitely small, a language
 to which the Cambridge mathematicians
 have been addicted; for to omit the ab-
 surdity of talking of a quantity infinitely
 small, the neglect of any quantity

equation destroys that equation, and reduces it to an approximation. We hope, and indeed doubt not, that this writer will continue to enlarge the boundaries of science, and, with the spear of Ithuriel in his hand, detect whatever is offensive within his limits.

7. *Essay on the natural Advantages of Ireland, the Manufactures to which they are adapted, and the Means of improving those Manufactures.* By WILLIAM PRESTON, Esq.

THIS essay is in fact a long treatise, divided into two books, each book subdivided into chapters, and each chapter into sections. The general positions and observations display more good sense than novelty, and the particular application of them to the state of Ireland, will obtain for the author rather the reputation of meaning well, than of that sagacity and accurate knowledge, without which the very best intentions are ineffectual and mischievous.

8. *Inquiry into the Consistency of Dr. Hutton's Theory of the Earth, with the Arrangement of the Strata, and other Phenomena, on the basaltic Coast of Antrim.* By the Rev. WILLIAM RICHARDSON, D. D.

IN this vague declamatory essay we find no objections that have not been repeatedly urged against the Huttonian theory, both with more acuteness, more knowledge, and a more philosophic spirit.

9. *Essay on the Rise and Progress of Rhyme.* By THEOPHILUS SWIFT, Esq. To which was adjudged the Gold Medal, proposed by the Irish Academy for the best Essay on that Subject.

THE jingle of rhyme, according to Mr. Swift, is naturally pleasing to the ear: children are continually making hymes; and the songs of all savage nations are composed in rhyme, often indeed irregular, but yet sufficiently so, to show that consonant endings were intended by the composers. Besides, rhyme not only pleasing, but assists the memory. The author then adopting Le Clerc's hypothesis, maintains that Hebrew poetry is in rhyme, and that the same mode of writing probably obtained among the dialects derived from, or of undoubted origin with, the Hebrew. He proposes that the earliest Greek poems,

or rather verses, were in rhyme, although he acknowledges that none exist in any ancient Greek poetry that is extant. The abandonment of rhyme by the Greeks, he supposes to originate from their pride, which scorned to be beholden to barbarians, as they termed all nations but their own; and also from the circumstance of their being a mixture of various nations, among whom the present Greek grew up by degrees. The want of rhymes in Latin poetry he ascribes to an imitation of the Greek, and also to a sentiment of pride in the masters of the world, who did not chuse that their own rules of poetry should resemble those of their slaves. He supposes this to be proved, because the monkish writers, who retained the language of ancient Rome, after its empire was extinct, composed in rhyme. That, therefore, it is absurd to attempt to trace the origin of rhyme from one nation to another, since the use of it is, as it were, instinctive, and the examples of Greece and Rome are only to be considered as exceptions to the general rule.

10. *Notices relative to some of the native Tribes of North America.* By JOHN DUNNE, Esq.

THE author of this paper relates, that he was adopted in place of a deceased friend, whose name he bore, by Tchikanakoa, the celebrated Miami chief, who commanded the united Indians at the defeat of general St. Clair. From his intimacy with this chief he was enabled to procure much interesting information respecting the state of literature, among these extraordinary people. "They have no idea of poetry," says Mr. Dunne, "as it derives its character from rhyme and measure. Their songs are short enthusiastic sentences, subjected to no laws of composition, accompanied by monotonous music, either rapid or slow, according to the subject or fancy of the singer. Their apologues are numerous and ingenious, abounding with incidents, and are all calculated to convey some favourite lesson. Their tales, too, generally inculcate some moral truth, or some maxim of prudence or policy." In proof of this, four fables, or tales, serious, comic, and didactic, are related, which, if no liberty has been taken with them, are certainly proofs of great ingenuity, shrewdness, and imagination. The comic tale relates the adventures of

a grey fox, for Reynard the fox seems as great a favourite with the Indians as with Europeans: the story is too long to be quoted entire; but we are tempted, by way of specimen, to make the following extract:

"The night overtook him, hungry and exhausted. He was then on the margin of a lake, where he observed men's tracks in the snow; these conducted him to a hole in the ice, where the neighbouring inhabitants had set a fishing net. Curiosity led him to examine what success these people were likely to have, and, having drawn up the net, secured the contents, replaced it, and loaded himself with as many fish as he could carry, after having devoured as many as he could eat; he returned by the same way, taking care in his return, as he had done in descending, to march in the men's tracks, and make no fox-impressions in the soft snow. After depositing his stock, preparing to go to rest, he was accosted by a wolf, who, led by the scent, asked him how he came by his fish, as he had all the indications of having made a wonderful great fishmeal. "Brother wolf," says the fox, who was afraid of his hoard, "come along with me, and I will shew you how you may do as I have done. You have only to go to the hole in the ice, to which these tracks will conduct you; sit down on the hole; you are provided with a much finer tail than mine; thrust it deep into the water, and continue there motionless for some space of time; the fish will at length begin to take hold; and as soon as you find by the weight that you have a sufficient number attached, suddenly draw up your load, and you will have a rich repast; by this method I took almost as many as I could eat in a single haul, your success must be much greater." The hungry wolf listened with avidity, thanked his benefactor, and in a few moments placed himself in a fishing position, with his tail in

the water; where, notwithstanding the intense cold, he remained without motion for a considerable time; expecting to find by the increasing weight the promised indications of his success. At length, supposing that his feeling was destroyed by the extreme cold, he resolved to see what he had caught: when to his great surprize, he found the hole entirely frozen over; and his tail so firmly enclosed in the ice, that all his efforts to disengage it proved abortive. Every moment the effect of cold and hunger was decreasing his force, and adding strength to his fetters, and the jests of the fox still added to his tortures. In the morning the countrymen arrived: who seeing the bones and scales of the fish, which had been scattered by the fox, and catching the wolf as it were in the fact, dispatched him with their hatchets, and after unprofitably drawing and resetting their nets, dragged the carcase of the wolf to the shore. The fox, with the flesh of the wolf and his stock of fish, lived luxuriously for several days."

11. *Some Considerations on the History of ancient amatory Writers, and the comparative Merits of the three great Roman elegiac Poets, Ovid, Tibullus, and Propertius.* By WILLIAM PRESTON, Esq.

This is a very elegant and amusing paper, but incapable of analysis.

12. *An Inscription on an ancient Sepulchral Stone or Monument in the Church-yard of Kilcummin, near Killala, in the County of Mayo; with some Remarks on the same.* By the Rev. JAMES LITTLE.

Mr. Little has deduced some very absurd conclusions from a very obscure monument.

ART. III. *Cyclopædia; or a new Universal Dictionary of Arts and Sciences.* By ABRAHAM REES, D. D. F. R. S. with the assistance of eminent professional Gentlemen. 4to. Vol. III. from ART to BAT.

IN the volume before us the biographical articles appear to be more numerous, and to occupy a larger proportion of the whole than in the preceding volumes. We are sorry to observe this; not that we think meanly of biography in general, or of these articles in particular, which are for the most part very respectably executed, but that in a work expressly devoted to the illustration of the arts and sciences personal history should be sparingly introduced, and be confined to those eminent characters

who have materially contributed to the advancement of knowledge.

The geographical and historical articles are numerous, and of various merit: in general, however, the shorter ones are the best. The account of *Batavia* is very satisfactory, and, though long, is by no means tedious: a similar but higher praise is due to *Babylon*, which exhibits both good sense and profound research. The topography of ancient and modern *Albion*, and the history of the extraordinary people by whom it was

once possessed, are detailed with all the impartiality and interesting minuteness that the subject requires. The *Atlantic Ocean* both deserved and would have afforded ample matter for a very curious and striking article, but is dispatched with an idle quotation of a few lines from a paper of Mr. Kirwan in the Irish Transactions, relative to the formation of this great receptacle of waters by the deluge. The writer of the article *Asia* seems to have considered Siberia as the most important division of this continent, by far the greatest part of the article being occupied with a detailed account of the Russian discoveries among those wild, almost uninhabited deserts, which are subject to the court of Petersburg.

In anatomy, the only very important subject treated of in the present volume is *artery*, which furnishes a neat but rather dry article. *Bandage* in surgery contains much excellent practical matter, and both asthma and ascaris are reputable specimens of the medical department.

The articles in the mathematical department are few, but drawn up with great judgment. The article *assurance* particularly deserves attention, and contains as much of that difficult branch of science as the limits of the work allow. Astronomy is confined chiefly to its history; and the physical part is not treated so fully, and with that care to mark the progress of discovery, as we could have wished. We were surprised to find, that in enumerating the works to which the reader might apply for more particular information on the authors and writers upon this science, the Bibliographie by Delalande, by far the most copious and useful work, was forgotten. Under the term *asymptote*, two curves are said to be asymptotical when they continually approach without a possibility "of meeting, and thus two parabolas, whose axes are in the same right lines, are asymptotical to one another." That parabolas of this kind never meet each other is certain, but that they do not approach to each other is equally certain, and consequently, according to the definition, are not entitled to the epithet asymptotical; for let two parabolas have the same common vertex, the parameter of the one being four times the magnitude of that of the other, then the ordinate of the exterior parabola will be double the ordinate of the interior

parabola when the abscissa is the same to both ordinates: consequently the distance between the extremities of these two ordinates, or the distance between two points of the curves where the ordinates meet them, is equal to the ordinate of the inner curve, and this ordinate increasing as the abscissa increases, the distance between the curves continually increases, and this distance will increase to a magnitude greater than any that can be assigned. Now suppose the two curves not to have a common vertex, and the principal parameter of the outer curve being to that of the inner curve in the ratio of m to n , then if the distance between the vertices of the two parabolas is called a , the ratio of the ordinates at the same point of the axis is that of $\sqrt{m \cdot a + x}$ to \sqrt{nx} , and consequently the distance between their extremities or two points of the curves is to the ordinate whose parameter is m as $\sqrt{m \cdot a + x}$ to \sqrt{nx} is to \sqrt{nx} . When $\sqrt{m \cdot a + x}$ is equal to \sqrt{nx} , then the two curves cut each other, and from that time the distance between the curves constantly increases, and if $\sqrt{m \cdot a + x}$ is always greater than \sqrt{nx} , then the distance between the curves may diminish beyond any assignable limit. Thus, let m be equal to n , and x be greater than any assignable magnitude; consequently $\sqrt{m \cdot a + x}$ is nearer to \sqrt{nx} than by any assignable difference; and the distance between the curves is to the lesser ordinate in the ratio of an indefinitely small to an indefinitely great quantity, or the distance between the curves is in this case indefinitely small. We have then asymptotical parabolas agreeable to the definition, but not all parabolas formed on the same axis are asymptotical, according to that definition. The error in this article may be easily corrected under the article parabola. Under the article attraction, in which that of large masses is well explained, and reference is made to Boscovich, we expected an ample account of his system, and that it would have been shewn upon what principle he explained the communication of motion by one to another without contact, as also the impossibility of contact in nature. Perhaps it is intended that this should appear under the article Boscovich in biography, which deserves a considerable degree of attention, and in which we hope to find

a full account of a philosopher whose researches have been very much slighted by English mathematicians.

Atmosphere is valuable as far as it goes, but the theories and observations of some modern writers of great merit are not noticed. *Aurora borealis* contains a very full, complete, and methodized account of the state of knowledge relative to this beautiful and curious phenomenon. *Barometer* is composed in the exhaustive German style, and will be resorted to by authors of less research as an invaluable treasure.

There are some agricultural articles in the volume before us, which although written, as an American would say, lengthily, possess, however, much intrinsic merit. The question concerning the effect of *ashes* as a manure is remarkably well discussed; the cultivation of *barley*, and the construction of *barns*, are also ably and usefully treated of.

In mineralogy there is no article that particularly demands notice; and the only chemical subjects of importance are *axot* and *balsams*. *Bark* in vegetable physiology is an interesting subject, and is noticed with adequate minuteness.

Under the head of antiquarian topography and history are the British remains at *Avebury*, which are particularly described. *Barrow* is an entertaining, though not a very profound article. *Burd* is very superficial, and very erroneous: the writer quotes Mac Pherson's Ossian as true history.

The most original and instructive article, however, in the whole volume, and which exhibits most decidedly the hand of a master, is *basso-relievo*. We have little hesitation in attributing this to the taste and science of Mr. Flaxman. After defining the term, the author proceeds to trace the history of this branch of art. Acquiescing with the writer of the article in the *Encyclopedie*, that basso-relievo owes its birth to figured or hieroglyphic writing, Mr. Flaxman proceeds to characterize the Egyptian basso-relievos as being the oldest: "in these the figure is sunk in such a manner that the surface of the ground forms an enclosure or outline whose greatest depth is equal to the greatest projection of the figure."

"We find in the Egyptian figures, compounded of different animals, that each part is a copy of nature. In the human figure, the body and limbs were represented in general forms. The face, as being the most

interesting part of the person, was more minutely expressed. The form of the face was a rounded egg, lines of the eyebrows and lids, simple curves, inclining upwards from the nose, the bottom of the nose and the line of the mouth inclined upwards in the same direction with the eyes. The eyes were full, nearly on a level with the forehead and cheeks, and the lines of the eye-brows, lids, and borders of the lips, marked with precision. The chin appeared small and bony, the neck round, the shoulders high and broad, except the marking of the breast, little distinction of the muscular form in any part of the body and limbs, the limbs narrow, the limbs round, rather straight and slender, their joints slightly indicated, the hands and feet rather flat, the fingers and toes rounded, without the appearance of joints, and nearly of the same length."

"The quadrupeds on Egyptian monuments are represented in profile, and in the simplest attitudes. The parts of which they are composed are fewer and more gross than those in the human figure. This is the reason why the Egyptians excelled in the animals; the mechanical manner in which the shoulder is drawn of the lion and sphinx (where they have displayed more anatomy than in any other part) presents a sight, but not just account of the structure of the member of the body: these observations apply to the state of sculpture before the time of Alexander the Great; after which period partook of the improvements introduced by its Grecian conquerors."

From the Egyptian the author proceeds to the Indian and Persian basso-relievos, and then enters upon an examination of those of Greece. The Greeks seem to have taken up the art where the Egyptians left it, there being a very striking similarity between the earliest Greek basso-relievos and the best of the Egyptian ones. The Egyptian gems, as they are called, are supposed with high probability to have been executed by Greek artists. The style of the basso-relievos of Greece prior to the time of Pericles is then analysed and illustrated by references to examples from which we learn, first, their method of representing the gods; secondly, the manner of drawing the human figure and its actions; and, thirdly, the distinguishing characteristics of the styles of Phidias, &c. The age of Phidias is passed in review, as far as concerns the exquisite basso-relievos which were executed by the hands or under the direction of this great master, and which are now in the mutilated state to which they have been reduced by time and

barbarian violence, are objects of de-
pairing imitation to the best of our mo-
dern artists.

“ The execution of these works is equal
to the conception; the sentiment is elevated
and fit, the composition is noble, full, and
various; the gods are sublime and beautiful,
their positions present dignity and repose;
the heroes are vigorous and active, and an
admirable simplicity reigns through the
whole; whether you are roused by the ter-
rific engagement of a Centaur and a Lapitha,
or captivated by the modesty of the virgin
chorusses. In the battles, the figure is shewn
in those elastic curves and varied movements,
those uncommon but advantageous situa-
tions, which equally excite surprise and ad-
miration; every part is intelligible; they oc-
cupy such spaces of the ground as leave suf-
ficient blank to render the outline distinct;
and their quantities are so distributed, that
one part is not bare while another is
crowded; the lines themselves also become
an ornament. The stories are told by one
plan or ground of figures; and, like the
principal characters in the tragedies of *Æs-
chylus*, *Euripides*, and *Sophocles*, their ef-
fect is weakened by no under-plot of inferior
heroes. The drawing of the figures is of the
finest style, the outline and forms are chosen,
the greater parts boldly expressed, the lesser
parts delicately indicated, but not more than
necessary ”

The account of the basso-relievos of
Italy is introduced by the sculptured
comb supposed by D'Ankarville to

be that of Tarquin the elder: the tri-
umphal arches and columns, and sarco-
phagi, are then noticed, and the gra-
dual decline of the art till the age of
Constantine. The revival of this branch
of sculpture is dated from the year 1063,
when the cathedral at Pisa began to be
built. The works of Nicolo Pisano and
his scholars in the thirteenth century are
mentioned with merited praise; and the
gate of the baptistery of St. John in
Florence, of which Michael Angelo said
that it deserved to be the gate of Para-
dise.

Mr. Flaxman then shows that the
Christian religion presents personages
and subjects equally favourable to sculp-
ture as are to be found in the ancient
classics, suggests some very judicious
hints on the choice of subjects, and the
manner of treating them, and concludes
this very interesting article with an enu-
meration of the finest antique basso-
relievos which are to be found in the
cabinets of England.

The volume before us is further en-
riched with two architectural articles of
merit, namely, *basilica* and *baths*; and
with a long account of *banks*, and the
bank of England in particular.

The last article is *battalion*, which is
treated of with all the minuteness of the
regulation book, as if it was drawn up
by some volunteer officer for the use of
his parish association.

CHAPTER XIX.

EXPERIMENTAL PHILOSOPHY.

THE second volume of M. Klaproth's *Analytical Essays* is by far the most important of the contents of the present chapter: it is a mine of highly valuable facts, to which the practical chemist will recur again and again with undiminished satisfaction. M. Tingry's *Treatise on Varnishes* will be found to be a useful and well arranged collection of information, relative to all the branches of this beautiful and important art. Mr. Howard's *Treatise on the Modifications of Clouds* is very creditable to the author, as opening a scientific road to a department of meteorology that has hitherto been, for the most part, abandoned to the casual observation of the vulgar. The *Researches into the Laws of Affinity* by M. Berthollet, and the *Chemical Statics* of the same author, will no doubt be received by the public with all the deference which is due to so judicious and acute a philosopher. Mr. Leslie's interesting work on heat ought also to grace the present chapter, but we are unavoidably obliged to postpone it to our next volume.

ART. I. *Analytical Essays towards promoting the Chemical Knowledge of Mineral Substances.* By MARTIN HENRY KLAPROTH. Vol. II. Translated from the German. 8vo. pp. 267.

THE name of Klaproth ranks among the very first of practical chemists, and the sciences of chemistry and mineralogy are under unspeakable obligations to him, not only for the accurate analyses that he has made, and the new substances which he has discovered, but for the precision which he has introduced into the art of analysis itself, by the application of new menstrua, by improved methods of using the old ones, and especially by the establishment of the fundamental rule that no substance can be reckoned to be properly analysed, till every portion of it has been brought into solution. The former volume of these masterly essays was published some years ago, and the present will, we doubt not, be received by the chemists of England with the same satisfaction as its predecessor.

The first essay, entitled an examination of the auriferous ores of Transylvania, is uncommonly valuable. The substances here analysed are the aurum problematicum, aurum graphicum, yellow

low auriferous ore, and foliated auriferous ore. Besides the gold, lead, silver, and copper which had been already observed, the presence of another metallic substance was indicated, which was at first supposed to be antimony, by others bismuth. The celebrated Bergmann, from the results of his own experiments, suspected that the first of these ores which was the only one which he examined, contained a new metal. The ores themselves are very rare, and it was probable that the precise nature of their contents would long remain in uncertainty; but fortunately a sufficient quantity was put in M. Klaproth's hands to enable him to undertake a minute examination of these obscure minerals. The result of his inquiries is the discovery of a new metal, called by him tellurium, and which forms 92.5 per cent of the aurum problematicum: the leading properties of this new metal were also ascertained by M. Klaproth, and are recorded in this essay.

The next article of considerable

portance is the analysis of the newly discovered mineral called gadolinite. This had already been examined by professor Gadolin, who had detected in it a new earth, called yttria, from Ytterby in Sweden, whence the mineral is procured. By the experiments which are described in the present essay, the analyses of Gadolin and Ekeberg are confirmed and corrected, and the claim of yttria to the character of a peculiar earth is fully substantiated.

The analysis of the saline deposit of the hot spring, at Sasso in Sienna, (hence called by the name of Sassolin) will be read with interest, on account of the unusual result of boracic acid, in the proportion of 86 per cent. which it afforded.

In the mellilite or honigstein, M. Klaproth has discovered a new acid not very different from the benzoic combined with alumine.

The 85th essay is devoted to an examination of umber, a substance of great use to painters, and concerning the nature of which, there has been much difference among chemists, some considering it as vegetable matter in an advanced state of decomposition, and others regarding it as a colorific earth, analogous to yellow earth. That which was made use of in the present analysis came from the island of Cyprus, and consists of the oxyds of iron and manganese, mixed with a small proportion of siler and alumine.

The muriated lead of Derbyshire, an extremely rare mineral, and the only substance in which muriatic acid is found combined with this metal, is the subject of the 86th essay: this, together with the two succeeding essays on the native phosphats and sulphats of lead, will be greatly esteemed by the metallurgical chemist.

In the 96th essay a new species of copper, the native phosphat from Firneberg, which had been erroneously ranked among the malachites by Nose and Karsten, is described and analysed.

The examination of kryolite, a new mineral lately brought from Greenland, is peculiarly interesting, as it turns out to be a new salt, composed of fluoric acid, soda, and alumine. In this the proportion of pure dried soda is no less than 36 per cent. The presence of fixed alkali, as an essential constituent of some of the hard fossils, was, we believe, first ascertained by Klaproth in

his analysis of leucite; he found it to contain 20 per cent. of potash; Dr. Kennedy then discovered soda in the lavas of Etna, and in some of the Scottish basalts; Vauquelin detected potash in compact felspar; and from the volume now before us we perceive that the persevering sagacity of the author has found both soda and potash in several other minerals, a discovery of no small importance in geology, and which perhaps may be found advantageous in an economical point of view. The klingstein, a variety of hornstone porphyry, a substance of which many mountainous tracts are almost entirely composed, contains more than eight per cent. of dry soda; the pitchstone of Meisen also contains a small portion of the same alkali; the pumice yielded on analysis 3 per cent. of a mixture of soda and potash; and in the pearlstone, a new mineral from Hungary, M. Klaproth found $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of potash.

The former volume of this valuable work is of unspeakable use to the practical chemist, as illustrating the efficacy and mode of employing the most powerful agents of chemical analysis, and in ascertaining, with extreme accuracy, the constituent parts of metallic and other precipitates, from which the results of analyses are generally calculated. The mode of subdividing the gems and other refractory minerals, by means of caustic alkali, was invented and brought to perfection by Klaproth, and many examples of its application occur in the former part of these essays. Nor will the volume before us be deemed of less importance in this respect: the careful reader will observe that the author has made some addition to his list of reagents, and has discarded others, the action of which was not sufficiently precise: some of the most important of these we shall proceed to point out.

The application of the succinats of soda and ammonia, in separating iron from manganese, will be found in the essays on gadolinite and umber; but this method does not appear to be much superior to the old one, which we find still retained by Klaproth, page 250, and which, with proper care, is certainly capable of effecting a very accurate separation of these metals.

Of the use of carbonated potash, and nitrated barytes, in decomposing the metallic sulphats, a good example occurs in the essay on the sulphats of lead.

As a precipitate for arsenic, M. Klaproth now uses acetat of lead, instead of the less accurate mode of proceeding made use of in his former volume.

In ascertaining the quantities of copper and lead in a mineral, M. Klaproth still prefers his old method of precipitating them in their metallic state by iron and zinc, to the method adopted by Mr. Hatchet, of converting the copper to brown oxyd, and the lead to sulphat.

The most original and important agent, however, which chemistry will derive from the present volume, is barytes, as a substitute in certain cases for caustic alkali. Those refractory minerals which contain soda or potash, and sometimes both together, cannot be very conveniently brought to a soluble state by means of the alkalis, without throwing some uncertainty on the alkaline contents of the mineral itself; whereas,

by making use of barytes, all the good effects of potash are obtained without its ambiguity. The method is to mix the pulverized mineral with nitrated barytes, and by exposing the mass to a red heat, to drive off the acid, and thus overcome the refractoriness of the mineral by the action of the barytes; the whole being then taken up by nitric or muriatic acid, the barytes is completely separated by sulphuric acid.

As this work is not likely to be consulted, except on account of the valuable facts which it contains, the translator will be considered as having performed the most essential part of his duty if he has guarded against ambiguity and error. We have no fault to find with him on this head, and can therefore readily forgive the numerous idiomatical mistakes, which clearly show that German is his native language.

ART. II. *Elements of Galvanism, in Theory and Practice; with a comprehensive View of its History, from the first Experiments of Galvani to the present Time; containing also, Practical Directions for Constructing the Galvanic Apparatus, and plain Systematic Instructions for Performing all the various Experiments. Illustrated with a great number of Copper-plates.* By C. H. WILKINSON. 2 vols. 8vo.

THE peculiar interest which was excited in all parts of Europe, by the phenomena of galvanism, naturally gave birth to a great variety of dissertations. Many of these contained little more than flimsy speculations, which are already consigned to a merited oblivion. Not a few, however, were enriched by valuable experiments and well digested hypotheses, either immediately leading to some important discovery, or overthrowing conjectures which had been previously advanced. Many of these communications were presented to the public through the medium of periodical publications, or the transactions of learned societies, of course, scattered through different parts of Europe, and written in the native languages of their respective authors. It is therefore obvious, that a work of the nature of Mr. Wilkinson's, if well executed, must be materially serviceable to the interests of science, by collecting into one uniform series these scattered fragments, thus exhibiting the progress that has been made, and of course marking out the parts that require farther investigation. The value of such a work must obviously depend upon the diligence which has been exercised in the collection of materials, the judgment with which they

are selected, the method in which they are arranged, and the perspicuity with which they are announced. The historical detail occupies the whole of the first and nearly half of the second volume; the remainder is occupied in the development of the peculiar theory which has been adopted by the author. The plan of the first part of the work is principally that of the chronological order of the discoveries, though in some cases this has been violated, for the purpose of introducing a more systematic view of any particular branch of the subject.

It would carry us too far beyond the limits prescribed to our undertaking, were we to attempt a complete analysis of the historical part of this work. We shall therefore only notice those points which appear to us peculiarly deserving of commendation or of censure, reserving for a more close investigation the parts in which our author either supports opinions peculiar to himself, or contrary to those generally established.

The first chapter is principally occupied with a detail of the original discoveries of Galvani, and the hypothesis which he formed to account for them. Although in the first instance he was indebted to accident, yet he manifested very considerable penetration and ability

in the prosecution of this new branch of science, and the view which is given of the labours of this philosopher is, upon the whole, interesting. We think, however, that the detail of Galvani's hypothetical doctrines is unnecessarily extended, as it seems to be now generally admitted, that he was fundamentally wrong in his idea, that the phenomena, which have been since styled galvanic, were essentially dependent upon the peculiar organization of the animal body.

After Galvani, one of the most assiduous labourers in this new field was Balli; the account which is given of his experiments is, we think, too minute, as no important discovery resulted from them, and his hypothetical notions, which were at first somewhat rude, are now entirely abandoned. At this time the attention was principally directed to ascertain, whether the motions excited in animals, by the contact of the metals, depended upon an inherent power residing in the nerves or muscles, or both, or whether they merely proceeded from the delicate sensibility of the body to very minute quantities of electricity. The relation which animal electricity bears to vitality became a subject of discussion; some physiologists of eminence imagined, that the electric fluid at all times circulates through the system, forms an essential part of it, and is the immediate cause of the phenomena of life; others conceived it to be in all instances derived *ab extra*, and when introduced into the body, they supposed that it acted upon the sensible and irritable fibre in the same manner with other stimuli. As the interest excited by Galvani's discovery became more widely extended, experimenters arose in every quarter; they diversified in every possible way the arrangement of the apparatus, and examined, with the most minute attention, the circumstances which appeared to augment or retard its operation upon the animal. These subjects are detailed in the 3d, 4th, and 5th chapters. We must acknowledge, that we think this part of the work might, with advantage, have been compressed into a much smaller bulk. No very material discovery seems to have been made, and the different hypotheses that were formed, however ingenious they might appear at that time, have been since so far superseded, as at present to excite little interest. In the following observations of our author we fully coincide; and we

will farther remark, that the same reason which makes it improper to repeat experiments of this kind, when the facts are sufficiently established, renders it equally useless and disgusting to dwell too long on the description of them.

"A mind possessing the least sensibility, recoils at the distressing necessity of inflicting a painful death on so many animals; on which account, when a physiological fact has been once ascertained, I have avoided any repetition of the experiment, particularly when in the operation the animal is subjected to many tortures. Custom, perhaps, more than nature, occasions us to consign so many to purposes of luxury alone. Through the gratification of an idle curiosity, to destine many to agonizing operations, is unwarrantable cruelty, and particularly when the ascertainment of the fact in question is not adequate to the sacrifice."

The 6th chapter, which gives an account of the publication of Dr. Fowler, is considerably more interesting. This treatise, though it did not lead to any grand discovery, contains perhaps more curious and valuable detached observations than any work which had appeared upon the subject since the original discovery by Galvani himself. The account which is given of it by Mr. Wilkinson, appears to be correct and satisfactory.

The singular effect which the galvanic influence was found to produce upon animal motion and sensation, induces our author to present us with a considerably minute account of the experiments of Humboldt, on irritability. This physiologist endeavoured to prove that irritability was a quality immediately resulting from the peculiar chemical composition of the muscular fibre; and he attempted to prove, by a variety of experiments, that this property of the fibre may be augmented, diminished, destroyed, and even re-produced by the simple application of different chemical reagents. He employed the galvanic stimulus as the test of the quantity of irritability in the muscle subjected to experiment. We shall not in this place enter into any minute discussion of the merits of Humboldt's experiments, or the degree to which he is warranted in the conclusions which he deduces from them. Upon the whole, however, we do not feel much disposed to acquiesce in them; they appear to us to have been hastily formed, even admitting the accuracy of his facts, and it appears that both professor Pfaff, and a commission from the

Paris institute, upon repeating the experiments, obtained results totally different from those announced by Humboldt. Viewing the subject in this light, we are certainly inclined to bestow upon them less attention than has been done by our author, though we acknowledge the speculations are amusing, and are by no means undeserving of the farther attention of physiologists.

The 8th chapter is occupied by a very long, and, we think, in a great measure unnecessary, account of a work published by Reinhold of Magdeburg, containing a review of the different opinions that had been entertained on the subject of galvanism up to the period of his writing. The greater part of the speculations that are criticised in this work have been entirely superseded by subsequent discoveries, and the opinions of Reinhold himself are, for the most part, contrary to those which appear at present to stand on the firmest evidence. Though we are willing to admit the learning displayed in this essay to be considerable, and that it might be of value at the time when it was composed, we think that, on the present occasion, the 72 pages, of which this chapter consists, might, without any detriment, have been contracted to 4 or 5.

We have next an account of some farther experiments of Humboldt; they are, like the preceding, marked by much originality; but before we can permit ourselves to acquiesce in his conclusions, we should wish to see the facts upon which they are established, confirmed by other experimenters. Many of his positions appear to us singularly fanciful, and the grand deduction which is drawn from his work we consider to be obviously untenable.

"In the above analysis of the very learned and philosophical work of Humboldt, the long series of experiments it contains have not been given, because, in the first place, they are at this time generally known; and, secondly, because the majority of them could not have been comprehended, without the plates which are given at the end of the work. It will therefore suffice to state generally, what they all contribute to prove, namely, that an animal, a part of which is brought in contact with a metallic substance, which may be denominated its coating, manifests, several hours even after its death, powerful contractions, when the coating, on the one hand, and, on the other, the adjacent muscles, are touched with the two extremities of another metal."

Mr. Wilkinson himself has, indeed, fallen into a similar inconsistency, when, among other reasons which he gives for the employment of frogs in galvanic experiments, he mentions that the vital force subsists in them for a considerable time after death.

Chapters 10 and 11 are principally occupied with a detail of the experiments and speculations of Pfaff, Lebot, and the commissioners appointed by the Paris institute. The 12th chapter presents us with an account of the curious experiments of Aldini, in which he produced muscular contractions without the intervention of any foreign substance, merely by bringing the different parts of the animal into contact with each other. It must be confessed that these facts appear somewhat unfavourable to the hypothesis which is most generally adopted, yet we can scarcely coincide with the author in supposing, that an animal fluid, distinct from the electric, is the prime agent in the phenomena of galvanism.

The powerful action which this new stimulus exercises over the sensible and irritable organs, as well as its strong resemblance to electricity, would naturally lead to its employment in medicine. Galvani himself, soon after his discovery, instituted a variety of experiments with this intention, and produced, what he supposed, very striking proofs of its efficacy. The numerous testimonies which are given in its favour, certainly, upon the whole, convey to the mind a strong impression of its probable utility in the cure of disease; yet in this, as in almost every similar instance, our confidence is materially weakened, by finding virtues attributed to it far beyond the limits of credibility. The author quotes a long account of a case of hydrophobia cured by galvanism! For the reputation of our countrymen, we are glad that this transaction is said to have taken place in Italy; we are, however, concerned that so idle a tale should have found its way into an English scientific publication.

The celebrated discovery of the galvanic pile, by Volta, is related in the 14th chapter, and an account is given of the interesting experiments which were performed with this apparatus, by Mr. Nicholson and others, upon its introduction into this country. We consider this and the following chapter, which contains an abstract of the discoveries made by the British philosophers, as the

most interesting in the whole work. Not only are the facts themselves much more important, but they are better arranged, and related with less prolixity than we meet with in the preceding parts of the work.

A very long, but, upon the whole, not uninteresting chapter, on the experiments of the continental philosophers since the discovery of the pile, concludes the historical part of the work. We are somewhat disappointed not to find any mention of the experiments of Pritter, of which we have had frequent accounts in the *Journal de Physique*; the article containing his discovery of what he calls the secondary pile, had been announced to the scientific world for a considerable time before the date of Mr. Wilkinson's publication.

We are now arrived at what may more especially be considered as the original part of the work, in which the author exhibits his own views on the nature and operation of galvanism, and points out the relation in which it stands to the other phenomena of nature. The conception which he has formed of the proper method to be pursued in the execution of this part of his plan is certainly correct. He boldly promises them in the inquiry into which he is entering,

"— no deductions will be made but what experimental facts authorize; no assertions advanced but what can be demonstrated. Although he may occasionally indulge in the wide field of conjecture, the opinions which will be then brought forward will only be noticed as hypothetical, and as affording a presumption that they may occasionally lead to the ascertainment of some important facts."

As he considers the galvanic and electrical phenomena to be reducible to the same principles, and as his opinions upon this latter branch of natural science differ in some respects from those generally received, he commences by some remarks upon electricity. With respect to the relations which subsist between conductors and non-conductors we have the following remarks:

"The experiments of Mr. Gray casually led to this grand division of all substances, as they lead to electricity. They were by him termed electrics and non-electrics, from a supposition that the former alone contained the principle of electricity, as being only apparent in consequence of their excitation. Dr. Franklin, from some experiments, being induced to suppose that electricity is equally diffused, changed the terms of electrics into

non-conductors, and non-electrics into conductors. From some experiments, I am induced to suppose, that electricity is universally diffused, but not equally; that those bodies are the best conductors which contain the greatest quantity, and those the best non-conductors which contain the least.—Thus metallic bodies are the best conductors. All fluids, except air and oil, are also conductors. The disposition in the body to retain electricity may be termed its capacity.

"When conducting bodies undergo any change, if by such change their capacities become altered, then signs of electricity are evinced.

"If the change should be of such a nature, that their capacity for electricity becomes increased, the substance will be in a state of abstracting it from surrounding bodies, and therefore will evince negative signs, the same as frigorific mixtures produce negative signs of heat.

"If, in the change it undergoes, the capacity of the substance for electricity is diminished, it gives out a portion of its natural quantity, and evinces positive signs, or a state of superabundance.

"When any substance, in the change it undergoes, gives out electricity, it becomes proportionately diminished in its conducting powers; so, on the contrary, when it acquires an increase, it increases also its powers as a conductor."

It is conceived that there is a strong analogy between the capacity for caloric, and this supposed capacity for electricity. Contiguous bodies may possess very different quantities of caloric, and yet may not abstract any part of it from each other, provided the quantities which they contain are proportional to their respective capacities; the same is supposed to take place with respect to electricity. It is, however, conceived that the removal of electricity from one body to another, does not depend upon any attraction in the receiving body, but merely upon the general property which pervades all matter, of moving in that direction where it meets with the least resistance. As a part of this hypothesis, the author next attempts to establish the doctrine of a universal plenum; and, in order to controvert the opposite opinion, he endeavours to shew the absurdity of supposing that air can expand itself so as to be equally diffused through a partially exhausted receiver.

"If we suppose the rarefied air to occupy the whole space of the receiver, by virtue of some expansive power, some energizing principle of elasticity, how loosely formed must we deem the constituent particles of air, to suppose in them a capability of being

so easily expanded and contracted into space so greatly different."

He afterwards adds,

"Let us consider the atmosphere, formed of aerial particles, of caloric, electricity, magnetism, light, and other extraneous matter, casually diffused through the air, as being universally full, and upon this principle reflect on the nature of a pneumatic exhaustion."

The limits to which we are restricted, necessarily obliges us to pass over the observations of our author on atmospheric electricity, on the principles of electrometers, on the effect of points, on the Leyden phial, and other analogous subjects. This part of Mr. Wilkinson's work contains a great variety of speculations, some of which are novel, and perhaps just; but there are others, which we cannot but regard as altogether fanciful and unfounded.

After having gone through these preliminary observations on electricity, we return to the more immediate subject of the work. Mr. Wilkinson, in conformity with the opinion generally adopted in this country, conceives the development of the galvanic principle to depend upon a chemical change in the body from which it is disengaged. He conjectures that an agent of so much subtlety, may become a powerful instrument in the operations of chemical analysis, and even imagines that it is concerned in the most important operations of the animal economy. This subject we shall hereafter discuss a little more at large, for the present we shall favour our readers with the following quotation, which we fear will not raise their ideas of the author's metaphysical talents:

"Galvanism appears to be an energising principle, which forms the line of distinction between matter and spirit, constituting, in the great chain of the creation, the intervening link between corporeal substance and the essence of vitality."

We must not pass over this chapter without pointing out the glaring inaccuracy into which Mr. Wilkinson has fallen respecting the composition of the diamond. In the 24th chapter the theory of galvanism is more minutely explained:

"Two dissimilar metals, and an interposed fluid, or a single metal, exposed to the action of two different fluids; or any one of the conducting substances on which unequal actions can be induced by different fluids, constitute a simple galvanic combination.

"A series of such combinations is denominated a galvanic body.

"When two metals are employed, they produce the greatest effect, when the particular quality of one of them renders it extremely difficult of oxydation, while the other unites with oxygen with the greatest facility."

The apparent difference between electricity and galvanism is thus explained:

"Galvanism is the portion of electricity which forms a component part of the conducting body, in the act of undergoing a change in its capacity, from a greater to a less state; while electricity is the result of a temporary change in non-conducting bodies, inasmuch that their capacities become, by attrition, momentarily increased."

Volta accounts for the contraction produced in a muscle, when laid between two dissimilar metals, by supposing, that the metals, before contact, contain one a small excess, and the other a small deficiency of electricity, and that the muscle, serving as a conductor, permits the fluid to obtain an equilibrium. Mr. Wilkinson conceives, that the moisture on the surface of the muscle acts on the more oxidable of the metals, and disengages a quantity of electricity, which is transmitted by the fibres to the other metal. Upon the whole, we are inclined to believe that both these causes co-operate to produce the effect, though the latter is probably by far the most powerful.

A galvanic arrangement, where a single metal is placed between two fluids, by means of which one side of it becomes oxidated, while the other is retained in its metallic state, is obviously explicable upon the same principles with the more usual construction in which two metals and one fluid are employed. The operation of an apparatus, composed of charcoal instead of metals, seems not altogether so obvious; but it may be presumed that in this case also, the charcoal becomes farther oxidated, and thus disengages a quantity of electricity. We have before noticed the experiments of Aldini, in which muscular contractions were produced without the aid of any foreign substance, merely by bringing the different parts of the animal into contact. At first view, this fact seems scarcely reconcilable to the chemical theory of galvanism, yet it appears as if, in this instance, an oxidating process was carried on, for the air in which a number of prepared frogs were suspended, was observed by Aldini to be in some measure deoxidated.

We are obliged to pass over several chapters which treat of the construction of galvanic apparatus, of the decomposition of water, and the different hypotheses that have been proposed to account for this phenomenon, and of comparative effects of electricity and galvanism, and of the torpedo.

In the 35th chapter the author applies the principles of galvanism to explain the function of respiration. After remarking, "that it is now almost admitted as an axiom, that respiration is the source of animal heat," he adds,

"I should not have presumed to controvert opinions, apparently so well established, if my arguments had rested on conjectures only; but as I am persuaded that my opposition to the above doctrine is supported by experimental facts, I feel myself divested of that diffidence I should otherwise have felt."

He states in direct terms his opinion,

"— that respiration is an important galvanic operation, and that in their cellular structure, the lungs correspond to the torpedinal arrangement."

It would naturally be expected, that an hypothesis so different from the one usually adopted, would not be brought forward upon light grounds, and the author informs us that his deductions are offered to the public,

"— not as a *rudis indigestaque moles*, but as the result of long and mature reflection. They have been read before several of the London medical societies, where they found so little opposition, that I consider them to be stamped by the approbation of the learned members."

It may, however, be observed, that the want of opposition to an hypothesis brought forward in a literary society, may be derived from two sources; it may either depend upon the evidence being so strong as to produce immediate conviction, or so feeble as to make no impression. In attempting to establish his galvanic theory of respiration, Mr. Wilkinson commences by endeavouring to demonstrate the insufficiency of the one generally adopted. The data on which Dr. Crawford founded his opinion, respecting the different capacity for heat in the arterial and venous blood; are minutely examined, several sources of error are noticed, and it is finally concluded that the experiments are inade-

quate to authorise the conclusions deduced from them. No person could be more aware than Dr. Crawford himself, of the delicate nature of the processes which he employed, and we acknowledge that they can only be regarded as an approximation to the truth. But it does not appear to us that the objections of Mr. Wilkinson are themselves brought forward on more precise grounds than the positions to which they are opposed, and in some cases he has fallen into obvious errors; as for instance, in his statement of the constituents of the atmosphere; after the experiments of Berthollet and Davy, it is inexcusable to speak of .27 of oxygene, unless some specific reasons are adduced for differing from the estimate of those chemists. This however, though an important, is not the most essential part of the chemical theory of respiration. It principally rests upon the nature of the change produced in the air, which, so far as respects the liberation of caloric, is precisely similar to that produced by the burning of a combustible body. That a quantity of heat must be generated by this process is absolutely certain, and unless some cause can be pointed out, by which this heat is absorbed, the necessary consequence must be, that the temperature of the body will be raised above that of the surrounding medium. In the examination of this subject Mr. Wilkinson proposes,

"First, to make some inquiries into the quantity of air taken in every inspiration. 2dly, To ascertain the changes this quantity undergoes; and whether, by these assigned changes, such a quantity of caloric is unfolded, as can maintain a mass of matter, similar to the one which constitutes the human body at 98°, whatever may be the state of atmospheric temperature."

With respect to the first query, after stating the various opinions that have been entertained on this subject, he informs us that he himself inspires on an average between 16 and 18 inches. We are not informed of the manner in which his experiments were conducted, and he afterwards adds that "the precise quantity inspired is not of any particular importance." The chief weight of his objections must then rest upon the second of these points. He states the quantity of oxygenous gas supposed to be consumed in a given time, and the quantity

of caloric which must hence be liberated; from this he subtracts the heat necessary to carry off the matter of perspiration, and thus finds the quantity of caloric which is employed in raising the temperature of the body. He procured a weight of water equal to that of the body, and after raising it to 98°, he observed what quantity of boiling water was necessary to keep it at this temperature, in the medium state of the atmosphere; this he observed to be much greater than the heat resulting from the chemical effects of respiration.

Upon this, which we believe to be a fair statement of the argument, we shall remark, that it is not denied by Mr. Wilkinson, that a considerable quantity of heat is liberated by respiration, but that the quantity is supposed to be insufficient. The controversy is thus reduced to a question of degrees, and the strength of the argument must depend upon the accuracy of the data, -

The quantity of oxygene consumed is deduced from the experiments of Mr. Davy alone, while those of Dr. Menzies and M. Lavoisier are not noticed. Now it must be observed that the object of the former of these physiologists was principally to discover the nature of the change produced upon the air, whereas that of the two latter was immediately directed to ascertain the absolute amount of this change. In the present investigation therefore, their experiments were more in point than those of Mr. Davy, and it will be found upon examination that their estimates of the quantity of oxygene consumed is greater than that assigned by our author.

The amount of the perspirable matter is deduced from the experiments of Santorius, Bryan, Robinson, and Hales. However ingenious their deductions might appear, at the time when they were published, we conceive, that in a question like the present, the resolution of which depends altogether upon the accuracy of numbers, little regard can be paid to them. It is generally admitted, that the perspirable matter was much over-rated by these physiologists, in consequence of their not being aware that the weight of the air expired, exceeds that of the air taken into the lungs. Lastly, it may be remarked, with respect to Mr. Wilkinson's comparative experiment, that the water would, for obvious reasons, be cooled more rapidly than an animal body of the same bulk and the same temperature.

Admitting, however, that our author had overthrown the chemical theory of respiration, let us examine the arguments which he employs to establish his galvanic hypothesis. They are not very distinctly stated, and appear rather in the form of assertions, than positions deduced from fact or analogy. The similarity between the structure and mechanism of the lungs, and electrical organ of the torpedo appear to be the principal support of his doctrine. The peculiar apparatus of the torpedo consists of a number of rectilinear and parallel cells, of equal diameter through their whole extent, not communicating with the external air, or with each other, divided by a number of transverse partitions, filled with a mucous fluid, and furnished with an extraordinary proportion of nervous matter. The cells of the lungs are of an irregular shape and arrangement, branching out from the main trunks into smaller and smaller cavities, all communicating with the main trunks, and these with the open air; they are of course always filled with air, are free from interruption from their commencement to their termination, and are remarkable for the small number and minute size of their nerves. Add to this, that the torpedo, besides this peculiar organ, has a distinct apparatus for respiration, and that no sensation or action, in the least degree resembling the electric shock, was ever produced by the lungs of any animal.

Our readers will probably by this time, have formed a tolerably accurate idea of the merits of Mr. Wilkinson's performance. With respect to his diligence in the collection of materials, there is not much cause for complaint, though, even on this score, we could point out some deficiencies. But we fear that the impartiality of just criticism will not allow us to extend our commendation. The most important facts, and the most trifling conjectures are stated with equal minuteness. Speculations which, in the infancy of the science, were perhaps entitled to the equivocal praise of ingenuity, but which later discoveries have completely discarded, are set forth with wearisome prolixity. Instead of stating in a few words the general outline of an hypothesis, or of a set of experiments, we have long quotations of many pages, taken verbatim from the different authors. A striking defect in a work of this kind, is the almost total absence of

references; scarcely a more important service can be rendered to a progressive science than furnishing the means of easily referring to the different sources of information. The style of Mr. Wilkinson's publication is confused and wavering, and appears more like a string of casual observations, extracted from a common-place book, than the well digested arrangement of ideas, which ought to prevail in a work of science.

We shall conclude by pointing out one instance of our author's ingenuity, for the exhibition of which we shall no doubt receive his thanks. When speaking of the effects produced upon the sensations by a combination of metals, he contrives to inform the reader, that he has invented a peculiarly excellent species of bougies, which "may be had in complete sets at No. 19, Soho-square, London."

ART. III. *The Death Warrant of the French Theory of Chemistry, signed by Truth, Reason, Common Sense, Honour, and Science. With a Theory, fully, clearly and rationally accounting for all the Phenomena. Also a full and accurate Investigation of all the Phenomena of Galvanism, and Strictures upon the Chemical Opinions of Messrs. Weigleb, Cruickshanks, Davy, Leslie, Count Rumford, and Dr. Thompson. Likewise Remarks upon Mr. Dutton's late Theory, and other Observations.* By ROBERT HARRINGTON, M. D. 8vo. pp. 312.

ONE of the distinguished characteristics of conceit aggravated into insanity is that the unhappy person thus affected believes all mankind to be joined in a conspiracy against his life, his liberty, or his fame. Thus Dennis, the critic, believed that there existed a plot to deliver him up to Louis XIV: thus the base, distempered mind of Rousseau thought that it discovered an enemy in every human face, and rendered impracticable the most persevering, and disinterested endeavours to make him happy. We do not expect to be able to be of any service to Dr. Harrington, and shall therefore carefully abstain from exasperating his distemper. This gentleman imagines that the modern system of chemistry was invented solely with the view of obscuring the fame of his own discoveries, and believes that the philosophers of Britain and France are closely connected in a conspiracy, the great object of which is

to prevent Dr. Harrington from receiving the fame that is due to him. "This Anglo-Gallic combination is set on foot solely to suppress all my discoveries." (P. 308.)

"My writings have given birth to almost all the philosophical hypotheses adopted for these twenty years, not directly adopting mine but to build up some absurd theory." (P. 141.)

"Modern chemical philosophy, I call puerile vanity and folly. Modern chemical philosophical integrity, I call injustice. Modern chemical philosophical candour, I call deceit. Modern chemical philosophical esprit de corps of their junto, the basest persecution of true science. Modern philosophical combination, the base assassins of truth and its friends. Modern chemical philosophical reviewers and journalists, the prostituted agents of this combination." (P. 101.)

ART. IV. *On the Modifications of Clouds, and on the Principles of their Production, Suspension and Destruction; being the Substance of an Essay read before the Askesian Society, in the Session 1802—3.* By LUKE HOWARD, Esq. 8vo. pp. 32.

IT is a little remarkable, that notwithstanding the number of meteorological observations which are continually made, both by scientific men, and by persons whose occupation is affected by the state of the weather, we are still so little able to foretell its probable changes. The slow progress of this important branch of knowledge may, however, we think, be accounted for. The mode of life and pursuits of the philosopher scarcely permit him to make his observations, except upon the barometer, hygrometer, or other instruments which have been invented for the purpose of appreciating the amount of particular variations in

the atmosphere, which are as frequently the effect, as the cause, of the alterations in the weather. The farmer, on the other hand, ignorant of the use of instruments, is led to attend to the arrangement of the clouds, or other visible changes in the appearance of the heavens, and thus acquires a considerable skill in prognosticating the weather; but, for want of proper terms, is often unable to convey his information to another person, and consequently his knowledge adds little to the general advancement of the science.

The method pursued by Mr. Howard seems the most probable means of re-

moving these obstacles. He has attempted to define the leading varieties which the clouds assume, and to establish a nomenclature descriptive of these different modifications, by which means observations may be more easily made, and more accurately recorded. He has followed the plan pursued in the other branches of natural philosophy, of adopting terms derived from the dead languages, though instead of founding them upon the Greek, as is generally the case, he has employed names taken from the Latin. His reason for this deviation from general usage, viz. that the terms would be more intelligible, we think a good one for not using those of Greek derivation; but we are farther of opinion, that the same reason ought to have induced the author to use plain English names in a science, the farther improvement of which will, probably, in a considerable degree, depend upon the observations of the unlearned.

He assumes, as the basis of his arrangement, three simple and distinct modifications; these, however, may be connected together, and pass into each other, thus producing intermediate forms. The simple modifications are thus named and defined.

"1. *Cirrus*. Def. *Nubes cirrata, tenuissima, quæ undique crescat.*

"Parallel, flexuous, or diverging fibres, extensible in any or in all directions.

"2. *Cumulus*. Def. *Nubes cumulata, densa, sursum crescens.*

"Convex or conical heaps, increasing upward from a horizontal base.

"3. *Stratus*. Def. *Nubes strata, aquæ modo expansa, deorsum crescens.*

"A widely extended, continuous, horizontal sheet, increasing from below:

"The intermediate modifications which require to be noticed are:

"4. *Cirro-cumulus*. Def. *Nubeculæ densiores subrotundæ et quasi in agmine appositæ.*

"Small, well defined roundish masses, in close horizontal arrangement.

"5. *Cirro-stratus*. Def. *Nubes extenuata sub-concava vel undulata. Nubeculæ hujus modi appositæ.*

"Horizontal or slightly inclined masses, attenuated towards a part or the whole of their circumference, bent downward, or undulated, separate, or in groups consisting of small clouds having these characters.

"The compound modifications are:

"6. *Cumulo-stratus*. Def. *Nubes densa, basin planam undique supercrescens, vel ejus moles longinqua videtur partim plana partim cumulata.*

"The cirro-stratus blended with the cumulus, and either appearing intermixed with

the heaps of the latter, or superadding a wide spread structure to its base.

"7. *Cumulo-cirro-stratus vel Nimbus*. Def. *Nubes vel nubium congeries pluviæ effundens.*

"The rain cloud. A cloud or system of clouds from which rain is falling. It is a horizontal sheet, above which the cirrus spreads, while the cumulus enters it laterally and from beneath."

Every attentive observer of the visible appearance of the heavens must have frequently noticed phenomena similar to those above described. The definitions given of them seem, upon the whole, correct and appropriate. We think it, however, in some degree doubtful, how far all the modifications which are enumerated, can strictly be comprehended under the term of clouds. We shall propose the following definition of a cloud, which we apprehend will embrace both the popular and scientific idea usually attached to the word. A cloud is a quantity of water suspended in the atmosphere, assuming a visible form, and a definite shape. If it be admitted to be correct, some of the modifications of the stratus, as where it is said to consist of a mist creeping along the surface of the ground, will be obviously excluded by this definition. It may also be questioned, how far the author is correct in considering the cirro-strato-cumulus, or nimbus, as a distinct modification. Even allowing that rain is produced from the cause assigned by Mr. Howard, and that it is always produced from the same cause, positions which we are inclined to controvert, we conceive that the alteration which the appearance of a cloud assumes when it begins to discharge rain depends upon the presence of the drops of water which, ceasing to exist as component parts of the cloud, are descending towards the earth.

We also think that the species enumerated by Mr. Howard by no means include the whole even of the more important modifications which clouds assume. Without attempting to fill up the deficiency, we shall mention two, which we are frequently in the habit of observing, and which we cannot arrange under any of Mr. Howard's definitions. The first is a system of long strips, diverging from a centre in the horizon, and spreading towards the zenith, like the meridional lines on a globe. The other is an appearance of the clouds very similar to that of milk when beginning to undergo the process of coagulation; in

some parts of England it has obtained the appropriate name of a curdled sky.

The author proceeds to examine each of the modifications a little more at large, and to speculate upon the mode of their formation, and their action upon each other. In this part of his work he exhibits marks of accurate observation, and displays considerable ingenuity in the connexion of his facts, and their application to the general principles of meteorology.

His speculations on the formation of the nimbus, or rain cloud, are the most novel. Before rain can fall, he supposes that a specific arrangement of the clouds must take place; however heavy and numerous they may appear, no water can otherwise be discharged from them. The hypothesis is that there must be two distinct layers, one above, consisting of a thin sheet or light veil of haze, below which the heavy rounded clouds are driven by the wind, or originally formed; the contact, or even proximity of these two sets of clouds causes the rain to descend.

We feel a degree of difficulty in attempting to controvert an hypothesis, which, like the present, is advanced as little more than a mere statement of a matter of fact. Were we to assert, that we have frequently watched the commencement of rain without noticing the appearances mentioned by the author, the reader would probably be as much disposed to accuse us of negligence, as Mr. Howard of inaccuracy. We shall therefore adduce a train of circumstances, the existence of which we think will not be disputed, that appear to us totally repugnant to the theory advanced above. In that peculiar state of our atmosphere, which attends a S. W. wind in winter and spring, the early part of the morning is frequently pleasant; the sky has a few light clouds scattered over it, and persons inexperienced in meteorology, are tempted to predict the continuance of fine weather. In the course of the forenoon, however, the breeze increases, irregular broken clouds appear in the horizon, and are borne along by the wind near the surface of the earth. These increase, until at length they begin to discharge their contents, either in the form of squally showers, or of heavy continued rain. During this process we may observe the higher clouds nearly at rest, retaining the rounded form, and apparently floating in a serene atmo-

sphere. Hence it seems that the upper stratum of air, which is not under the influence of the S. W. wind, has a tendency to retain the water of its clouds, while the breeze itself is loaded with clouds in an opposite state, strongly disposed to discharge their contents. These effects, we conceive, are not produced by the action of the different clouds upon each other, because those in the upper stratum retain their figure and situation, and do not appear in any degree to participate in the changes which take place below them.

As it is agreed on all hands, that clouds primarily depend upon the evaporation of water from the surface of the earth, the nature of this process naturally becomes an object of attention to the meteorologist. The theory of the solution of water in the atmosphere by chemical affinity, and the modification of this hypothesis proposed by Dr. Hutton, are referred to, but both considered as inapplicable to explain the phenomena. That which our author adopts is the one proposed by Mr. Dalton, originally stated in the last volume of the *Memoirs of the Manchester Society*, and which has been so fully developed in the late numbers of *Nicholson's Journal*. Proceeding on this hypothesis, our author lays down a series of propositions respecting the nature of aqueous vapour. He conceives that it is immediately produced by the union of water and caloric; its formation is regulated by the temperature of the water, the quantity of surface exposed, and the vapour already existing in the atmosphere. The vapour, when formed, diffuses itself by its own elasticity; the warmer is the air, the more vapour can subsist in it. When a cold body is presented to the atmosphere, the vapour is decomposed, its caloric is attracted by the body, while the water is deposited upon its surface. The formation of clouds is, in the same way, supposed to be the consequence of the decomposition of vapour; the caloric entering into the neighbouring gases, while the water is precipitated.

The production of dew, which is nearly allied to that of clouds, has been frequently explained. During the heat of the day, vapour is carried up from the surface of the earth into the air; when, in consequence of the absence of the sun, the air becomes cooled, the vapour is decomposed and descends in the form

of dew. As the most simple species of cloud, and the one most resembling dew, the formation of the stratus is first explained. When the dew is deposited upon a surface warmer than the atmosphere, it will be again in part evaporated, and water will continue to be evaporated from the earth, so long as the temperature of the surface remains above the point which counterbalances the pressure of the incumbent aqueous atmosphere. Consequently when the earth has been much heated in the day, there will still be evaporation during the night; an occurrence which, for obvious reasons, will take place to the greatest extent during the autumn. This vapour, however, is soon condensed, and of course begins to descend, when meeting the ascending vapour, it condenses part of it, and, by the union of the two, drops are produced, which take the form of the stratus.

We conceive that most of our readers will agree with us in thinking the above hypothesis confused and intricate. While the surface of the earth continues warmer than the superincumbent air, evaporation will continue, and we conceive it possible that part of the vapour may be deposited and again evaporated, but still we do not perceive how any thing but dew can be produced. By the continuance of this process, the vapour will become more and more condensed, until the whole of it is converted into dew, and finally deposited on the earth.

In order to explain the formation of the cumulus, the author observes, that when the air becomes warmed by the sun's rays, the vapour produced does not as before become condensed near the surface of the earth, but is carried up into the higher regions of the atmosphere before it parts with its caloric. There is, however, a certain elevation, at which this process must take place, where the cumulus will be formed. We are here naturally led to inquire, why this peculiar species of cloud always assumes the rounded form. This peculiarity in its outline is attributed by the author to the agency of electricity. We have many well established facts, which may be said to prove that clouds are generally in a state of considerable electrization, and Mr. Howard conceives that the small particles of water, of which they are composed, will, from this cause, arrange themselves into regular spherical masses.

We think there can be no doubt of the

important agency of the electric fluid in the formation of clouds, and we are much disposed to agree with the author in his application of it to the present case. Yet we confess that we are not altogether satisfied with the explanation of the cumulus. If we are not much mistaken, this species of cloud is the most frequently seen, when the air is cold, particularly when the wind comes from a N. or E. point; and a circumstance which we fear will prove fatal to the hypothesis is, that this cloud is frequently seen in the night, a fact which we do not hesitate to adduce, notwithstanding the positive assertion of our author to the contrary. Every one who has viewed the sublime spectacle of a moonlight evening, must have observed how much the beauty of the scene has been occasionally heightened by the large round masses of cloud, which not unfrequently sail across the firmament, and "turn forth their silver linings on the night."

The length to which we have protracted this article, will oblige us to pass over very briefly the remaining parts of the essay. The cirrus is conceived to be a cloud acting the part of a conductor of the electric fluid, between different regions of the atmosphere which were in different states of electricity. We have some additional remarks on the production of rain. The principal circumstance which causes the discharge of clouds is an excessive influx of vapour, accompanied with a decrease of temperature: but it appears that this combination alone is not sufficient, without the concurrence of the stratus and the cumulus. We believe that the author farther conceives, that these clouds must possess different states of electricity, though this is rather implied than directly asserted. Upon the whole, these remarks upon rain appear to us not so perspicuous as some other parts of the essay.

We have been induced to take a pretty extensive review of this short treatise, because we think it an important work on an important subject. Mr. Howard has entered on an interesting field of investigation, and he has marked out a path which must terminate in something valuable. At present, however, we regard his exertions rather as well directed, than as completely successful. Though we have taken the liberty to criticize his present performance, we expect more from his future exertions.

ART. V. *The Painter and Varnisher's Guide; or a Treatise, both in Theory and Practice, on the Art of making and applying Varnishes; on the different Kinds of Painting; and on the Method of preparing Colours, both simple and compound.* By P. F. TINGRY, Professor of Chemistry, Natural History, and Mineralogy, in the Academy of Geneva. 8vo. pp. 600.

THE present volume was composed at the request of the society established at Geneva for the encouragement of the arts, agriculture, and commerce, in consequence of instructions from the society to its committee of chemistry, to undertake the elucidation of those arts of which no account had been published by the academy of sciences at Paris. In the general distribution of subjects, the art of varnishing was entrusted to M. Tingry, and the present work is an evidence that he has ably fulfilled the trust committed to him.

The general principles of varnish-making were understood before M. Tingry's work made its appearance, and an infinite number of receipts, good, bad, and indifferent, were scattered through various publications. It was however greatly to be desired, that all the floating knowledge on this subject, purified from the numerous absurdities and errors by which it was obscured, should be collected in a systematic and orderly arrangement. This task M. Tingry has undertaken, and, upon the whole, has performed it well: he has also added several new facts of considerable importance, so that we do not hesitate to recommend the work before us as greatly superior to all others on the same subject, with which we are acquainted. The great fault, and which peculiarly characterizes the recital of M. Tingry's own experiments, is proximity; but this is the national feature of Genevan literature.

This treatise is divided into two parts, each of which is again subdivided into chapters.

The first chapter is an enumeration and short history of the substances which form the basis of varnishes, together with the criterions by which the best and purest of each kind may be ascertained.

The second chapter relates to the fluid vehicles of varnishes, or solvents. These are alcohol, the essential oils of turpentine, lavender, and spike, and the expressed oils of poppy-seed, nuts, and linseed. In treating of the last of these substances, the author enters into a long

and interesting account of the various methods by which oils are made drying, and the effect of garlic on oils. The third chapter is introduced by some general observations on the art of the varnisher, and then proceeds to give a detailed description of varnishes, arranged in five genera. The first includes the drying varnishes, prepared with alcohol; the second describes those alcoholic varnishes which are not so drying as the former: under which is included the transparent gold coloured varnish, so extensively employed by workers in metal to communicate to brass, iron, tin, &c. the colour and lustre of gilding. The third genus is composed of those species in which oil of turpentine is the solvent. The fourth genus is formed of the colourless, or nearly colourless, copal varnishes: the experience of M. Tingry on the solvent power of oil of turpentine on unprepared copal, by no means agrees with Mr. Sheldrake's excellent experiments on the same subject; but the reason of this difference evidently is the inferiority of the oil of turpentine made use of by M. Tingry, when compared with that employed by Mr. Sheldrake. M. Tingry finds that the fusion of copal by the lowest possible degree of heat, renders it much more soluble than before, and that long exposure to the action of the light considerably increases the specific gravity of oil of turpentine, and renders it a much more efficacious solvent of copal. The fifth genus of varnishes comprehends those whose base is fat oil, including the amber varnishes, the varnish for carriages, and the lacquer for waiters, tea-pots, and all other articles of japanned ware.

The fourth chapter treats of the preparation of varnish on a large scale, and contains many useful precautions and modes of manipulation.

The fifth chapter contains observations on the effect of solar light on oil of turpentine; particularly with regard to the solvent power on copal, thus communicated to it. This chapter, although very unsatisfactory and most tediously prolix, contains some interesting facts which merit further enquiry.

The second part of this work, by attempting to comprehend too much, is by no means equal to the former part; yet many useful facts are dispersed through it, and the artist will find here, collected into one mass, a considerable quantity of miscellaneous information from various quarters.

The first chapter relates to colouring matters, and the methods of preparing them for use. The second chapter is entitled "a philosophical account of the origin of colours, with a description of the processes which art employs to vary the number and richness of the tints, resulting from a mixture of them." The philosophical part of the chapter is dispatched in the three first pages, the remainder is a practical account of the kinds and proportions of colouring substances, required for the various tints that are used by the painter. The third chapter is one of the most valuable: it describes the methods of colouring the hard copal varnish, and the successful

application of it in imitation of stucco enamel. The fourth chapter contains useful precepts on the application of varnish to various substances, on the method of preserving brushes after they have been used, of taking paint-stains out of cloaths, and sundry other interesting matters. The fifth chapter treats of painting in distemper; and the volume is concluded by a short chapter on the instruments necessary in the art of varnishing, and their use.

A general idea of the contents of this work may be obtained from the preceding analysis. The arrangement, upon the whole, is natural and satisfactory, the information copious and to be depended on; but many parts would be essentially improved by rigorous condensation. The translator has suffered a few gallicisms to escape him, and, what is of more consequence, a few errors, either from inadvertence or ignorance: in one place he has put magnesia instead of manganese.

ART. VI. *Researches into the Laws of Chemical Affinity.* By C. L. BERTHOLLET, Member of the Conservative Senate, and of the National Institute, &c. Translated from the French, by M. FARRELL, M. D. 8vo. pp. 220.

THIS is a treatise of the utmost importance, not only for the highly interesting facts which it communicates, but for the new light which it throws on a subject that has attracted the notice, and exercised the talents of the greatest chemists of the last and the present age.

The fundamental principle of Berthollet, and which has been acquiesced in by all succeeding chemists, is, that all the substances in nature have a disposition to unite with each other into binary or more complex combinations, the properties of which cannot be inferred from those of their constituent parts, and that the only way of effecting a chemical decomposition is, by presenting to the compound a substance whose affinity with one of the elements of the compound is greater than that which subsists between these elements themselves. In this case the former combination is destroyed, and a new compound takes place, consisting of one of the elements of the former compound united with the added substance, to the total exclusion of the other element. This he terms elective affinity, and, in order to determine its relative force in any two substances, he proposes to try if one of them can

remove the other from its combination with a third, and *vice versa*. He takes it for granted, that the body which has removed another from its combination, cannot in like manner be expelled by that other, and that both experiments will concur to prove that the first has a greater elective affinity for the third than the second.

This position is ably and successfully controverted in the work before us, in which it is demonstrated that there is no such thing as elective affinity, or a total transfer of one of the parts of a compound to a third substance; but that a partition of the base or subject of the combination takes place between the two bodies whose actions are opposed, in the ratio of their respective degrees of energy. He further shews that this partition is subject to be modified by the relative quantities of the bodies concerned, so materially, as in many cases to annul and even reverse the effects that would be produced by the relative energy of affinity, other circumstances remaining equal. Having demonstrated these propositions by a detail of well contrived, simple, and convincing experiments, M. Berthollet then proceeds to consider the variations which the insolubility of so

dies produces in the action of chemical affinity, and to explain the reason why a precipitate retains a portion of the body with which it was first combined. The modifications which are brought about by cohesion, crystallization, the elastic state, caloric, efflorescence, and gravitation, are then appreciated and explained. Having established the above rules, with their modifications, by examples from cases in which the action of three substances alone is concerned, the author then applies them to the more complicated cases of affinity, and shews that they hold equally good in these as in the former ones, and that the affinities of

compound bodies result from those of their constituent parts.

We consider M. Berthollet as having successfully proved in this valuable essay, the main point which it was his intention to establish, namely, that those cases which Bergman considered as proper decompositions, are in fact only partitions of one between two other bodies, in the compound ratio of their force and quantity. Here and there, however, he appears to have made use of rather ambiguous experiments, and to have drawn from them particular conclusions, which are scarcely justified by the facts.

ART. VII. *An Essay on Chemical Statics, with copious explanatory Notes, and an Appendix on vegetable and animal Substances. Faithfully translated from the original French of C. L. BERTHOLLET, by B. LAMBERT.* 8vo. 2 vols.

THE frame-work of these volumes is the researches on chemical affinity noticed in the preceding article. The author here extends his investigations to all the causes which can produce any variation in the results of chemical action, and treats of them considerably at length. The first part of this work is devoted to the consideration of the nature and laws of those forces which in the aggregate compose chemical action in general; and in the second part are developed the principal phenomena caused by the action of the various

chemical species upon each other. Properly speaking, therefore, this work may be considered as the philosophy of chemistry, as far as modern researches have hitherto extended. The importance of the subject, and the abilities of the author demand a careful and detailed examination into the merits of the book; and we trust that our readers will allow us to postpone to our next volume an investigation which cannot be entered upon at present without transgressing those bounds within which we are necessarily confined.

CHAP. XX.

MINERALOGY.

ART. I. *Observations, chiefly lithological, made in a Five Weeks Tour to the principal Lakes in Westmoreland and Cumberland.* 8vo. pp. 80.

JUDGING, perhaps, too hastily from the title page, we reserved this little volume for our mineralogical chapter. As a companion to the scientific traveller

in these romantic regions it is, however, if not absolutely worthless, yet certainly of less than any assignable value.

ART. II. *Organic Remains of a former World. An Examination of the Mineralized Remains of the Vegetables and Animals of the Antediluvian World, generally termed extraneous Fossils.* By JAMES PARKINSON, Hoxton. Vol. 1st. containing the Vegetable Kingdom. 4to. pp. 480.

WE scarcely know how to characterize the volume before us. It displays extensive reading, and a familiar acquaintance with cabinet specimens, at the same time that it betrays an entire unacquaintance with even the rudiments of modern geology, and a scanty knowledge of the mineralogical relations subsisting between the various species of minerals properly so called, and fossils, or the remains of organized bodies. One of Mr. Parkinson's objects, in publishing, was to render the study of fossils popular and attractive; he has, therefore, collected together as much entertaining matter as possible, and has adopted the epistolary form; a diffuse and vague manner of writing, well calculated indeed to attract the novice, but very unfit to inspire him with that rigorous precision, without which all speculations on geological subjects are no better than idle vagaries of the fancy, better suited to the dreams of the poet than the deductions of the philosopher.

The four first letters, being preliminary matter, require no remarks and admit of no analysis: in the fifth there is some geological matter which the author, for his own credit, ought to have omitted. "Mountains," says the author, "are with propriety divided into primitive and secondary;" thus entirely omitting the very important class of transition mountains. Again, in the list, for it is merely a list, of the different species which compose the primitive mountains, he totally omits two that are perhaps even more abundant, certainly

more important, than even granite, namely, micaceous and argillaceous schistus.

In the 7th letter Mr. Parkinson enters upon the proper subject of his work with a description of fossil trees. These he states generally to be found in almost every part of the world, but the authorities which he produces only prove it with regard to the alluvial strata in several parts of England and Ireland, in the neighbourhood of Modena in Italy, and in the deep sands of the low countries and the deserts on each side of Egypt. He also makes no distinction between trees that are merely buried without having undergone any chemical change, as those on the Lincolnshire coast, those which are still combustible but have undergone the process of bituminization, and those which are incombustible being completely silicified.

The 9th and three following letters describe, in a diffuse and entertaining manner, the natural history and other circumstances relative to peat and Bovey coal. The bitumens, amber, jet, cannel, and common coal, are then similarly noticed. We find, however, nothing that need particularly detain us till the 18th letter. This treats of bituminous fermentation, or that natural change which buried vegetable matter undergoes, and which is characterized by the formation of bitumen. This change, according to Mr. Parkinson, all vegetable matter is subject to, and therefore the extreme inflammability of bituminized wood, splinters of which are often used by cottagers instead of candles, by

no means proves that these trees, as some have supposed, were of the resiniferous kind. We believe, however, that Mr. Parkinson is somewhat mistaken here in point of fact. It is not the trunk but only the butt and roots of fossil trees that are applicable to the abovementioned use: these trees, from their grain and texture, appear to be fir, and, what is more to the purpose, there are often found together with these other trunks apparently of oak, the roots of which are not sufficiently inflammable to be used for candles. One of the most striking and characteristic marks, however, of bituminization Mr. Parkinson has forgotten to mention, namely, that the ashes of vegetables which have undergone this change contain no potash. Although we notice these errors and omissions, yet we are well disposed to agree with the author in believing that vegetable matter when excluded from the air does really undergo the bituminous fermentation, in consequence of which it becomes more inflammable than before, and incapable of further spontaneous alteration. In common peat this change takes place only partially, because it is not perfectly excluded from the air, and not sufficiently compressed; but the lowest portion of very deep peat bogs (as has been verified by actual examination in Chat-moss in Lancashire) is of a black colour, a compact texture, abounding in bitumen, and very nearly resembling the softer kinds of coal.

Four letters are devoted to the discussion of the important question of the origin and formation of coal: the various hypotheses which have been proposed are fairly stated, and the objections to each of them are candidly and satisfactorily advanced. Mr. Parkinson's own opinion is, that all the present beds of coal were formed at the deluge: but the objections to his theory are at least as great as those which he has urged against the others. The regular and numerous alternations of the coal strata, each unmixed with and accurately separated from the others, evince that they must have been formed at distant intervals, and in a state of repose quite irreconcilable to the turbulence of a general deluge; not to mention that Mr. Parkinson has not explained how the uprooted trees of the ancient world were capable of sinking through the waters of the deluge.

The next subject which comes under

discussion is the mode in which the petrification of wood is effected. The fact to be accounted for is this, viz. that the ligneous texture is most accurately preserved in petrified wood, at the same time that all the ligneous matter has been entirely superseded by earthy particles. Mr. Parkinson observes that timber which has been bituminized is of a much softer consistence and more porous than before: it is penetrated with water, and this fluid serves as a vehicle for the siliceous or calcareous particles, by the gradual deposition of which the whole mass becomes petrified. But, allowing this to be the fact, we do not see how it at all applies itself to the difficulty. Previous to the infiltration of stony matter, the wood, however altered, must contain a sufficient quantity of ligneous fibre to preserve the original texture of the substance, and it is very conceivable that these fibres may be entirely surrounded and all the pores filled by an infiltration of silex; but the ligneous skeleton, if we may use the expression, would still remain, and therefore there ought to be contained in silicified wood a much greater quantity of inflammable matter than we find actually to be the case; for it is not conceivable that the materials of a few grains of carbonated hydrogen and a drop or two of empyreumatic acid should be capable of retaining the minute and intricate texture of a piece of wood. One of the greatest novelties in this volume, though in our opinion by no means well founded, is the train of reasoning by which the author has persuaded himself to class opal among the secondary fossils of vegetable origin. The wood agate and wood opal display a ligneous texture, have a resinous lustre, and on distillation give a small quantity of empyreumatic liquor covered with an oily film. In pitchstone, though the ligneous structure is not visible, yet the resinous lustre is particularly striking; and this too on analysis is found to contain a similar proportion of combustible matter: finally, the opal itself has somewhat of a resinous lustre, and yields about 5 per cent. of water and inflammable matter, therefore opal is only the end of a series of which bituminized wood is the beginning. But, by parity of reasoning, Mr. Parkinson might have added quartz also to his list of vegetable fossils, for quartz not unfrequently contains water and inflammable matter, and

crystals of this substance are found enveloped in agatized wood.

From the siliceous vegetable fossils the author passes to the calcareous, aluminous, and metallic: these are briefly noticed, and the volume concludes with some account of the leaves and other parts of plants that occur in coal strata and argillaceous nodules. Many of these are very perfectly preserved, so that not the least doubt can remain of their having been living vegetables, yet hardly any of them are referable to any known species.

The coloured plates which are annexed to this volume are very interesting and well executed; in some of them are represented the most striking varieties of fossil wood, and the others contain a judicious selection of leaves, capsules, fruits, and other vegetable substances that have been found in a fossil state.

On the whole, we have derived both pleasure and information from the perusal of this volume, though not so much as we had expected,

CHAPTER XXI.

ARCHITECTURE AND THE FINE ARTS.

MR. DUPPA's engravings from the fresco paintings of Michael Angelo and Raphael are among the most striking productions of the fine arts during the last year: they not only reflect credit on the judgment and skill of Mr. Duppa, but are intrinsically valuable, as shewing that these great masters actually practised in their larger pictures that style of painting which some critics, from an acquaintance only with their cabinet pictures, had denied their knowledge of. Mr. Alexander's *Costume of China*, as well as Mr. Barrow's account of the same country, will be considered as one of the few valuable consequences resulting from the late embassy of Lord Macartney to the court of Peking. Mr. Bartel has produced an elegant little work on the construction of Cottages; and Mr. Loudon has evinced his good taste and practical acquaintance with the principles of landscape gardening.

ART: I. *The Costume of China, illustrated in Forty-eight coloured Engravings. By WILLIAM ALEXANDER.*

IN this splendid volume Mr. Alexander has represented the dresses, the ships, the houses, temples, and public monuments of the Chinese, many groups of occupations, ceremonies, and diversions, in short every thing that an observing eye and ready hand could enable a traveller to carry away under the circumstances of restraint to which Europeans are subjected in China by Chinese jealousy. Costume in this enlarged sense is interesting to every one; hence the poet and painter receive those characteristic traits, those picturesque and visual ideas, which give an interest to description, a locality to representation.

China, too proud and self-sufficient for imitation, is peculiar in every thing, and excellent in nothing. The dresses of the people have neither the disembarassed lightness of European, nor the grandeur of Turkish modes; they consist of wide jackets, with several loose vests and clumsy boots; the barbarous absurdity of the female chaussure is well known.

Chinese architecture is remarkable; the houses, which seldom exceed one story in height, are covered with roofs high pitched, single spanned, bending in the middle, and far projecting, exactly of the shape which canvas takes in

a tent; thus Peking has the appearance of a vast encampment. On the roof, as the principal object, are bestowed the ornaments of bells, dragons, and monsters indescribable: the tiles, of various colours, are often varnished; and it is mentioned as the height of magnificence, that a chapel in the Poo-ta-la, a temple devoted to the worship of the deity Fo, is roofed with tiles of solid gold. "The house of a prince or great officer of state," says Mr. Barrow in his account of the embassy, "is not much distinguished from that of a tradesman, except by the greater space of ground on which it stands, and by being surrounded by a high wall. Our lodgings in Peking were in a house of this description. The ground plot was 400 feet by 300 feet, and it was laid out into ten or twelve courts, some having two, some three, and some four tent-shaped houses standing on stone terraces raised about three feet above the court, which was paved with tiles. Galleries of communication, forming colonnades of red wooden pillars, were carried from each building, and from one court to another, so that every part of the house might be visited without exposure to the sun or the rain. The number of wooden pillars of which the colonnades were

formed was about 900. Most of the rooms were open to the rafters of the roof, but some had a slight ceiling of bamboo laths covered with plaster. The floors were laid with bricks or clay. The windows had no glass; oiled paper, or silk gauze, or pearl shell, or horn, were used as substitutes for this article."

The pagodas, which resemble a pile of seven or eight houses placed successively upon the roofs of each other, are well described by Mr. Alexander in the following words: "These buildings are a striking feature on the face of the country. The Chinese name for them is *ta*, but Europeans have improperly denominated them pagodas, a term used in some oriental countries for a temple of religious worship. It seems the *ta* of China is not intended for sacred purposes, but erected occasionally by viceroys or rich mandarins, either for the gratification of personal vanity, or with the idea of transmitting a name to posterity, or perhaps built by the magistracy, merely as objects to enrich the landscape.

"They are generally built of brick, and sometimes cased with porcelain, and chiefly consist of nine, though some have only seven or five stories each, having a gallery which may be entered from the windows, and a projecting roof covered with tiles of a rich yellow colour, highly glazed, which receive from the sun a splendour equal to burnished gold. At each angle of the roof a light bell is suspended, which is rung by the force of the wind, and produces a jingling not altogether unpleasant. These buildings are for the most part octagonal, though some few are hexagonal and round. They diminish gradually in circumference from the foundation to the summit, and have a staircase within, by which they ascend to the upper story. In height they are generally from 100 to 150 feet, and are situated indiscriminately on eminences or plains, or oftener in cities."

The *pai-lous*, honorary monuments to distinguished individuals, are remarkable objects: they are generally composed of four upright square jambs, each of a single block, which is often thirty feet in length; across these are placed lintels, which are covered with roofs, highly ornamented in the usual style; beneath the lintels are framed between the jambs several long thin cross pieces, on which the inscription is engraved in letters of

gold. The imitation of wooden forms and proportions in these edifices is extraordinary, for they are usually of stone and marble; their appearance is a mere frame of posts and rails, a form neither handsome nor solid in stone.

The Chinese, however, understand the use of arches; is it to this source that we are to look for the origin of the most useful invention of architecture? The Chinese arches appear to be semicircular, elliptical, horse-shoe shaped, and slightly pointed; their construction is singular, and rather resembles a framing of wooden ribs, than a vault of arch stones: we refer the reader to the "view of a bridge," where the vault is composed of long stones placed lengthways to the curve of the arch, with long bonding stones at equal distances running through the whole depth of the vault. There are also arches in which smaller stones are used, pointed to the center in the common method.

The naval architecture of the Chinese has received no alteration for several centuries, and it is accordingly clumsy and unskilful; their vessels are square-headed, without cut-water and without keel; the hull rises from the water like a crescent, with two gigantic fish eyes painted in the bows; the lower part of the stern falls in with a hollow, in which the rudder is sheltered from the violence of the sea. Each mast, though sometimes equal to that of a British sixty-four, is a single stem of wood, and carries a large square sail of bamboo matting. The seamen venerate the compass as a deity; they burn perfumed matches before it, and make offerings of flesh and fruit. The ports are either false or used for windows, as few of the Chinese ships of war carry artillery.

On the whole, it is not easy to speak too highly of the merits of this work; the figures, though not always perfectly correct in drawing, are grouped with taste, and coloured with great brilliancy and effect. The Chinese character, or rather the want of character in Chinese faces, is admirably marked; all the details are well understood, and rendered with spirit; and the whole has that air of truth and accuracy which will alone render valuable works of this nature, and without which the most elaborate designs are insipid and contemptible.

In the description which accompanies the plates, Mr. Alexander has preserved some characteristic traits which we do

not recollect to have seen elsewhere, and which we will extract for the entertainment of our readers.

"The women of China take great care in ornamenting the head. The hair, which is smoothed with oil till it resembles japan, is coiled on the crown of the head, and confined with gold and silver bodkins; a fillet binds the forehead, from which descends a peak decorated with a diamond, pearl, or bead, and artificial flowers ornament each temple. Boys, till about seven years of age, frequently have two queues encouraged to grow from the sides of the head. The long queue or pien-za of the men is inconvenient to labourers, who often wind it round their heads. Watermen, and others much exposed to the weather, are generally provided with a coat made of straw, from which the rain runs off as from the feathers of an aquatic bird; in addition to this they sometimes wear a cloak formed of the stalks of millet, and a broad hat of straw and split bamboo. Thus thatched,

a Chinese may certainly defy the heaviest showers."

In one of the plates is seen a tower with soldiers presenting their shields in front of the embrasures, in compliment to the ambassador. This singular mode of salute, when continued along an extensive line of wall, had a striking effect.

The leader of a funeral procession is a priest, who carries a lighted match with tin-foil and crackers, to which he sets fire when passing a temple or other building for sacred purposes. The nearest relative, clad in a loose gown and cap of coarse canvas, is prevented from tearing his dishevelled hair by two supporters, who affect to have much ado to keep the frantic mourner from laying violent hands on himself.

In the view of a fisherman's boat, the female of the group, surrounded by her children, is smoking her pipe: one of these has a gourd fastened to its shoulders, intended to preserve it from drowning in the event of its falling overboard.

ART. II. *Observations on the Formation and Management of useful and ornamental Plantations; on the Theory and Practice of Landscape Gardening; and on gaining and embanking Land from Rivers or the Sea. Illustrated with Plates.* By J. LONDON, *Landscape Gardener, &c.* 8vo.

THE author, a native of the northern portion of the empire, regards wood with a natural partiality. Trees are the greatest ornaments of the surface of the earth; "without this accompaniment hills and vallies, rivers and lakes, rocks and cataracts, all of themselves the most perfect that could be imagined, would present an aspect bleak, savage, and uninteresting." "If we examine even a tree by itself, the intricate formation and disposition of the boughs, spray, and leaves, its varied form, beautiful tints, and diversity of light and shade, make it far surpass every other object; and, notwithstanding this multiplicity of separate parts, its general effect is simple and grand." The pleasure experienced by the planter in rearing these "plants of his hand, and children of his care," is commented on; and that no motive may be wanting, he observes that planting is equally profitable with agriculture, and, "what is of great importance too, it is commonly most so in lands not adapted for the general purposes of husbandry, such as dells, steep banks, rocky precipices, and even heaths and moors: for deep rich soils, however favourable for other vegetables,

are not the best for producing timber." Wood also is the principal material of the landscape gardener; earth and rocks are generally too ponderous to contend with buildings, too expensive; and water can only be commanded in particular situations and circumstances.

Ornamental plantations may be divided into two classes; those where grandeur is the effect to be produced, and those in which variety is the principal object. The first character depends more upon the whole than the parts, and may be produced with only one kind of tree; but to variety, depending altogether upon the parts, a number of different kinds is necessary. The writer, however, following the steps of Price, very properly censures the general practice of landscape gardeners and planters, who

"— imagine that variety is produced by mixture; and their rule is, to 'mix as many kinds together as they possibly can, and never to let two trees of the same species be seen at once.' This is their receipt for variety in plantations; and they never fail to follow it in every arrangement of vegetables, from the parterre to the forest. But does it produce variety? No. On the contrary,

it produces the most distracting incongruity. The eye, in examining the parts, finds no connexion—no harmony—no relief—no repose of effect—no difference of composition, nor change of character; or, if from a distance we look upon the whole, it is in the other extreme, more dull and monotonous than if only one species of tree had been used.

"This mixture is evidently made from ignorance of what constitutes variety; for it does not, as they imagine, consist in the diversity of separate parts, but 'in the diversity of their effects when combined together; in a difference of composition and character.'* Such a variety relieves the eye, and satisfies the mind, without fatiguing either.

"In place, then, of distinct kinds, trees or shrubs, differing in any one of the general characteristics, are sufficiently distinguished for the purpose of variety. If they differ in two or more of them, they become contrasts; 'if in all, they are opposites, and will never harmonize.' But there is such an immense store in nature, that those apparently the most different may be brought together, with good effect, in the same plantation."

The colours of trees deserve attention from the landscape gardener; by the proper management of these he may produce many of the effects of aerial perspective, he may deepen the recesses of his plantations by darkening the greens as they retire, or point a prominence, by the colour of the foremost tree.

The variation of soils, and situation, would lead to a corresponding variation of the trees and shrubs, productive at once of ornament and utility, which are both sacrificed in the common method of mixture. This principle is enforced by Mr. Loudon, with good sense and true taste.

"The mode of arrangement which I follow is universally prevalent in the scenery of nature. To be convinced of this, we have only to observe the constituent parts of a natural forest. In one place we find the oak as the principal tree, the hazel the principal undergrowth, the cowslip the principal plant, the *poa nemoralis* the principal grass, and the *hypnum* the principal moss; farther on, a few beeches mingle themselves with the oaks; a little farther still, beech becomes the principal tree. The undergrowths changing in the same way, we there find the thorn, the violet, the *poa trivialis*, and the *bryum*. The ground becomes moist, and gradually the birch appears; it becomes

more so—and, as the birch retires, the alder succeeds, each with appropriate undergrowth, or ever-varying glades of pasture; which, with the grouping, &c. is foreign to my purpose here; but they are most valuable instructions for the landscape gardener.† The arrangement goes on thus throughout the whole forest; and, if the soil were examined, it would be found to vary correspondently with the trees. Where the oak abounds, it will be found deep and good, dry where the beech prospers, and moist where the birch prevails.

"Few have an adequate idea of the effects that might be produced by adopting this mode of arranging vegetables in artificial scenery, and particularly in woods, shrubberies, and all ornamental plantations. Note but those who unite a knowledge of botany and painting, can conceive the variety and perpetual interest that would thus be created about a place even of the smallest extent. At present, all places, and all the plantations about a place, have the same general appearance, because composed of the same kind of mixture. A shrubbery in one estate is precisely the same with one at a hundred miles distance; and a few square yards of either is a pattern of all the shrubberies in Britain; nay, I might say on earth. But, were nature followed in this respect, the variety would be endless. Nothing could then be more interesting than to walk or ride through a place thus laid out; to look at the trees, shrubs, plants, and even the grasses and ferns; the infinite diversity of the shapes, colours, and composition of the trees and shrubs; and the ever-varying openings and intricate recesses between them—again varied with groups and tufts of flowering plants and ferns, spreading themselves among the grass, in every direction, like natives;—and all this independently of every other object, such as buildings, rocks, water, animals, distant prospect, and even variety in the ground. So that, by this mode of planting, a place, naturally the most dull and insipid, may be made infinitely varied and interesting. And I repeat, that this mode of arrangement is not more beautiful in shrubberies, flower-gardens, and green-houses, than it is profitable in extensive plantations."

On the formation and management of useful plantations, Mr. Loudon delivers many valuable remarks under the head of the preparation and culture of the soil, the size of the plants, and mode of planting and sowing, pruning, thinning, and enclosing, well worthy the attention of those interested in this branch of rural economy.

Landscape gardening comes next under consideration; our author is a follower of Price and the picturesque school, and

* "Price.

† See Gilpin's Forest Scenery—Walks in a Forest, &c."

speaks thus of the practice of his competitors.

"Whatever be the nature of the place to be improved, their operations are uniformly the same. The ground, in all the places mentioned, would without any distinction be cleared, levelled, and reduced to one uniform flow of surface,—fashioned

—— all to one unvaried round,
One even round that ever gently flows."

In a word, such a heavy, featureless surface, is would be denominated ugly by any eye of the least natural taste.

"The water, too, would be divested of every picturesque circumstance. The sides of the dells, the banks of the rivers or lakes, would be deprived of every tree and bush—levelled down and reduced to uniform, distinct serpentine sweeps, until they were brought as near to the appearance of a made canal as possible: and if any canal or pond was to be made from any spring or rill, it would be placed in the most conspicuous situation, formal, naked and glaring, like a long white sheet of linen extended on a bleaching green.

"The savage grandeur of the rocks would be tamed—the most prominent abruptnesses or antiquated mossy spots would be pared off. If any bushes or roots hung over, they would be cut down; and afterwards, any intricate recess that might remain, would be patched up with stones or turf, and all around would be made smooth and even."

"The wood, also, would be put on in a similar manner in each of the places. To mark the property, and shut out the adjoining estate, a belt would form a boundary to the whole. Within this, the park would be spotted over with clumps, and dotted with single trees. Around, or on each side the mansion, the pleasure ground would be made—the boundary a sunk fence—its contents, circular and oval patches of all sorts of shrubs—and, through among these, a deep-sunk serpentine gravel walk would lead you to the riding in this belt, where you must walk once round to see the temples and vistas, and then you have done.

"From these operations, it is easy to see there can be no beautiful combinations, nor any marked expressions about such improved places. All of them, whatever be their natural character, are brought as near as possible to the standard which passes under the name of English gardening."

This censure is justified by the following relation.

"Many dells of the most exquisite kind occur in Scotland and Wales. At ———, in ———, one of the finest sort was treated

lately in the most barbarous manner. The approach to the house was with great propriety led through this scene; but, in place of a natural-like road, the most formal, high-finished gravel walk that can be imagined was carried stiffly along its banks, while all the wood was thinned—all the undergrowth, creepers, ferns, &c. were cut down, and every inequality of surface taken away. Even some noble perpendicular rocks, overhung with large trees and their edges, varied by roots, bushes, and other intricate concealments, were totally bared, and the line of separation every where defined by a cut edge of turf-work upon the top and sides, exactly similar to that of the gravel walk: all the old surface of the rocks, which were beautifully varied by mosses, weatherstains, and plants springing from their crevices, was hewn off. This fresh, even surface, destroyed all the intricate concealments, and every circumstance corresponding with the situation; while the ground in front of it, and all around, was neatly laid with turf, and made smooth and even. Thus the grandeur and picturesqueness of these rocks were totally destroyed, and the whole mass made little better, in appearance, than an upright bank of red-coloured earth.

"The stream, too, which runs in this dell, was deprived of almost every beauty, particularly that of intricacy and shade, by reducing its edges to regular curves, and sloping the banks; and in places intended to be most seen, it was turfed neatly down to the brink of the water.

'Shaven to the brink our brooks are taught to flow,

Where no obtruding forms or rushes grow.'

Knight.

"Every thing being smoothed and levelled, and the approach cut out and covered with red ashes, still more glaring than gravel, tender shrubs, larches, and flowers, were planted in clumps and patches, where the natural growths had been just rooted up, and (childlike) a number of fantastic looking stones, which happened not to be far distant, were brought and regularly distributed (for to group them was a thing they had no idea of) in the most conspicuous places along the road, and particularly along three bridges, by way of parapet. It deserves to be remarked, however, on the other hand, that these bridges, were it not for this circumstance, are very well executed, and, in style, are properly adapted for this kind of scenery.

"This dell, at present, has an appearance which may give a fertile imagination some idea of what it has once been; but, had any lover of nature seen it previously to the commencement of these operations, about five years ago, it would fill him with the deepest regret to see it to-day,

* "This I actually saw done in Perthshire two years ago. See also an instance in Price's Essays, vol. ii. p. 228."

'Fresh from the improver's desolating hand.'

Knight.

"The flower-garden, and almost every other operation of art at ———, in which ornament is the principal consideration, is equally unnatural and out of character. Mr ———, in my humble opinion, has thrown away a great deal of money in

counteracting nature, and literally defacing his place. And as all this is finished from the plan and directions * of a very generally employed landscape gardener of the present day, Mr ———, for whom (though I see this freedom with his works) I have the highest regard. It fully coincides with all which I have written respecting modern English gardening and its professors."

ART. III. *Two Essays, one on the Author's Mode of executing rough Sketches, the other on the Principles on which they are composed. To these are added three Plates of Figures.* By SAWREY GILPIN, Esq. R. A. These Essays are introduced by an Account of the Parish-school at Boldre near Lymington, for the Endowment of which the Essays and Drawings are sold, by WILLIAM GILPIN, M. A. pp. 43.

THIS ample title-page sufficiently explains the nature of the work, and the intentions of the benevolent author. To

the purchasers of his works, and the admirers of his style, these details will be interesting.

ART. IV. *Hints for Picturesque Improvements in ornamented Cottages, and their Scenery, including some Observations on the Labourer and his Cottage, in three Essays, illustrated by Sketches.* By EDMUND BARTELL, Jun. pp. 140.

ARCHITECTURE, like every art that indulges the luxury or flatters the vanity of the rich, has its fashions, and cottage building is the present rage: not indeed the decent and comfortable dwelling to shelter the labourer—he is left to "bide the pelting of the pitiless storm" in such rude huts as his poverty can procure, but the ornamented cottage, the summer retreat of citizens and fashionables. The idea of a cottage is interesting to the imagination; it is associated with early feelings, with rural pleasures, with poetry and romance, and the love of cottages, were it not in general a mere deception and abuse of terms, would be a pleasing feature of public taste; but a cottage, in the modish acceptance, means a low white house with French casement windows and latticed viranda or rustic porch, carpetted with green cloth, and furnished with rout chairs; well provided with servants offices, coach-house, and stables; a something in which the real luxury of the inhabitant at every moment contradicts and rejects the humility of the name.

We have perused this elegant treatise with much pleasure; it shews, in the writer, taste and true love for the me-

desty of nature. The author, after properly observing that "a cottage, to use the word in its literal sense, means a house of small dimensions, appropriated to the use of the lower class of people, but to buildings of this description, the fashion of the present day has added one which bears a distinct character, and known by the appellation of the ornamented or adorned cottage," begins with considering the latter: in this simplicity and frugality are his main principles. "The characteristic mark of a cottage is humility, as if, conscious of its inferiority, it should appear to retire beneath the shelter of its friendly woods." The idea guides the choice of the materials which must be of a quiet, tender colour: to unite and harmonize with the adjacent scenery, the fierce red brick and tile, and the perfect white of lime-wash being equally rejected. The covering should be of reed, thatch, or slate: the first "from its neatness and simplicity, and of all others to be preferred for rural buildings." "Thatch also is warm and picturesque beyond any other covering especially when time has given it some spirited touches, just sufficient to break its evenness of surface, without impairing

"Some improvers, when employed to give their opinion respecting the mode of erecting out any place in connexion with a general plan, give their ideas more fully in writing, illustrated by drawings. This manuscript, Mr. Repton calls a red book. I have adopted a similar practice; only, I have styled my red books *Reports* or *Treatises* on the improvement proposed for any estate."

an idea of dampness;" the eaves should project far to cast a breadth of shadow on the walls, while windows in the roof break and vary its regularity of surface. "Next to that, slate (where it can be had on the spot), for neatness and harmony of colour, is the material to be preferred. But unless the building is in the neighbourhood of a slate quarry, or in a situation where slate can be procured at an easy rate, and is in frequent use, it breaks in upon frugality, the appearance of which should never be overlooked." The slated roof should overhang the wall with a still broader projection than that of thatch, and its slope should be comparatively flat.

A porch, if well managed, is the best and most picturesque mode of entrance, and "if a rustic colonnade or portico be desired, let it be in character with the building to which it is attached. Trees of a proper size, in their rough state, having only the bark taken off, are the most proper supports; around which the ivy or the woodbine may be properly trained, sometimes wholly, sometimes partially hiding these natural columns, adorned by the varnished leaves of the one, or the gay and luxuriant festoons of the other." Facades of trellis-work are accused of a littleness of appearance and a dressed air, incompatible with the simple character of a cottage.

Gothic windows are very commonly used in these structures, but the author does not "think them altogether consistent with the simplicity of the building," and recommends the common casement divided into three parts, and of greater width than height. We must, however, observe that this declaration is inconsistent with the designs, in which pointed arched windows are perpetually introduced.

The writer proceeds to make some good remarks on the use of coloured glass, part of which we shall extract.

"The next consideration that presents itself is, whether painted or stained glass be admissible in the design of the ornamented cottage. For two reasons I think it is. First, its general use in such situations in some measure warrants it: and, secondly, the romantic character of the design is increased by it, and receives from it a certain air of originality that strikes upon the imagination.

"When well managed, coloured glass is capable of producing a most pleasing effect; but it must be in a mass, and that a pretty large one, to give it all its value. We may

admire a single piece of glass for the beauty of its execution, or the splendour of its colours; but seen in a mass, the detail is forgotten, and we admire it, not for what it is, but for the effect which it produces; that sweet solemnity, that peculiar and universal tint, which is only to be acquired by a partial exclusion of light through a coloured medium, and which was formerly accomplished by means of two tints only.

"Her Gothic temples dimm'd with solemn shade
Of calcin'd glass distain'd; tho' not as new,
Gay with the colours of the solar bow;
Two simple tints alone their aid supply'd,
And ingress to the rushing light deny'd."

"The gloom of a painted window in old cathedrals," says Mr. Gilpin, "is very pleasing; but I should desire only ornamental scrolls. The best painted windows I remember to have seen, were (I believe in the chapel) at Magdalen College, Oxford. They are single figures, and only in clear obscure. They are the best because they are the least glaring.

"In general, I am entirely of Mr. Gilpin's opinion with respect to quiet colours; but in a painted window there is a warmth and richness from the glow of the orange, lake, and other tints of that class, particularly towards sun-set, that to me is very pleasing. But of the superiority of the one over the other I cannot form a proper judgment, having never, that I recollect, seen painted glass in a clear obscure in sufficient quantity to be acquainted with its effect.

"The whole coloured stained glass that is now in common use in ornamented windows, though of beautiful colours, certainly produces a glaring, and even an unpleasant effect. There is no gradation of colour; the contrast between blues, reds, greens, orange, and purples, is too glaring; it destroys all unity, and, instead of producing that solemnity, that glowing yet delightful repose, so grateful to the eye, where all those colours melt into each other, it only forms a chequered patch-work.

"I know not whether the scheme could be accomplished at the glass manufactories; but I have often conceived, that if glass could be made to resemble marbled paper, as far as colours and effect are concerned, it would be an excellent substitute for painted glass. There is a variety in the disposal of the colours that is amusing, no two pieces being exactly like each other. The experiment may be easily tried, by making transparent a piece of marbled paper, the colouring of which is rather warm; this, placed on a window against the light, will have a very pleasing effect."

The tall picturesque chimneys of the older manorial and farm-houses are pro-

posed for imitation in the cottage chimney shafts, which ought to be placed in different parts to form a varied outline, opposed to the sky or woody screen, while the wreathing and floating smoke presents an object ever pleasing in rural scenes.

The internal finishing of the building should correspond with its external character; "chairs of yew-tree or elm, and tables of oak or wainscot should take the place of mahogany; the walls white, or at most, tinged with a wash of some modest pleasing colour, while the doors, window-frames, floors, skirting, chimney-pieces, &c. should correspond with the chairs and tables, and be left as from the hands of the carpenter." Paint is considered as unnecessary both in the adorned and labourers' cottage.

To illustrate these principles, the author has well described two ornamented cottages.

"The first, for propriety of ornament, and simplicity of decoration, is superior to most things of the kind. To say that it is completely convenient also, would be going too far; but when we consider what it formerly was, (only a small inconvenient cottage) and what it now is, criticism will perhaps be disarmed by admiration.

"This delightful retirement, embosomed in trees, and surrounded with its garden and little lawn, fronts north and south, and consists of a kitchen, two parlours, and three chambers, besides the garrets in the roof. The parlours, which have thorough lights, are ornamented with spacious windows of the Gothic form, which with the doors, floors, mouldings, &c. are all of wainscot, left of its natural hue.

"The walls of one of these rooms are lined with a paper of a corresponding colour to the wood-work, upon a white ground; while in the other they are simply white-washed as far as the mouldings, below which they are clothed with a fine matting; this, with the furniture in the same unaffected style, renders them the most pleasing apartments of the kind that I ever saw.

"I never think of this sequestered, elegant retreat, but it recalls to my imagination some of the most pleasant hours of my life. Every feature, both within and without, breathes such an air of tranquillity and cheerfulness, that we are at a loss to comprehend from what source it arises, as the situation (taken abstractedly) is by no means beautiful. It can, therefore, be only said to spring from

that happy taste, which has made art triumph over the defects of nature, and that in such a way as to appear only the secondary cause of effect.

"Scenes must be beautiful, which daily view'd

Please daily, and whose novelty survives
Long knowledge and the scrutiny of years:
Praise justly due to those that I describe."

COWPER.

"The second cottage which I proposed in mention, is favoured with every advantage of situation; and most things externally appear to have been done with a tasteful hand. Planting has been pursued with spirit, and promises a fair reward; added to which, the spot is formed by nature to do credit to the hand of art. The situation of the house is happily chosen, in the bosom of a deep romantic little valley, and commands a beautiful view of the ocean at the distance of about three quarters of a mile; and, generally speaking, the external effect of the building, and of the whole, with a few trivial exceptions, is good, and such as would reasonably lead us to anticipate a thorough correspondence within. But in this (as is too frequently the case) we are disappointed: mahogany furniture, and fashionable paper, ill agree with pointed windows, ornamented with stained glass, and doors studded after the Gothic fashion; but which are rendered more absurd, by being painted of a dirty white. Such incongruities, such mixtures of town-fashions with sylvan scenes, are irreconcilable to every idea of true taste, and must, by each destroying the effect of the other, exclude all possibility of producing harmony. Where this principle is wanting, the eye of taste looks in vain for gratification; where it prevails, although produced with the meanest materials, the effect is sure to please."

We have thus, following the steps of our author, stated succinctly, but accurately, the principles which he lays down, and the details which he recommends; it remains to advance, and so much have we seen of judgment and taste in this treatise, that we do it with diffidence, some objections which occur to us.

Simplicity is of the very essence of taste; where this harmonizing principle is wanting, magnificence and splendour lavish their powers only to disgust. Simplicity, however, is but a subsidiary and attendant quality, and sought for its own sake, deviates into meanness. It should preside over ornament, not banish

* "Congruity and propriety, wherever perceived, appear agreeable; and every agreeable object produceth in the mind a pleasant emotion. Incongruity and impropriety, on the other hand, are disagreeable, and, of course, produce painful emotions."

Kaimes's Elements of Criticism.

it. To say that an object is simple, is of itself no praise; we inquire, is it well proportioned, beautifully ornamented? In many edifices, utility is the primary object, and this principle alone will reconcile us to their appearance; well judged proportions may make them pleasing; size may give them grandeur, but only ornament can produce beauty. Let us bring an example. Take a Grecian temple, the renowned parthenon, the pride of Athens; strip it of what are absolutely and merely decorations; for the graceful column, with its fluted shaft and swelling capital, substitute a square pillar; deprive the entablature of its divisions: strip the frieze of its triglyphs and sculptured metopes; the pediments of their alto relievos; let plain eaves replace the moulded cornice, and what is left? undoubtedly the form and general proportions remain, and these are so fine that it will still be a pleasing object, but its beauty is vanished.

Thus we think Mr. Bartell, misled by the term cottage, has placed the standard of taste too low, and has pursued an easily attainable and valueless simplicity to the exclusion of beauty. The cottages of the poor are, and always will be, simple enough. This is easy to imitate. He observes, "if we refer to those painters of the Dutch or Flemish schools who have introduced such buildings into their works, we may find an infinite variety of examples to our purpose: no other works afford so much of that picturesque effect which arises from sudden deviation and irregularity of parts, to which they join an infinity of lesser objects which might be transferred to practice, or from which other ideas might spring, productive of great advantages. In their buildings, be their forms ever so rude, you find them truly consistent: they seldom offend by introducing ornaments foreign to their subject." This is very true, and he might have added the names of Gainsborough and Morland; but then what need elaborate treatises, and designs to teach what every country carpenter can execute? These painters drew from what they saw, and why should not the art of cottage building be left to the illiterate workmen who now practise it, and the accidents of time and necessity, in the certain assurance of producing these so much to be desired picturesque effects?

It appears to us that the attempt to give to a gentleman's residence the ap-

pearance of a cottage, is a solecism in architecture: the mere size required for the domestic arrangements of a family accustomed to modern conveniences, gives an importance to the building which renders the thatch roof a meanness, and the rude porch a disgrace.

If then we were required to recommend a style of building for the smaller villas of the rich, we have floating in imagination some scarcely embodied ideas of a garden architecture, which might find models in the arabesques of Herculaneum, and the palaces of India; a style of slender columns, latticed verandas, and balconied windows.

But we hasten to the second essay, which treats of the out-buildings, grounds, and scenery adapted to the ornamented cottage: these are to partake the simplicity of the principal structure. The appropriate bridges are thus pleasingly described.

"If a bridge be required, it should be of the simplest form: perhaps we should be guided in its construction by the kind of stream that it has to cross. To the peaceable rivulet gliding in silence along its sedge channel, and whose waters are almost imperceptible to the eye, the simple plank and rail is best adapted; while to the more active noisy stream, that brawls along a pebbly bed, or tumbles down a precipice, a little more of art is required: the rude arched trunk of some knotty tree, thrown across in its natural state, supported by piles equally rude, adding to it a railing of the same kind, seems in this case most in character with the feature with which it is combined."

Seats under the venerable oak, the sheltering thicker, or the moss grown bank, may be characteristically formed of a rude stone, the root of a tree, or a plank supported on posts. "I have seen (says the author) chairs made of the twisted branches of the oak or elm, truly grotesque," and we may add truly uncomfortable, "well adapted to the cottage garden; for in that situation such fantastic seats may be admitted; but at a distance, where the pleasure is supposed to exist in the serenity or beauty of the scene, first impressions should not be broken; no frivolous ornament should impertinently intrude itself to interrupt the repose."

Gates and styles, as objects of utility, and not of ornament, should not be rendered conspicuous by form or colour. Frequently is the harmony of the most beautiful field destroyed by a white

gate. An iron gate in cottage scenery, is "every way offensive, even the sound in its falling-to is shrill, harsh, and dissonant, and disturbs the tranquillity of the scene. The shutting of a gate in the stillness of evening, is a sound that creates an interest. The expected return of a friend, the solitary peasant retiring from his labour, its echoes among the woods; each of these affords a theme of reflection; even the sound itself is pleasing, either mingled with other sounds, or breaking for a moment the silence that reigns around."

In the third essay the author considers the cottages of the poor, and claims with great earnestness and humanity the attention of land-owners to the comfortable habitation of their labourers. It is well observed that convenient room for cleanliness, and proper separation of the sexes is necessary for the health and the morals of the family, while the products of a garden ground, and a few rented acres would banish the abject poverty and hard necessity which breaks the spirit of the poor man, renders him careless of character, and impels him to knavery and depredation. "Is it to be wondered at, (exclaims the author with benevolent zeal) that men whose hearts are chilled by the icy gripe of poverty and distress, whose houses, or rather huts, exhibit nought but wretchedness, in short, who are to expect no comfort at their return from toil; is it to be wondered at, that deprived as it were of every thing which should constitute happiness in their own family, they seek with eagerness the comfort of an alehouse fire, and any society or amusement capable of producing a momentary oblivion to their cares?"

Copious as our extracts have been, we cannot refuse ourselves the pleasure of quoting, in contrast to these melancholy reflections, the beautiful description of a happy cottage.

"In the humblest cot there are innumerable little circumstances to which attention may be directed; and which, though trifling in themselves, and almost equally so in regard to expence, tend greatly to heighten the picturesque appearance externally, as well as its character and comforts internally.

"A warm and comfortable cottage, under every circumstance of seasons, is an object calculated to produce the most pleasant sensations. In spring and summer, the surrounding verdure, the little garden decorated with flowers and loaded with fruit, to which add cleanliness and cheerfulness, place it among the most interesting and rural scenes.

"In autumn, when the first frosts begin to tinge the decaying foliage that surrounds it with all its rich variety of colouring; when, joined to the perfect stillness of a calm autumnal day, the misty atmosphere spreads its tender grey tint over the landscape;—it is that the cottage enjoys its utmost harmony and repose, and wears its most picturesque attire.

"In winter, though less picturesque, is a no less pleasing object; when the fast-falling flakes have whitened its humble but impenetrable roof, and the snow-drifted peasant, shaking his garments, seeks the warm shade of its cheerful hearth.

"Domestic and other animals find round for shelter and for food, imparted in degree of character truly winter's own.

"The cattle from th' untasted fields return,
And ask, with meaning low, their wonted stalls,
Or ruminate in the contiguous shade;
Thither the household feathery people crowd.
The crested cock, with all his female train,
Pensive, and dripping; while the cottage hind
Hangs o'er th' enlivening blaze, and tucks there
Recounts his simple frolic: much he talks,
And much he laughs, nor reckes the snow
that blows
Without, and rattles on his humble roof."
THOMAS

"The picturesque character of a cottage, it has been before observed, is considerably increased by ivy, or other creeping plants climbing about it; but in the peasant's cottage, beauty and emolument should go hand-in-hand, and be kept constantly in view; therefore, instead of the ivy or the briony suckle, let the apricot, the pear, the plum, or any other productive wall-fruit, be placed as a substitute; the north aspect alone, as most favourable to the ripening of fruit, may be reserved for ivy, the situation of all others most adapted to its nature. The vine is far the most beautiful of all the wall-climbing trees, and where it meets with a situation that it likes, is by no means unproductive."

And again:

"The more elegant creeping plants preferred to twine about the door or window, whose regularity they break with all the native wildness, have an effect, as near as in idea to the primitive simplicity of images, an effect (if I may be allowed the expression) so classical, that it always excites admiration.

"They may sometimes be allowed to aspire even to the chimney, where their delicate tendrils flaunting in the breeze are to advantage; but if carried further than the very profusion destroys the effect, it produces a heaviness that is disagreeable."

It only remains to speak of the designs; respecting these we may say, pauper Cideri Cinna vult & est pauper.

We must again remark a want of consistency between the designs and the precepts advanced in the essays: it is here observed than an "ornamented cottage ought not to be less than two stories in height," (which is clearly necessary to procure convenient chambers) "and if the roof be pitched high, it is rendered more picturesque, and room is left to convert that part into garrets." But every one of the designs is repre-

sented with only one square story, the chambers being merely garrets in the roof. It is true that an additional story could not have been added without destroying their cottage character, and this supports the objections we have made to these cottage villas in general.

Mr. Bartell, unacquainted with the details of building, has given elevations without plans, and accordingly has been led into mistakes which would soon be perceived in endeavouring to reduce any of these designs to practice.

ART. V. *An Essay on Light and Shade, on Colours, and on Composition in general.*

By M. GARTSIDE. pp. 43.

ACCUSTOMED as we are to bold professions, we were not a little surprised at the first sight of this book; An Essay on Composition in general, comprised in 43 quarto pages! However, on proceeding beyond the title-page we find that this flower-painter only intends to give instructions to his fair pupils in the drawing and colouring of flower pieces. "I must beg to be understood that I presume not to offer them to my fellow artists, but only to those pupils whom it is my lot and my duty to instruct to the best of my power, which a desire of doing more fully than the space of a short visit has sometimes enabled me to do as I wished, has been one cause, with other considerations, for making them public;

and my intention, I hope, will plead my apology for many imperfections, no doubt, there are in them, that I am unable at present to discover."

The author begins very properly by recommending the study of perspective, which, though the foundation of all drawing, is disgracefully neglected not only by students and amateurs, but by professed artists. Of this Mr. Gartside has shewn himself an example in the figures by which he pretends to illustrate the principles of this art.

On the subject of "colours and their arrangement in groups," the writer is better informed, and this part of the work has considerable merit.

ART. VI. *Crosby's Builder's New Price-Book for 1804, containing a correct Account of all the Prices allowed by the most eminent Surveyors, to Bricklayers, Carpenters, Joiners, Staters, Plumbers, Masons, Plasterers, Painters, Glaziers, Smiths, and Carvers. Shewing the different Prices, with the Rise and Value of Materials and Labour, from the Year 1760 to 1804. Together with Tables ready cast up of Prices and Measurements of Timber, Brickwork, Plastering, Paving, Tiling, and Slating; also the Prices of Task-work, or Labour only. To which are added the Value and Method of constructing and measuring Ovens of all Descriptions, and the Properties, Uses, and Prices of eight different Kinds of Lime for Building; also Directions how to make Cements for Furnaces and Water-works, and a copious Abstract of the Building Act, with the Names and Residences of the District Surveyors, and the last Duties on Windows.* By JOHN PHILLIPS, Surveyor, assisted by several eminent Surveyors and Builders, Author of the History of Inland Navigation, and formerly Surveyor of Canals in Russia, during the Reign of the late Empress Catharine II. pp. 140.

"THAT a book of this kind is much wanted, is universally acknowledged by all concerned in the building line: the multiplicity of the different articles used in building, even to the most acute of the trade, are so numerous, and the prices are so various and complicated, that it will be as useful and necessary to remind and refer to, by the most expert in the

profession, as to assist those whose laborious and successful employment in life has crowned their diligence in their different avocations, and not permitted them time, or perhaps means for an early scholastic education." This introductory sentence is so worded as to lead the reader to suppose the present work to be the first and only one of the kind; it is,

therefore, our duty to inform him that this is a rival of "the Builder's Price-book" which has been published for many years by Taylor, of Holborn. The list of articles is of course nearly the same in both works, but Mr. Phillips's is more numerous, and he has added an abstract of the building act, and a trifling description of limes and cements. The pretended account of the rise in value of "materials and labour from the year 1760 to 1804," is executed in this

manner: one price is given from 1760 to 1790, and another from 1790 to 1804; as if during the first period of 30, and the second of 13 years, there had been no variations, and this is uselessly continued throughout the book.

It is at least incumbent on those who make tables to save others the trouble of calculating, to be themselves accurate. We would, therefore, advise Mr. Phillips, before he publishes a new edition, to examine the figures of page 64.

ART. VII. *Hints to young Practitioners in the Study of Landscape Painting, illustrated by ten Engravings intended to shew the different Stages of the neutral Tint. By J. W. ALSTON, L. P. To which are added Instructions for the Art of Painting on V. &c. pp. 75.*

THIS trifling performance contains some of the instructions and mechanical details which are imparted by drawing-

masters to their scholars, and the engravings are such as we hope no teacher would propose for imitation.

ART. VIII. *DUPPA's Heads, from M. Angelo and Raffaello. Folio.*

MUSIC, poetry, and painting, are generally called the sister arts; but it is a grievous mistake to consider them as equally valuable, or to imagine that equal talents are required to excel in either. Though music, says Fuller the Worthy, is nothing else but wild sounds, civilized into time and tune; such is the extensiveness thereof, that it stoopeth as low as brute beasts, yet mounteth as high as angels; for horses will do more for a whistle than for a whip; and, by hearing their bells, jingle away their weariness. Old Fuller, though as happy as ever in his language, is here less happy than usual in his illustrations. Whether the sound of psalm-singing does indeed reach as high as to the angels' ears, only the angels can tell; and the waggoner's bells are certainly intended more for the benefit of travellers in a dark night, than for the amusement of the horses who bear them. But it is not the less true, that young and old, civilized and savage, man and beast, are alike susceptible to music. Dogs will howl to the flute, or to the trumpet; snakes come from their hiding-places at the song of the charmer; bees are hived by the tinkling of a brass pan; and, if there be any truth in the legend of the Pied Piper, he was a Dutch Orpheus, who applied his skill to the laudable purpose of rat-catching. Even inanimate things are affected by sound, glass rings at the touch of an instrument, one string will answer to another in unison, and some old commentator has observed that,

when the walls of Jericho fell, the miracle was performed by natural means; for the tune which was played upon the ram's horns was of so subtle a nature, that it insinuated itself into the pores of every stone in the wall, and made them vibrate so violently, that the whole fortifications were shaken down.

But, if the influence of music be thus general, it is of all things the least permanent. Its effects are no sooner felt, than they are gone—like the passions of a dream, or the colours of a land-locked bay, when the sun and the wind play together upon the waves. It must also be remembered, in comparing the three arts, that music is rather sensual than intellectual, its effects being wholly medicinal. Sweet sounds have little more to do with intellect than sweet odours; hence it is that we hear of musical prodigies, because the ear of a child may be as exquisitely susceptible as that of a man; and it is the ear only which is concerned; no combination of talents, or power of thought, no extent of knowledge, is required; nor is there any instance upon record, of one eminent as a musician, having been eminent for anything else. The productions of chance, in this art, even exceed those of skill: the most practised and delicate finger cannot produce from the harp such sweet and penetrating sequences of sound, as when the wind sweeps over its strings.

Painting and poetry are more nearly akin; the same sense of beauty and pro-

riety, the same power of combination, the same vividness of conception, the same creativeness of mind, are necessary in both; these intellectual endowments are convertible to other purposes, and accordingly great painters, and great poets, are found to have distinguished themselves in every department. Salvator excelled as a poet, Rubens as a statesman, Michael Angelo, and Raffaello, as architects, Leonardo da Vinci in every accomplishment, and every branch of human knowledge. To instance this same convertibility of genius in the poets, we need not look beyond England. Chaucer was the most scientific man of his contemporary countrymen: the wisest realisation upon Ireland which has been written is the work of Spenser. Sidney, or the author of the *Arcadia* is, in the truest sense of the word, a poet, approaches more nearly to the idea of a perfect man, as well as of a perfect knight, than any character of any age or nation; and, when Charles I. was brought to the block, Milton was the man chosen by the Commonwealth of England to justify the action to all Europe, and to all posterity.

But more is required of the poet than of the painter; a wider range of knowledge, and more continuous exertion of thought; his reward is proportionately greater; the picture produces the most general effect; whoever sees it understands it to the measure of his capacity; it is, in this respect, as universal as music; but it is material, and therefore perishable. Of all the Grecian painters, not a relic survives; and, were it not for the accidental discovery of engraving, the pictures of Michael Angelo, and Raffaello, would share the fate of those of Zeuxis, and Parrhasius, and Apelles. It falls to the lot of few to see the masterpieces of the art, and, after they have been seen, the impression which they leave becomes, day after day, more faint. But we lay up the treasures of poetry in our memory, and in our hearts. The tooth of time, said Burns to one of his poetical friends, who might with more propriety have addressed the noble praise to him—

‘The tooth of time may gnaw Tamallin,
But thou’s for ever.’

The engraver, therefore, stands in a higher relation to the painter, than the translator to the poet; he not only ex-

tends his sphere of fame, but he preserves it, and without him it would perish.

Mr. Duppa is well known to the public, by his account of the subversion of the papal government; when that event took place, he was busied in studying those fresco pictures, the characteristic merits of which are here elucidated. To speak of the merits of the two great artists, with whose works we are thus made more accurately acquainted, would be superfluous: to names so celebrated no commendation now can add celebrity.

The preface to the first of these works does not enter into the life of Michael Angelo, that being reserved for a separate publication. It relates chiefly to the great picture, from which the heads are selected.

“The general design of this composition, with perhaps an exception to one part, is strictly conformable to the doctrine and tenets of the Christian faith. Angels are represented as sounding trumpets, the dead as rising from the grave and ascending to be judged by their Redeemer, who, accompanied by the Virgin Mary, stands surrounded by martyred saints. On his right and left are groups of both sexes, who, having passed their trial, are supposed to be admitted into eternal happiness. On the opposite side to the resurrection and ascension, are the condemned precipitated down to the regions of torment, and at the bottom is a fiend in a boat conducting them to the confines of perdition, where the other fiends are ready to receive them. In two compartments at the top of the picture, which are made by the form of the vaulted ceiling, are groups of figures bearing the different insignia of the passion.

“A minute criticism of this extensive picture might rather perplex than inform the general reader, yet illimitated and indiscriminate praise serves only to characterise a heated imagination, and rarely advances the credit of either the work or the encomiast. Varchi and Vasari are both of this description; their judgment is lost in their admiration, and words seem insufficient for their desire of bestowing encomium. They are not, however, peculiar in wishing that the abilities of their friends should appear to have increased with declining years; and as this was the most important of his latter works, it is easy to apologise for their desire of representing it as the most perfect.

“Amidst such an assemblage of figures, some groups may reasonably be expected more admirable than others, more justly conceived, or happily executed: and it cannot be denied, that there are many parts which shew the plenitude of Michael Angelo’s talents: yet, upon the whole, comparing him with himself, it may be questioned, whether this

picture, stupendous as it is, does not rather mark the decline than the acme of his genius. The satire of Salvator Rosa, in these lines, is well known; and, though put into the mouth of the critic Biagio Martinelli, appears not to be wholly ill founded:

"Michel Angiolo mio, non parlo in gioco;
Questo che dipingete è un gran Giudizio;
Ma, del Giudizio voi n'avete poco."

"In addition to his adopting the unphilosophical notions of the darker ages, to comply with the vulgar prejudices of his time, the painter has also injudiciously added some ludicrous embellishments of his own. But the most serious exception made to the general composition by his contemporaries, was that of violating decorum, in representing so many figures without drapery. The first person who made this objection was the pope's master of the ceremonies, who, seeing the picture when three parts finished, and being asked his opinion, told his holiness, that it was more fit for a brothel than the pope's chapel. This circumstance caused Michael Angelo to introduce his portrait into the picture with ass's ears; and not overlooking the duties of his temporal office, he represented him as master of the ceremonies in the lower world, ordering and directing the disposal of the damned; and, to heighten the character, wreathed him with a serpent, Dante's well known attribute of Minos:

"Stavi Minos orribilmente, e ringhia:
Esamina le colpe nell'entrata,
Giudica e mauda, secondo ch'avvinghia.
Dica, che quando Vanima mal nata
Li vien dinangi; tutta si confessa;
E quel conoscitor delle peccata
Vede qual luogo d'inferno è da essa;
Cignesi cou la coda tante volte,
Quantunque gradi vuol, che qui sia messa".

INFERNO, Canto V.

"It is recorded, that the monsignore petitioned the pope to have this portrait taken out of the picture, and that of the painter put in its stead; to which the pope is said to have replied, "Had you been in purgatory, there might have been some remedy, but from hell, nulla est redemptio."

"However this may have been, the portrait still remains, (V. Pl. IV.); yet it would seem, succeeding popes were less indulgent to the feelings of Michael Angelo, and more disposed to adopt those of Martinelli; for Adrian VI. was so disgusted with the picture, that he had

it in contemplation to destroy it entirely; and Paul IV. would certainly have white-washed the wall, had it not been suggested to him, that drapery might still be added to obviate his objections; for which purpose Daniel de Volterre was afterwards employed, and his additions still remain.

"For the credit of this great master, whose talents were so unworthily engaged, it is but justice to observe, that he made no alteration in the picture, which might not at any time be easily removed; as he purposely painted the drapery in a different process, to prevent its uniting with the original colouring."

One main object which Mr. Duppa had in view, in the selections both from this master and from Raffaello, was to shew, that there is a just feeling of *chiar'oscuro*, corresponding with grandeur of design, in the fresco works of both, and that the light and shadow is distributed in masses, unlike the oil pictures of the Roman and Florentine schools, which are generally without any science of *chiar'oscuro*, and the drawing of the features hard and liney, consequently the general composition frittered into parts, which is materially disadvantageous to the impression a picture ought to make upon the mind as a whole. Plates 6, 8, 10, in Michael Angelo, and the heads from the jurisprudence, and the retreat of Attila in Raffaello, are good examples, and indisputably prove that the principle was well understood by both; a fact that could never be inferred from the oil pictures which go under their names. These great masters therefore are vindicated from the imputation of having been deficient in the knowledge of what, in the language of painters, is called breadth, as well in drawing as in light and shadow. To render justice to the illustrious dead, is always a worthy occupation; but Mr. Duppa will benefit future artists as well as the past, if by these magnificent publications he should make the public inquire about those masters who have gone out of fashion in modern times, because they were supposed not to possess the subordinate requisites of historical painting. This demonstration of their union, in these works of acknowledged sublimity, may possibly occasion a reformation in the English school, where the utmost ex-

ravagance of chiar'oscuro and colour have superseded every other consideration, and almost banished from modern pictures, drawing, character, and composition.

"It was from the pursuit of truth, with a just knowledge of its highest principles of cultivation and refinement, that ancient Greece became permanent. Italy has been great only in proportion to her success in pursuing the same path; and, if the northern nations ever hope to rival their fame, there can be no doubt but they must employ the same means. It is however to be feared that the social character of the English nation will ever render national grandeur subordinate to its comforts and domestic habits. Nevertheless the principles in the highest department of the art are applicable in the lowest: every character is capable of being elevated in its kind, and the habit of pursuing the inherent laws of nature, will enable superior powers to discover excellence through a maze of deformity, where those who have not that habit would never find it.

"Whether the arts in England are in a progressive state of advancement may require a pause to determine. The talents of Hogarth, Gainsborough, and Reynolds, have not been revived; and corresponding merit with those who were selected thirty years ago to ornament St. Paul's with historical pictures, would not at this time be easily supplied. The art of engraving is certainly much below what it was at that period. Since the death of Woollett and Strange it has become a mechanical trade. Machines have been invented to facilitate the progress, and printing in colours adopted to cover the defects, and give currency to works below mediocrity. The subjects chosen for this species of manufacture are such as are best adapted to the humour of the day; and the number of figures in historical compositions, consistent with the lucrative advantages of commercial speculation, are often regulated by the employer to lessen the expence."

An outline of the last judgment by Bartolozzi is given. The subject is too vast for painting—we should have said too vast even for language, if we had not remembered the almost miraculous eloquence of Jeremy Taylor. In this composition Mr. Duppa has well observed, that the mind is divided and distracted by the want of a great concentrating principle of effect. Heaven, earth, and hell; the glorious company of saints, and the noble army of martyrs; angels and fiends; the elect and the reprobate, form too crowded an assemblage to be contemplated collectively. The artist himself felt this, and bestowed more atten-

tion upon the parts of his picture than upon the design.

"Possessing the most important requisites of his art, Michael Angelo appears often regardless of the subordinate qualifications. In his happiest efforts his subject is imaged with a strength of thought peculiar to himself, and his hand seems at once to have traced and decided the image of his mind, without exhibiting any attractive powers of mechanical excellence; and, as Reynolds justly observes, that mind was so rich and abundant that he never needed, or seemed to disdain to look around for foreign help. Guided only by nature, his own genius amply supplied the necessity of his referring to the works of his predecessors. No artist, perhaps, that ever lived, was freer from plagiarism, and it may be interesting to observe, that in the last judgment, which was painted nearly at the close of a long life, he seems evidently to have had individual nature constantly before him, and to have referred to it more than to any fixed principles which he had formed by his previous practice. There are few heads which do not appear to have been more or less copied from nature, and the one rising from death (Pl. VII.) is selected as a strong instance of his minute attention to the model which was probably before him. He has there not only marked this attention, by the individuality of his outline, and peculiarity of expression, but even by the representation of the hair of the eye-lashes, which in an historical picture containing more than three hundred figures as large as life, would not have been thought necessary, if, at the time he was painting, he had not been more occupied by the particular object of imitation than with the general character of the whole composition."

The present plan is therefore the best possible for conveying to the public a just idea of this celebrated picture. The effect of the whole is shown by the general outline, and the most striking heads are represented upon the same scale as the original. The title-page to this work is truly grand; it contains a large vignette, representing the gate of hell, from Dante, which is in the very first style of engraving. There is a striking resemblance between the head of Michael Angelo and of Homer.

A life of Raffaello is prefixed to the other of the works. It is to be regretted that so little is known of a man so wonderful, but what little is known shows him to have been good and amiable. One part of his character has been successfully vindicated by the present biographer.

"At this period, in the meridian of life,

and in the full possession of its enjoyments, Raffaello became an unfortunate victim to the barbarous state of the medical knowledge of his own time : and from the unscientific manner in which his death has been reported, the grossest misapprehensions have been taken as to the cause of it. Raffaello was handsome in his person, amiable in his manners, and of delicate constitution. He was not married; and the irregularities incident to celibacy have been imputed to his character with a liberty of construction not supported by authority, nor justified by any known facts.

"A beautiful young woman, the daughter of a baker in Rome, and thence known by the distinction of *La Bella Fornarina*, was the person who early engaged his affections. Her portrait is represented as a muse in the picture of Mount Parnassus in the Vatican, painted in or before the year 1511. It also appears, that while he was employed by the Prince Gligi in painting his *Casino* in the Longara, which was one of his latest works, that he was more attentive to *La Fornarina* than to his employment for the prince. 'Raffaello did not expedite his work with any solicitude, from frequently leaving it to attend upon "*La sua amata*," from which circumstance it occurred to the prince that the best way to have his work sooner terminated, was to invite her also to reside in his house, which was done, and the Loggia was speedily finished, transcendently displaying the superior powers of his mind.' This is the account given by the author of the Milan MS. and perfectly agrees with Vasari, who relates the same circumstances; which sufficiently show that the greatest attachment subsisted between them. Neither is there the slightest mention of any other person who is supposed to have divided his affection. Raffaello is also known to have lived with her till his death; and, as a further confirmation of the sincerity of his affection, he left her by his will in a state of independence.

"From these facts, his morality may be censured by a better order of society, but there can be no reason to suspect that he was otherwise a man who made his passions subservient to irregularity. Whatever was the cause of the violent fever with which he was suddenly attacked, the physicians who were called in, immediately bled him, and with so little discretion, that instead of the benefit they proposed, his end was precipitated, and he fell a victim to the mistake. By this improper treatment, he became so rapidly reduced, that he had only time to make his will, and conform to the last offices of religion, before his death, which took place on the 7th of April, 1520.

"Thus terminated the life of the most illustrious painter of modern times; and, for any data we have to the contrary, perhaps the most eminent that ever lived at any period of the world."

It is a relief to pass from the last judgment to the pictures of Raffaello, from representations of fiendish malignity, or intense suffering, to the features of innocence, or thoughtful wisdom, or heavenly beauty. The greater part of these latter selections are from the dispute of the sacrament; we never saw heads more exquisitely engraved than those of St. Jerome and Cardinal Bonaventura; *La Fornarina* and Homer, are from the Mount Parnassus; it would have been better if the wreath of Laurel round Homer's brow had been left as an outline: at present it is not sufficiently distinct, and therefore renders more singular a head which is already strange from its eyelessness, and the manner in which the light falls on it. *La Fornarina* is exceedingly beautiful: the painter has certainly this advantage over the poet, that he can immortalize his mistress in the way most flattering to female beauty. The heads from the Jurisprudence, the School of Athens, and the Retreat of Attila, are intended to point out a freedom of drawing, and breadth of light and shadow, which decidedly show that difference which Sir Joshua Reynolds has remarked, as existing between the works of this great master in fresco and in oil. The title-page admirably corresponds to the work; it is a design for Raffaello's tomb, on which is placed the emblem of eternity, and the sun is seen setting behind St. Peter's.—The whole work is indeed uniformly excellent.

Mr. Duppa's remarks upon the merits of Raffaello, evince an able and discriminating mind. Our limits will only permit us to transcribe a part.

"On the sight of the *Capella Sistina* he immediately, from a dry, gothic, and even insipid manner, which attends the minute accidental discriminations of particular and individual objects, assumed that grand style of painting, which improves partial representation by the general and invariable ideas of nature. His fresco pictures in Italy, and his cartoons now in England, are the great works on which his immortality is founded. This mode of painting excludes all attention to minute elegancies; and as Raffaello owes his great reputation to his excellence in the higher parts of the art, so this mode was well calculated to display his superior powers, and at the same time not likely to betray him into any mechanical habit that his better judgment might disapprove. In these compositions propriety of sentiment prevails. In each individual figure the component parts

are correctly adapted to its own character, and the action uniformly cooperates with the general design. In this respect Raffaello both felt and understood the principles of the ancients; but if his drawing be considered in the abstract, as only relative to form, his correctness of outline cannot be compared with the antique. Form with him was only a vehicle of sentiment, to which it was ever made subservient. His drapery is uniformly well cast, the folds well understood, and disposed with great simplicity and elegance. In the disposition of hair he is peculiarly graceful; and, as may be most appropriate, it is arranged without formality, or negligent without being wild.

"In composition Raffaello stands pre-eminent. His invention is the refined emanation of a dramatic mind; and whatever can most interest the feelings, or satisfy the judgment, he selected from nature, and made his own. The point of time in his historical subjects is always well chosen; and subordinate incidents, while they create a secondary interest, essentially contribute to the principal event. Contrast or combination of lines make no part of his works, as an artificial principle of composition; the nature and character of the event create the forms best calculated to express it. The individual expression of particular figures ever corresponds with the character and the employment; and whether calm or agitated is at all times equally remote from affectation or insipidity. The general interest of his subject is kept up throughout the whole composition; the present action implies the past and anticipates the future. If in sublimity of thought Raffaello has been surpassed by his great contemporary, Michael Angelo, if in purity of outline and form, by the antique, and in colouring and chiar-oscuro by the Lombard and Venetian schools, yet in historical composition he has no rival; and for

expression, and the power of telling a story, he has never been approached."

Why has not painting flourished in England? the question is easily answered—for want of patronage, not for want of talents. One great work has been produced in our own days by Mr. Barry, under circumstances of such difficulty, and so honourable to his own ambition, that they will never be forgotten by posterity. Such an artist would, in the golden age of Italy, have been courted by popes and princes; but what has been his reward in England? His works will not be more honourable to the country hereafter, than the history of his life will be disgraceful. It is the misfortune of this art that it cannot exist without patronage. The man of letters may toil on in his retirement, regardless of the present generation, in sure and certain hope of the earthly immortality for which he is labouring; but the painter must have halls or altars to decorate, or his art becomes as useless as wings to a garden eagle. We have nothing magnificent in our national religion, the beauty of holiness with us is a mere metaphor; and the rejection of all ornament is a principle with our sectarians. The few who can afford to purchase pictures, find enough of the old masters always for sale; so that the evil at present seems irremediable, and we shall go on painting portraits and prize cattle till the general reproach of Europe excites a feeling of national pride, and makes us ashamed of the nakedness of our palaces, and temples, and public courts.

CHAPTER XXII.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.

ART. I. *An Introduction to the Knowledge of rare and valuable Editions of the Greek and Latin Classics, &c.* By T. F. DIBDIN, A. B. 8vo.

THE wealth and taste of the English nation have for some years rendered this country the chief mart for the productions of the fine arts. From every part of Europe they are continually flowing into the cabinets of our curious collectors. This is so eminently the case with regard to scarce and valuable books, that a distinguished French bibliographer of the present age makes the following remark, alluding to a fine copy of one of the Aldine classics, "qui fut sans doute acheté pour l'Angleterre; — car c'est dans ce pays qui depuis quelques années passent la plupart des livres précieux."

A taste for the collection of books, when regulated by considerations of utility, and guided by knowledge, is no doubt in a high degree rational and honourable. When carried to excess, or exercised in an undistinguishing appetite for what is rare or ancient, without regard to better considerations than those of rarity and antiquity, it is in danger, like other enthusiastic tastes, of becoming ridiculous. Thus one bibliographer celebrates the praises of a book, because it is probably "the only uncut vellum Aldus in the world." Another work has acquired a singular value in the eyes of the collector, because immediately after its publication, being discovered to be full of errors, it was suppressed, and is therefore extraordinarily rare. Nor can we think that the present writer has wholly escaped an exaggerated feeling of admiration for the external qualities of the art, with the productions of which he is conversant, when (speaking of Clarke's *Cæsar*) he observes, "the type of this magnificent volume is truly beautiful and splendid; and for its fine

lustre and perfect execution, reflects immortality on Tonson." p. 65.

The present work is styled the second edition of a publication under the same title, which was noticed in the first volume of this review (p. 538). The work however now appears in so enlarged a form, that the two publications have little in common, except the title and the index analyticus. It is divided into the following departments: 1st. an account of polyglot bibles; 2d. of Greek bibles; 3d. Greek testaments; 4th. editions of the most popular Greek and Latin classics; 5th. Roman writers on husbandry; 6th. Greek romances; 7th. various sets of the classics; 8th. an index analyticus. It is obvious that within the compass of an octavo volume only the most important articles can be treated; it cannot however be denied, that under these various heads, Mr. Dibdin has collected, from good authorities, much entertaining and instructive information.

As a specimen of the work we have selected the following article:

"Lexicon Heptaglotton, Hebraicum, Chaldaicum, Syriacum, Samaritanum, Æthiopicum, Arabicum, *conjunctim* : et Persicum *separatim*, &c. &c.

— Londini. Fol. 1669. 2 vol.

"The celebrity of this publication is so well known, that it is not necessary to enter minutely into the various parts of it, or to present the reader with the opinions of learned men thereon. Dr. Castell maintained in his own house, and at his own expense, seven Englishmen and seven foreigners as writers, all of whom died before the work was completed; he is said to have expended his whole patrimony on it, and to have borrowed such large sums, that it nearly occasioned

* "It was seventeen years composing and printing: the original price was forty shillings per volume."

his being thrown into prison for life. In his distress he wrote to king Charles—'ne carcer esset premium tot laborum et sumptuum!' Charles, who preferred gaiety to learning, and who would rather have bestowed a whole province on a debauched favourite than the smallest donation on a deserving scholar, wrote to the bishops and noblemen of the realm, recommending Castell and his work to their pity and protection; the bishops and noblemen, in their turn, recommended the author to the public: and thus, between the king, his court, and the public, Dr. Castell did not receive a farthing. What scholar of feeling can read the following interesting passage without a sigh? 'I had once,' says he, 'companions in my undertaking, partners * in my toil; but some of them are now no more, and others have abandoned me, alarmed at the immensity of the undertaking. I am now, therefore, left alone, without amanuensis or corrector, far advanced in years, with my patrimony exhausted, my bodily and mental strength impaired, and my eyesight almost gone!' In another passage he observes, 'I considered that day as idle and dissatisfactory in which I did not toil sixteen or eighteen hours either at the Polyglot or Lexicon.'

"From the dedicatory epistle to king Charles (preceding the preface), it appears that he lost the greater part of his library and furniture, and 300 copies of his Lexicon, in the memorable fire of London. He complains of the civil wars as 'pestis sævissima.'

"Such were the melancholy circumstances under which the Lexicon of Castell was composed; a work which has long challenged the admiration, and defied the competition, of foreigners; and which, with the great Polyglot of Walton, its inseparable and invaluable companion, has raised an eternal monument of literary fame†.

"It now remains to gratify the bibliographer with some account of the large paper copies of these sumptuous publications. Of the Polyglot, there are probably about twelve copies. Mons. Colbert had one, but his Lexicon was on small paper: this copy is now in the library of count Lauragais. See De Bure, No. 4, who was ignorant of there being any large paper copies of the Lexicon. At la Valliere's sale, No. 5, the Polyglot in large paper, 14 vol. and the Lexicon in small paper, 2 vol. were sold for 1251 livres. His majesty and lord Spencer have each a large paper copy of the Polyglot only. At Dr.

Mead's sale, No. 30, a large paper copy of both Polyglot and Lexicon ‡ was sold for 211. In the library of St. Paul's cathedral I saw a very magnificent one, in 14 vol., including the Lexicon, which was ruled with red lines: it was given by my maternal ancestor, Dr. Compton, then bishop of London, who founded the library. In the British Museum I saw another similar copy of both; the Lexicon was king Charles's own copy; and a third set of both Polyglot and Lexicon is in the library of St. John's College, Cambridge. Probably these three are the only large paper copies of the Lexicon in the world.

"The common paper copies of the Polyglot and Lexicon have now become rare and very valuable: Mr. Evans, in his Cat. of 1802, No. 399, has marked a fine copy, in Russia binding, at 311. 10s."

It is not perhaps to be expected, that a work of this nature should be wholly exempt from inaccuracies. We observe with pleasure that they are not numerous. There is one which, on account of its singularity, we are tempted to transcribe, though it cannot be referred to any other origin than typographical error. We hope to see it corrected in a future edition. "This work" (the edition of Aristophanes, printed at Amsterdam, 1670) "is compiled chiefly from Scaliger's edition, and contains the critical notes and Latin version of *Ecclesiæazarus*, with the animadversions of Faber." p. 36. In page 371, Mr. Dibdin should not have admitted the word Thebaidos as a legitimate title of the poem of Statius, being only the genitive case barbarously adopted by the ignorance of the gothic ages, from the running title of the books, in the same manner as our ancient writers speak of Virgil's *Æneidos*.

The few errors which a careful inspection might detect in the present work, are much overbalanced by the quantity of accurate information which it conveys. We therefore recommend it as a pleasing and useful guide to the young student of classical literature.

In a preceding paragraph, in describ-

* "He was indebted to Lightfoot for many valuable parts of his work; and had, indeed, such an entire reliance on that great man's judgment and learning, that he took his advice in every difficult point.

† "The following are the names of those great men (some of them the finest oriental scholars that ever appeared) who assisted in the compilation of the Polyglot and Lexicon: Usher, Castell, Fuller, Sheldon, Ryves, Saunderson, Hammond, Fearnæ, Thorndike, J. Johnson, R. Drake, Whelocke, Pocock, Greaves, T. Smith, J. Seldon, Huisse, S. Clarke, Lightfoot, Hyde, and Loftus.

‡ "I doubt whether the Lexicon was on large paper: the set was in 12 vol.: the Lexicon generally makes it 14 vol."

ing the contents of this publication, we adopted Mr. Dibdin's own analysis of his work; in addition to the subjects there mentioned, it however contains an account of lexicographical and gramma-

tical works, in which we think that a better arrangement might have been employed, by separating the ancient from the modern treatises.

ART. II. *Bibliographical Dictionary.* Vols. V. and VI. 8vo.

THE preceding volumes of this work we have already had occasion to notice, as they were presented successively to the public. The editor is now understood to be the rev. Adam Clarke. The present volumes partake, in a considerable degree, of the merits and defects of their predecessors. In continuation of our former articles, we shall proceed to notice a few passages in the order of their alphabetical occurrence.

VI. 5. To the list of macaronic poems may be added that of the late Dr. Geddes. Under the article *Mattaire*, one of the most valuable performances of that writer, his treatise on the Greek dialects, is overlooked.

After the mention of Bentley's *Manilius*, we are told, "Dr. Harwood thinks this the best edition ever Dr. Bentley published. The notes are excellent, and the text not licentiously altered." To Dr. Harwood's judgment (which is never to be implicitly adopted) we may oppose one of much greater weight, that of *Ruhnkentius*, who, speaking of the cautious limits observed by *Hemsterhusius* in the exercise of conjectural criticism, observes, *omnino nihil in contextu, nisi vetustarum membranarum auctoritate movendum censebat, ne Bentleio quidem veniam dans licentie, quam sibi sumsit in Manilio recensendo.*" *Elog.* 71b. *Hemsterhus*.

Under the article *Manutius*, to remedy the deficiencies of the preceding accounts of the Aldine classics, which the editor had not indeed the means of rendering complete, which were afterwards placed within his power, a list of all the editions published by the three *Manutii*, arranged according to their subjects, is inserted from the late interesting work of M. Renouard, entitled *Annals de l'imprimerie des Alde, ou histoire des trois Manuci, et de leurs editions.* Paris, 1803. We rejoice in the opportunity of adding our testimony to the merits of this work, which may rank with the best performances in the department of literature to which it belongs.

V. 114, is cited "*Musæus, Gr. et Arg. a Gilb. Wakefield, 8vo. Lond. 1797.*" Where was this work discovered? V. 128. It is not probable that any edition of the *Dionysiacs* of *Nonnus* was ever published at *Eton*. 118, is an error of the press, totally disguising the work which the editor intends to describe; *Hymni*—we suppose for *Heynii*. Typographical errors, indeed, scarcely pardonable, too frequently disfigure the pages of this work.

VI. 7. In the account of *Quintilian*, the very valuable edition by *Spalding*, now publishing in Germany, of which two volumes have already appeared, is overlooked. The edition of *Rollin* should have been described as incomplete, nearly a fourth part of the original being omitted.

P. 56. The name of *Michael Scott* occurs as author of a treatise *de procreatione hominis, recnon de physiognomia*. The memory of this obsolete sage, long dormant, will be revived in the present age by the marvellous agency attributed to him, in the splendid poem of romance lately published by Mr. *Walter Scott*.

P. 18. Under the title *Xenophon Ephesius*, the edition of *Locella*, 1778, should have been inserted, which is indeed the first valuable and complete edition of that writer. The first edition, by *Cocchi*, bearing the name of *London* in the title-page, was, we believe, really printed at *Florence*. See *Paciandii proloquium de lib. erot. ant.* prefixed to some editions of *Longus*. It is justly characterized by Mr. *Clarke* as a bad edition, full of errors. A valuable anecdote relating to this subject is preserved, honourable to the critic of whom it is told, and proving the efficacy of conjectural criticism, and the approximation to the truth at which it is capable of arriving, when cautiously and skillfully employed. We shall transcribe it in the words of the narrator. "*Felix critices illustre documentum dedit*" (*Hemsterhusius*) "*in Xenophonte Ephesio. Hic scriptor, ætate demum nostra, mendose et ægligenter editus in Italia,*

nativa sua venustate Hemsterhusium invitarat, et non solum quæ quid vitii traxissent, emendaret, sed plurimum etiam verborum lacunas de conjectura suppleret. Post Dorvillius, V. C., eundem scriptorem iterum ad codicem MS. exigi jussit. Quid quæris? Nullus unquam vates Hemsterhusio repertus est verior. Nam vetus codex lectiones et lacunarum supplementa sic, ut ille divinando restituerat, plerisque locis repræsentabat." Elog. Hemst. 15.

P. 51. The account given of the Schola Salernitana is inconsistent with

chronology. P. 94. The supposed fragment of Silius Italicus, printed in the edition of Villebrune, is, with much greater probability, regarded as the composition of Petrarch, in whose Africa it is found.

The chief department of the work is brought to its conclusion, in the volumes which have now passed under our notice. A supplementary volume is expected, containing an account of the best English translations of the Greek and Roman classics, with other important matter.

INDEX

OF

NAMES AND REMARKABLE PASSAGES, &c.

	<i>Page</i>		<i>Page</i>
Abernethy John, esq.	839	Bower Alexander	479
Adams John, Quincy	45	Bray, William, esq.	363
Alber Emperor. Anecdote of	172	Brayley E. W.	433
Aldington, Major John	683	Bridgeman W.	336
Alexander Wm.	907	Bridge-Town, Barbadoes, described	51
Alley George	814	Britton J.	438
Alligator, Manners of	17	Broughton Capt. W. Robert	89
Ally-Ghur Fort, the storming of	186	Brown, W. Cullen, M. D.	822
Alston J. W.	918	Brown, Thomas, M. D.	566
Almon John	529	Burgess, Thomas, Bishop of St. David's	124
Amphlett J.	585	Button John	570
Ancient Irish Dress	409		
Anecdote of an Armenian Merchant	665	Campbell Alexander	587
Anecdote of a Highland Family	589	Cape Settlers, Manners of	24-34-37
Approach of a Storm at Sea	579	Card Henry	165-211
Arguments for and against public Education	473	Carlisle, Antony, esq.	871
Arnold, S. J.	605	Carr, John, esq.	605
Arrindy Silk, Account of	769	Caulfield James	281
Arthur, Rev. Archibald	109	Chamberlaine William	839
Assalini, P. M. D.	798	Charitable Bank	324
		Cherry A.	606
Bachelor T.	596	Chinese, Manners of the	74
Bahama Islands described	53	Chinese outwitted	75
Baillie Joanna	609	Chinese Language	76
Barbauld Anna Letitia	500	Chinese Pilots	71
Barrow J. esq.	22-69	Churchill Charles	580
Bartell Edmund	912	Clapham Rev. S.	133
Barton, Ben. Smith, M. D.	747	Clarke, James Stanier	577
Battle naval off Copenhagen, Account of	204	Coad Joseph	241
Battle naval between Edward III. and the Spaniards	191	Coal of New South Wales	44
Bellour John	597	Cock S.	263
Bell Charles, esq.	846	Cockburne Rev. William	477
Bell Robert, LL. B.	271	Constantinople, Extent of its Walls	432
Belslam Rev. Thomas	137	Cooper, Astley, esq. ..	843
Benglog Waterfalls	387	Cooper, Rev. Edward	131
Benwell William	322	Corrie, Rev. John	140
Berthollet C. L.	902-903	Corry John	510
Bertrand de Molville, A. F.	211	Craig W. M.	459
Bewick T.	729	Crypshank, William, D. D.	125
Biddulph, Rev. Thomas, M. A.	143	Crowe Rev. W.	593
Bingley, William, A. M.	384	Culdees the, Account of	405
Black Beard the Pirate, Account of	55	Cumberland, Richard, esq.	607
Blackburne, Francis, M. A.	115	Cunningham James	682
Blackburne, Francis, LL. B.	115	Currie, James, M. D.	815
Bloomfield Robert	574		
Boase Henry	297	Dallas. R. C. esq.	211-551
Bombyx Quercus, Account of the	742	Darwin, Dr. Anecdote of ..	489
Boschemen, Mission to the	691	—, Plagiarism of	490
Bostock, John, M. D.	827	Daubeney Rev. Charles	136-154
Bournon, Count de	872	Davies Rev. Edward	634
Bowden, Rev. Joseph	129	Day William	567
		De Boigne, Account of	184

	Page		Page
De Boisgelin Louis	212	Grose, John, A. M.	131
Detention of the Spanish Plate Ships justified	319	Harrington Robert, M. D.	897
Dibdin Thomas	607	Hackett Mr.	591
Dickson R. W. M. D.	703	Hamilton Elizabeth	542
Dickson William, L. L. D.	234	Hamilton Lord Archibald	299
Dimond Mr.	607	Hanger Col. George	231
Dirge	595	Hawkin Rev. Edward	303
Disney John, D. D.	137	Hardwick, Capt. Thomas	767
Doddridge Philip, D. D.	141	Hatchett, C. Esq.	872-873-876-877
Dodson Michael, Esq.	105	Hatfield, J. F.	231
Donovan E.	723	Hawking	419
Drake Nathan, M. D.	674	Haworth, A. H.	737-752 772
Drama Grecian and Gothic, compared	63	Hayley, William, Esq.	471-598
Drummond, Rob. late Archbishop of York	125	Heberden, William, M. D.	785
George Hay, A. M.	125	Heibert William	414
Dunning Richard	779	Herdman John	754
Durham Cathedral described	438	Heriot George, Esq.	194
Durham James George, A. B.	115	Herschel William, L. L. D.	876
Duppa	918	Hensinger Conrad	332
Dibdin T. F. A. B.	924	Highland Festival	422
Earthquake in Canada, A. D. 1663	193	Highmore Antony	211
Edgeworth Maria	461-553	Hill John, L. L. D.	347-353
Edlin E.	793	Holcroft Thomas	56
Edwards Rev. John	137	Holland Rev. J.	452
Edwards William, the Architect, Account of	390	Home Everard, Esq.	873-876
Ellicott Andrew, Esq.	13	Hottentot Music	40
Ehnsley P.	331	Howard Nathaniel	595
Epigram	572	Howard Luke, Esq.	897
Epitaph by Mrs. More	573	Huddesford George	575
Evans John, A. M.	416	Hunter Henry, D. D.	135
Evans Rev. J.	137	Hunter A. M. D.	702
Evans J. B. A.	442	Hunter Mrs.	544
Farrel M. M. D.	902	Huntingford, George Isaac, Bishop of Gloucester	123
Faber George Stanley, B. D.	123	Hutton William	381
Falconer William	577	Hypocrite, the, from Bishop Hall	651
Farmer Rev. Hugh	105	Illumination, a Parisian	62
Father of Cartouch	527	Income Tax, Flaw in the	245
Fellowes Robert, A. M.	100	Innes Rev. William	155
Fessenden T. Green	571	Installation Verses by Mr. Crape	593
Fiogall, the Earl of	269	Irish Cottage	462
Finlay John	594	Irving David, A. M.	493
Fisher James A. R. A.	437	Jackson John, Esq.	319
Florida, Description of	17	Jackson Robert	686
Folly, ode to	564	Japanese, Manners of	90
Foster John Leslie, Esq.	294	Jaufret L. F.	453
Frazer Robert, Esq.	310	Jefferson Joseph	586
French Settlers in America	10	Jehangire Emperor, Anecdote of	173
Frend William, Esq.	235-244-869	Johnes Thomas, Esq.	189
Freyhinghausen, John Anastasius	121	Jordan O' W. Esq.	266
Froissart Sir John	189	Kaffers Account of	23-636
Gardiner J.	306	Kentish, Rev. John	141
Gardiner, John, M. D.	670	King Edward Esq.	443
Cartside M.	917	Kingdon Roger, A. M.	110
Gavin Douglas, Anecdote of	498	Kingleake Robert, M. D.	787
Gell W. Esq.	353	Klopstock, Mrs. Letter from to Richardson	507
Gellis Mad. de	549	Knapp J. L. Esq.	761
Giles James	467	Knight T. A. Esq.	873
Gilpin S. Esq.	912	Koenig Charles	772
Gilpin W. M. A.	912	Kotzebue Augustus Von	83
Gisborne, Thomas, M. A.	133	Laing Malcolm, Esq.	178
Glass, G. H. A. M.	136	Lambert Aylmer Bourke, Esq.	766-773
Gothe Baron	548	Lantier E. F.	541
Goldson William	776	Lauderdale, the Earl of	291
Grant Lieut. James	41	Layard Charles Peter, D. D.	187
Grant Rev. J.	142	Ledwich Edward, L. L. D.	382
Grathead Henry	681	Less Godfrey	110
Gravelly, R. F. Esq.	260		

	Page		Page
Letter from Sir W. Jones to Earl Spencer	482	Pilkington, William, Esq.	770
Letter from Lord Chatham to Lord Camelford	515	Playfair J.	865
Letter from Gilbert Wakefield to his Daughter	524	Plowden, F. Esq.	208
Letter from Cowper to Mr. Unwin	473	Plumptre Annabella	459
Lewis Charles Lea	680	Plymley, Joseph, A. M.	697
Linens of Silesia described	46	Poole James	306
Lloyd, Rev. Richard, A. M.	122	Potts, Joseph Holden, A. M.	124
Llyd Richard	598	Priestley, Rev. Joseph, L.L.D.	144
Lysone, Samuel, F. R. S.	441	Prussia, Plan of Aggrandisement proposed for	261
Lynn, J. Blair	571	Pseudo-Dauphin	85
		Purple Emperor, Account of the	732
Macdonald Lieut.-Col.	684	Quakers, Controversies among the	148-149
McGregor James	804	Discipline of the	148
McKinnon, Daniel, Esq.	50		
Maclean C. M. D.	18	Rackett, Rev. Thomas	769-770
Macklin Andrew	606	Raising the Siege of Leyden, Account of the	240
Magens, M. Dorrien, Esq.	292	Redesdale, Right Hon. Lord	268
Malkin, Benj. Heath, Esq.	390-605	Religion, State of, at Paris	66
Maltese, the, Humanity of	217	Render Dr.	407
Manning, Rev. Owen	563	Repton, Humphrey, Esq.	679
Marshall Mr.	702	Revolution in Poland, Account of the	201
Marsh, William Heath, A. M.	334	Richards, George, M. A.	585
Martin, Matthew, Esq.	304	Richardson, William, M. A.	109
Martin Samuel, D. D.	126	Richardson's Clarissa, Critique on	591
Maseres Baron	867	Rickman, Thomas Clio	572
Mason, James, Esq.	286	Ring John	777
Maton, William George, M. D.	770	Rogers, Thomas, M. A.	132
Maugin Edward	526	Roman Roads in England	373
Mayo, Charles, L.L. B.	197	Roman Slave Trade in Britain	321
Mercer, James, Esq.	561	Rookan the, a Poem	595
Miles Mr.	284	Rowley William, M. D.	781
Mississippi, Navigation of the	14	Roxburgh William, M. D.	769
Molineux T.	460	Rudge, Edward, Esq.	773
Montague, Basil, Esq.	649	Rudge, Rev. Thomas	368
Montague, George, Esq.	767-770	Rumford, Count of	871-873
Montefiore Joshua	322	Russell, Patrick, M. T.	873-876
Montesquieu's Spirit of Laws, Remarks on	216		
Morasses, Reclamation of	703	Salisbury, Richard Anthony, Esq.	772
Moriarty, M. D.	814	Saunterer, the, a Poem	563
Mountains of the United States described	5	Schoberl Fred.	544
Murray Lindley	466-468	Scott, John Robert, D. D.	652
Myxine Glutinosæ, Account of the	726	Scott, Walter, Esq.	555-599
		Seward Anna	488
Natchez, the Customs of	196	Shaw, George, M. D.	720
Nattes, John Claude	437	Sheffield Lord	262
Neale Adam	708	Shepherd Revett	768
Newton Rev. T.	866	Simile from Du Bartas	676
Northmore Thomas	326	Skinner, Matthew, M. A.	140
		Smith Charlotte	463
Ode to the Crow	577	Smith, James Edward, M. D.	755, 717, 773-4
Ogham Characters	412	Smith Joseph	287
Ogilvy David	437	Socrates, the Death of, related by Plato	339
O'Halloran, S. Esq.	271	Sonnet	577
Opitz, Martin, Account of	48	Spallanzani Lazarus	830
Ossian, the Poems attributed to discussed	163	Spencer, W. R. Esq.	574
		St. Denis, Abbey of, in ruins	57
Paris, striking View of	59	Sully and the great Pitt, compared	658
Parkinson James	904		
Park E.	568	Taylor Joseph	459
Parnell, Henry, Esq.	293	Taylor Thomas	336-337
Parochial Management of the Poor	699	Teignmouth Lord	480
Patterson, Lieut.-Col.	447	Tennant, Rev. W.	658
Pearson, Richard, M. D.	797	Tennant, Smithson, Esq.	877
Pekin described	71	Thompson, Benj. Esq.	605
Pennant, Thomas, Esq.	381	Thomson, William, Esq.	631
Percival, Capt. Robert	34	Thornhill, R. B. Esq.	717
Petre Lord	283	Thornton Colonel	416
Phillips John	917	Thunberg, Sir Chas. P.	772
Pike Fishing	418	Tighe, Robert Sterne, Esq.	278

	Page		Page
Tingry, P. F. ———	901	Whale Fishery ———	31
Tomlinson, Robert, Esq. —	107	Whately Thomas ———	848
Tooke, Rev. William ———	135	Whitaker George, A. M. —	351
Toulmin, Joshua, D. D. ———	137-141	White, Joseph, S. T. P. ———	97
Tournament, modern ———	47	Wild James ———	605
Trotter, Thomas, M.D. ———	809	Wilkinson Charles ———	218
Tuckey, Lieut. J. H. ———	12	Williams, Rev. David ———	245
Tuileries, the, described ———	61	Williams T. H. ———	446
Turner, Dawson, Esq. ———	739, 778, 774	Wilson, A. Phillips, M. D. ———	794
Unicorn, Description of the ———	36	Wilson, Lieut.-Col. Sir R. T. —	312
Urquhart, Sir Thomas, Account of —	495	Witherby Thomas, ———	618
Vaillant, Errors of, exposed ———	23	Witsius, Herman, D. D. ———	125
Vanderkemp, Theodosius, Account of —	623	Wood, Rev. William ———	153
Volcano Bay, Inhabitants of, described —	91	Woodcock, the, Account of ———	734
Volney C. F. ———	2	Woodhouse James ———	596
Wakefield Priscilla ———	440	Woodhouse, R. M. A. ———	874
Warner, Rev. Richard ———	128-136	Wolff, Christian, Account of —	48
Warren Edward ———	568	Wollaston, W. H. M.D. ———	875
Watson, Richard, Bishop of Landaff —	140	Wyvill, Rev. Christopher ———	283
Watt, Gregory, Esq. ———	874	Yorke Henry Redhead ———	88
Webster John ———	869	Young Arthur ———	693
Wedderburne Serjeant ———	692	Young, T. M. D. ———	871
Welch Cottage ———	387	Young, Sir William, Bart. ———	207
Western Port, New South Wales, Description of ———	43	Zollikofer, Rev. George Joachim —	123

END OF THE THIRD VOLUME.

WORKS

PUBLISHED BY

LONGMAN, HURST, REES, AND ORME,

No. 39, PATERNOSTER - ROW,

SINCE THE PUBLICATION OF THE LAST VOLUME.

Parts VII. and VIII. price 18s. each in boards,
THE NEW CYCLOPEDIA; or UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY OF ARTS AND SCIENCES; formed upon a more enlarged plan of arrangement than the Dictionary of Mr. Chambers; comprehending the various articles of that work, with additions and improvements; together with the new subjects of Biography, Geography, and History; and adapted to the present state of Literature and Science.

BY ABRAHAM REES, D. D. F. R. S.

Editor of the last edition of Mr. Chambers's Dictionary, with the assistance of eminent professional gentlemen.

Illustrated with new plates, including maps engraved for the work by some of the most distinguished artists.

•• Eight Parts of this magnificent work being now before the public, which have obtained a very extensive circulation, the proprietors may be allowed to state the pretensions which recommend the undertaking to the notice of the public, and render it worthy of their patronage.

1. The plan of this is intended as an improvement upon similar publications, being a medium between the plan of a dictionary and that of treatises, and comprehending the advantages of each. The history and outlines of each science are given under its appropriate title, and its various divisions, which can be more satisfactorily explained in separate articles, than in the body of a treatise, are introduced under their respective terms. This is indeed the only proper plan of a dictionary intended for reference when information is required, which is expected to be found under its most ready and familiar term in the alphabet.

2. The Editor is of acknowledged learning and industry, and of unquestionable experience in this department of literary labour; the greater part of his life having been employed in editing and improving the last edition of Mr. Chambers's Dictionary, and in collecting materials for the present work.

3. Among the gentlemen who have engaged to contribute their assistance to this work, are many of distinguished eminence, as will appear from the following list:

J. Abernethy, esq. F. R. S.
Mr. Arthur Aikin.
C. R. Aikin, esq.
Mr. E. Aikin.
R. Bland, M. D. A. S. S.
C. Burney, Mus. D. F. R. S.
William Blair, esq. A. M.
Mr. John Bonnycastle.
Mr. Britton.
Astley Cooper, esq. F. R. S.
Mr. Bracy Clark, F. L. S. veterinary sur.
Mr. E. Donovan, F. L. S.
R. W. Dickson, M. D.
Humphrey Davy, esq.
Mr. Henry Ellis.
John Flaxman, esq. R. A.
Mr. Fletcher, lecturer at the Royal Instit.

Rev. Mr. Hincks, of Cork.
Mr. P. Kelly.
William Morgan, esq. F. R. S.
James Macarney, esq.
Andrew Mackay, LL. D. F. R. S. Edin.
George Nayler, esq. F. R. S. York Herald.
Mr. Mushett, Calder Iron Works.
Mr. Peter Nicholson.
John Opie, esq. R. A.
Richard Pearson, M. D. F. S. A.
Mr. W. Symonds.
Rev. William Tooke, F. R. S.
Sharon Turner, esq. F. S. A.
Mr. C. Taylor, Society of Arts.
Mr. J. Thomson.
Rev. W. Wood, F. L. S.

And the list is continually augmenting, no opportunity being neglected to engage the co-operation of any gentleman whose services can be of real utility.

4. The work is handsomely printed by Andrew Strahan, esq. printer to his Majesty, upon a fine yellow wove paper.

5. The embellishments are of a very superior description, and will form, when completed, an incomparably more elegant and correct set of scientific and other plates than has ever been produced. The scientific subjects are engraved by Mr. Lowry, whose accurate knowledge and improved method of execution, in this branch of the art, have not been equalled. The subjects of natural history, &c. are chiefly engraved by Milton, with corresponding taste and beauty.

6. The Drawings are almost wholly new. The Plates which are already engraved are from drawings by Messrs. Flaxman, Howard, Duppa, Stubbs, Lowry, Edwards, Donovan, Sow-erby, Strutt, Musbrett, E. Aikin, P. Nicholson, Daniel, Naylor, Anderson, Kirkman, &c.

7. The Maps will be double the size usually given in similar publications, and are drawn and engraved under the direction of Mr. Arrowsmith.

8. A part, or half volume, price 18s. each, has hitherto been published once in about four months; and, in consequence of some arrangements lately adopted, the public may with confidence rely upon a more frequent publication.

9. A few copies are printed off on royal paper, with proof impressions of the plates, price 11. 10s. each part.

II.

A TOPOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTION of the PLAIN and SITE of TROY; together with such parts of the coast of Phrygia Minor as have been objects of criticism. Dedicated, by permission, to her grace the dutchess of Devonshire.

By WILLIAM GELL, esq. B. A. F. A. S.

Late Fellow of Emanuel College, Cambridge.

In folio, price 10l. 10s. in boards.

In the work will be given about 45 etched and coloured plates, taken from accurate drawings made on the spot by the Author, and chiefly engraved by Mr. Medland. Each plate will have its appropriate letter-press description, in which every precaution will be taken to render the subject intelligible to the reader. The work is designed to afford an opportunity to such as have not visited the country, of forming their own opinions of the topography of Homer. Those verses of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* will also be cited, which describe, or appear to describe, the particular portions or monuments of the *Troad*. The views will consist of a delineation of the whole coast of Phrygia, from Antandros, in the gulph of Adramyttium, to the vale of Thymbra on the Hellespont, after which the following will be given, to assist in forming an exact idea of the immediate vicinity of Troy.

View of the mouth of Simoeis and Scamander.

View of the junction of these rivers.

View of the ford of Scamander.

View, three feet in length, exhibiting the whole plain from the tomb of Antilochus

View of the tomb of Antilochus.

View of the tumulus of Achilles.

View from the summit of the tumulus of Achilles.

View from the tumulus of Æscyes.

View of the modern ford of Simoeis.

View of the site of Troy

View of the warm springs of Scamander.

Side view of the hill of Troy.

View of Bounarbashi.

View westward from Bounarbashi.

View north-east from Bounarbashi.

View of the hill from the Aga's house of Bounarbashi.

View of the road to the west of Troy.

View of the tumuli in the Acropolis.

View, three feet in length, of the plain from the Acropolis.

View of the foundations in the Acropolis.

View of the vale of Simoeis behind the Acropolis.

View of a deep ravine on the east of the Acropolis.

View of the foundations of the walls of the Acropolis.

View of Acropolis from the vale of the Simoeis.

Map of the site of Troy.

III.

A SERIES OF ENGRAVINGS to illustrate the *ILIAD* and *ODYSSEY* of HOMER; from the compositions of

JOHN FLAXMAN, R. A. Sculptor to the King.

A new edition, with additional plates, price 2l. 2s. each in boards.

For this edition new engravings of the *Odyssey* have been made, under the designer's inspection, and are now published in England for the first time; it is to be observed that the Italian, French, and German editions are copies from this, the original work.

For the accommodation of those who purchased the former edition of the *Iliad*, the additional plates for that work will be sold separately.

These works altogether consist of 85 prints (eleven of which are from new designs) representing in regular succession the stories of the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*, with descriptions of their subjects and extracts from Pope's translation upon each plate. The dresses, habits, armour, implements of war, furniture, &c. are all of classical authority.

IV.

The **COMPLETE NAVIGATOR**; or an easy and familiar Guide to the Theory and Practice of Navigation, with all the requisite Tables, &c. &c.

By ANDREW MACKAY, LL. D. F. R. S. Edin. &c.

Author of the Theory and Practice of finding the Longitude at Sea or Land, &c.

In one large volume 8vo. illustrated with engravings, &c. price 10s. 6d. bound.

The utility of the art of navigation to every commercial and maritime state is obvious; but to none more so than to Britain; and as the lives and fortunes of many depend upon the accuracy of the rules and tables given in the books published on this subject, the greatest care imaginable ought, therefore, to be taken, in order to have them correct. This is not the case, however, with some of the most popular books, of which a few instances are pointed out in the preface to the present work, and which was one of the principal reasons for embarking in this undertaking. The author has spared neither labour nor expence to render it deserving of the public attention, and as perfect as possible. The work is divided into six books, in the following manner:

Book First contains definitions and principles necessary as an introduction to navigation. An account of the various instruments which have been proposed to ascertain the distance run in a given time. The description of a steering compass. An account of the tides, with various methods of finding the time of high water at any given place. The description of Gunter's scale. A few of those definitions and propositions in geometry necessary to understand the theory of navigation; and plane trigonometry.

Book Second contains the several sailings commonly used in navigation. The five first of these sailings, namely, Plane, Traverse, Parallel, Middle Latitude, and Mercator's Sailings, are resolved by construction, calculation, inspection, and by Gunter's scale. The other sailings being less used, are, therefore, only resolved by the two first of these methods. To this second book are added the manner of constructing both plane and Mercator's charts.

The Third Book contains the description, rectification, and manner of using Hadley's quadrant and sextant; together with the method of finding the latitude and longitude of a ship at sea, and the variation of the compass, from observation.

In the Fourth Book is an account of a sea journal, with precepts for performing the same, exemplified in a journal proper for a long voyage.

The Fifth Book contains the application of trigonometry to the mensuration of heights and distances. The manner of surveying coasts and harbours, illustrated by an example. An account of the winds. On predicting the weather.

Book Sixth contains the tables, which are more extensive than in any other book upon navigation, with an explanation prefixed.

"From Dr. Mackay's well-earned fame as a mathematician and astronomer, and from the specimen which he has given of his practical knowledge of nautical science, we, of course expected, that a regular treatise of navigation from his pen, would be a valuable acquisition to seamen, and the work before us fully answers our expectations. It is a clear, well digested and masterly performance, containing, besides what is useful in other publications, much new and important matter. We cannot conclude without repeating our decided opinion of the great and uncommon merit of the present work. This publication, and that on the longitude by the same author, form the most correct and practical system of navigation and nautical science hitherto published in this country; they may be considered not only of individual utility, but of national importance."—*Anti-Jacobin Review*, Sept. 1804.

"This is evidently the work of a man of science, of one who understands the subject which he professes to teach. To us there appears to be nothing wanting for the complete instruction of the young mariner in nautical affairs. The elementary principles are laid down with clearness, and with as much conciseness as is consistent with perspicuity."—*Imperial Review*, Aug. 1804.

V.

A Collection of **MATHEMATICAL TABLES**, for the use of Students in Universities, and Academies, for the Practical Navigator, Geographer, and Surveyor, and for men in business, &c.

By ANDREW MACKAY, LL. D. &c.

Author of the *Complete Navigator*, &c. In one vol. 8vo. price 7s. in boards.

VI.

THE SHOOTING DIRECTORY.

By R. B. THORNHILL, esq.

Vide! Lege! Crede!

In one volume 4to. with plates, price 1l. 11s. 6d. in boards; also a superior edition, with the plates coloured after nature, price 3l. 3s. in boards.

The attention of every sportsman is requested to this work, as it will be found to be the completest compilation yet published on Shooting, to which it is entirely confined. It is embellished with engravings by Medland, the designs of which were taken from life on the ground.

It treats largely and minutely on the following subjects: dogs, table of British dogs, management of ditto, breeding of ditto, pointer, setter, spaniel, cocker, grouse, partridge, pheasant, woodcock, snipe, hare, fowling-piece, recoil, range of barrels, loading of ditto, scattering of ditto, double ditto, patent breech, gunpowder, shot, game laws, bustard, partridge, pheasant and hares; stealing of dogs, duty on ditto, distemper, shooting, and a great number of very valuable receipts, and various other subjects too numerous to come within the limits of an advertisement; and it is to be hoped that, after a perusal of this work, the price will be considered small, when compared with the prices of all the other publications on this subject.

VII.

LETTERS on the MODERN HISTORY and POLITICAL ASPECT of EUROPE; exhibiting the nature, causes, and probable consequences, of the grand contest between Great Britain and France, and the political circumstances of the different nations which compose the European system. With an investigation of the political and commercial importance of Egypt, and the consequences that might result from the annexation of that country to the dominions of France. Illustrated with historical and geographical observations.

By JOHN BIGLAND.

In one volume 8vo. price 7s. in boards.

VIII.

THE LOUNGER'S COMMON-PLACE BOOK, or Miscellaneous Collections, in History, Science, Criticism, Poetry, and Romance.

In three large volumes, 8vo. price 1l. 11s. 6d. in boards.

"To catch ere it perish the trifle of the minute, to give hasty sketches of men and things, which though beneath the dignity of a biography, deserve to be recorded; to select from the scene before us whatever appears curious, amusing, or applicable to the purposes of human life, is attempted in this work."

IX.

MISCELLANEOUS PLAYS. By JOANNA BAILLIE,

Author of "a Series of Plays on the Passions."

In one vol. 8vo. price 9s. boards.

X.

An Account of a VOYAGE to establish a COLONY at PORT PHILIP in Bass's Strait, on the south coast of New South Wales, in his Majesty's ship *Calcutta*, in the year 1802, 3, 4.

By J. H. TUCKER, esq. first lieutenant of the *Calcutta*.

In one volume 8vo. price 2s. in boards.

XI.

THE ENGLISH DRAMA; or a Collection of Plays of the most celebrated Authors: with critical and biographical essays, and an historical Inquiry into the Drama and the Stage. The First Volume.

A finely engraved portrait of each author, from the most authentic sources, to be hereafter prefixed to the life of its appropriate original, will accompany most of the volumes; and every play will be enriched by a highly finished engraving upon the first page, illustrative of its subject, from paintings by the best artists. The following have already produced pictures for the work; namely, Smirke, R. A. Stothard, R. A. Westall, R. A. Tresham, R. A. Thompson, R. A. and Howard, A. R. A. which are in the hands of the following Engravers, Heath, Anker Smith, Parker, Raimbach, Warren, Neagle, Cromeck, Noble, Delatre, Evans, Hopwood, and Fidler, and other artists of celebrity will be employed.

The work is very handsomely printed by Ballantyne, Edinburgh, upon the best paper, in crown 8vo. and a few copies in a most splendid manner, with proof plates, in royal 8vo. Each volume will contain three plays. The price of the crown is 10s. 6d. and of the royal 18s. each volume.

A prospectus of the work may be had at the publishers', where specimens may be seen.

XII.

NORTH WALES; including its Scenery, Antiquities, Customs, and some Sketches of its Natural History; delineated from two excursions through all the interesting parts of that country, during the summers of 1798 and 1801;

By the Rev. W. BINGLEY, A. M.

Fellow of the Linnean Society, and late of Peterhouse, Cambridge.

In two volumes 8vo. illustrated with a new and accurate map, frontispieces, and several favourite Welsh airs. Price 11. 1s. in boards.

This work, though written in an entirely different style, is intended to answer the same purpose, with respect to North Wales, for which the late Mr. West published his celebrated "Guide to the Lakes."

Criticism on Mr. Bingley's Tour round North Wales in 1798, the work on which the present volumes are founded.

"We have no hesitation in declaring that these volumes deserve to be ranked among the best performances of the kind; nor will any one hereafter act wisely, who should visit North Wales, without making them his companion. They bear every internal mark of diligent investigation and present research; nor did the writer disdain any personal fatigue or inconvenience by which he might obtain information, or promote the more accurate knowledge of the places and manners he professes to describe"

British Critic, Sept. 1800.

For equally high characters see the Anti-Jacobin Review for August, 1800; the Critical Review for September, 1800; the New Annual Register, for 1800; and the Supplement to the Monthly Magazine, vol. 10.

XIII.

THE SCENERY, ANTIQUITIES, and BIOGRAPHY of SOUTH WALES, from materials collected during two Excursions in the year 1803.

By BENJAMIN HEATH MALKIN, esq. M. A. F. S. A.

In one large volume quarto, illustrated with views drawn and engraved by La Porte, and a map of the country. Price 21. 12s. 6d. in boards.

A few copies may be had with the Views finely coloured by La Porte.

Price 41. 4s. in boards.

XIV.

THE HISTORY of CANADA, from its first discovery, comprehending an account of the original establishment of Louisiana.

By GEORGE HERIOT, Esq.

Deputy Postmaster general of British America, &c. &c.

In one volume octavo. Price 12s. in boards.

XV.

THE HISTORY of the REVOLUTIONS of RUSSIA, to the accession of Catherine the First, including a concise review of the manners and customs of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

By HENRY CARD, of Pembroke College, Oxford.

Dedicated by permission to Lord HENRY PETTY, M P.

The second edition, in one large volume 8vo. price 12s. in boards.

XVI.

HISTORICAL OUTLINES of the RISE and ESTABLISHMENT of the PAPAL POWER; addressed to the Roman Catholic Priests of Ireland.

By HENRY CARD, of Pembroke-college, Oxford.

In 8vo. price 3s. 6d.

XVII.

THE LETTERS of JOHN WILKES, esq. addressed to his Daughter, the late Miss Wilkes, from the year 1774 to the year 1796. To which is prefixed a Memoir of the Life of Mr. Wilkes, with a Collection of his miscellaneous Poems.

In four vols. foolscap 8vo. price 11. 1s. in boards.

Embellished with portraits of Mr. and Miss Wilkes, from original paintings by Zoffani.

Contents.

Vol. 1. The life of Mr. Wilkes, and poems, many from original MSS. not before printed.

2. Letters addressed to Miss Wilkes from Brighton and from Bath in the years 1774 to 1783.

3. Letters addressed to Miss Wilkes at Paris, whilst on a visit to the Duchess de la Valliere, from 1783 to 1789.

4. Letters addressed to Miss Wilkes, from Sandham, in the Isle of Wight, from 1789 to 1796, with Mr. Wilkes's introduction to his History of England.

XVIII.

NAVAL and MILITARY MEMOIRS of GREAT BRITAIN, from 1727 to the conclusion of the American war in 1783.

By ROBERT BEATSON, esq. LL. D.

Author of the Political Index to the Histories of Great Britain and Ireland.

The second edition, in 6 vols. 8vo. price 3l. 3s. in boards.

Criticisms on the first edition of this work.

"Capt. Beatson is already known as the author of the Political Index to the History of Great Britain and Ireland. The present publication is of a higher kind. We are now to regard him as contributing not only to the information but to the amusement of the public; and since he has exerted his attention and diligence for so commendable a purpose, we cannot but wish him success. His work bears the marks of veracity and a constant attention to the authenticity of the materials which he has industriously collected. The narrative is frequently intermingled with observations and reflections, which indicate the man of virtue and of public spirit. As we have perused these volumes with satisfaction, we are led to conclude that they will be acceptable not merely to those who are intimately conversant with military and naval affairs, but also to the public at large. We regret that the limits to which our work is confined, will not allow us to lay before our readers many interesting particulars which might be easily selected from these volumes: but we hope that the few which we have extracted from this entertaining work, will not be unacceptable to our readers, and especially to the gentlemen of the navy."—*Monthly Rev. Feb. and March, 1791.*

"The interesting nature of this work has forced us to exceed our intended limits; but we hope that our extracts will prove neither unentertaining nor unimportant. To the design and to the execution we must give applause, as being in no mean degree useful and meritorious. It is a work of utility and merit; and we shall be glad to see the remaining three volumes."—*Critical Review, April and May, 1791.*

XIX.

The PRINCIPLES of MORAL SCIENCE. By ROBERT FORSYTH, esq. Advocate.

In one volume 8vo. price 10s. 6d. in boards.

XX.

MEMOIRS of the LIFE of AGRIPPINA, wife of Germanicus.

By ELIZABETH HAMILTON, author of "Letters of a Hindoo Rajah."

In 3 volumes crown 8vo. price 18s. boards.

XXI.

A Compendious VIEW of UNIVERSAL HISTORY, from the year 1758 to the treaty of Amiens in 1802; with notes to verify or elucidate the passages to which they refer.

By CHARLES MAYO, LL. B.

Rector of Bechin Stoke and Hlewish, in the county of Wilts.

In 4 volumes, royal quarto, price 5l. 5s. boards.

XXII.

SPORTING ANECDOTES, original and select; including characteristic sketches of eminent persons who have appeared on the turf; with an interesting selection of the most extraordinary events which have transpired in the sporting world; a correct description of the animals of chase, and of every other subject connected with the various diversions of the field.

By an AMATEUR SPORTSMAN.

In one volume 8vo. embellished with engravings, price 10s. 6d. in boards.

XXIII.

ELEMENTS of MECHANICAL PHILOSOPHY, being the substance of a Course of Lectures on that Science.

By JOHN ROBISON, LL. D.

Professor of natural philosophy in the university of Edinburgh, fellow of the royal society of Edinburgh, and of the imperial academy of sciences at St. Petersburg, and of the philosophical societies of Manchester and New York, &c. &c.

Vol. I., including Dynamics and Astronomy.

Handsomely printed in 8vo. containing nearly 800 pages letter-press, and illustrated by 22 copperplates, price 1l. 1s. in boards.

XXIV.

The EXPERIENCED MILLWRIGHT, or a treatise on the construction of the most useful machines, with the latest improvements. To which is prefixed a short account of the general principles of mechanics and of the mechanical powers.

By ANDREW GRAY, Millwright.

In one volume imperial 4to. illustrated with 44 engravings, price 1l. 15s. boards.

XXV.

OBSERVATIONS on the Formation and Management of useful and ornamental Plantations; on the theory and practice of Landscape Gardening; and on gaining and embanking land from rivers or the sea.

By **J. LOUDON**, Landscape Gardener.

XXVI.

A SYSTEM of **HERALDRY**, speculative and practical: with the true art of Blazon, according to the most approved heralds in Europe: illustrated with suitable examples of armorial figures, and achievements of the most considerable surnames and families in Scotland, &c. together with historical and genealogical memorials relative thereto.

By **ALEXANDER NISBET**, Gent.

The second edition, in 2 vols. folio, price 5l. 5s. in boards.

XXVII.

MEMOIRS of the **LIFE** and **WRITINGS** of the late Rev. and learned **HUGH FARMER**. To which is added a piece of his, never before published, printed from the only remaining manuscript of the author. Also several original letters and extracts from his Essay on the Case of Balaam, taken from his manuscript, since destroyed.

By the late **MICHAEL DONSON**, esq.

In one volume 8vo. price 3s. in boards.

XXVIII.

SERMONS on the Evils that are in the World, and on various other topics. From the German of the Rev. **G. J. ZOLLIKOFER**.

By the Rev. **WILLIAM TOOKE**, F. R. S.

In two large volumes, 8vo. price 1l. 1s. in boards.

The concurrent testimony of all the periodical journals, both at home and abroad, in favour of the sermons and devotions of this celebrated divine, not only on account of the unaffected and captivating strain of eloquence in which they flow, but for the benign and truly evangelical spirit with which they are animated, is sufficiently known. That they breathe the pure and genuine spirit of christianity, and exhibit religion to our view in a form the most animated and alluring, is indeed their peculiar praise, as thousands can happily testify, from their own experience of the cheerful and placid influence they have had upon their heart and life.

XXIX.

LECTURES delivered in the parish church of Wakefield, in the year 1802, on that part of the liturgy of the church of England contained in the morning prayer.

By **THOMAS ROGERS**, A. M.

Master of the grammar-school, afternoon lecturer of St. John's, and Sunday-evening lecturer of the parish church, in Wakefield.

In two volumes, crown 8vo. price 12s. in boards.

XXX.

SERMONS, delivered to the congregation of Protestant Dissenters at Call-lan-chapel, Leeds.

By **JOSEPH BOWDEN**.

In one volume, 8vo. price 7s. in boards.

XXXI.

SERMONS, chiefly occasional, on important subjects.

By **SAMUEL MARTIN**, D.D. minister of Monimail.

Dedicated to the right hon. Lady Napier. In one vol. 8vo. price 7s. 6d. in boards.

XXXII.

RURAL PHILOSOPHY; or **Reflections on Knowledge, Virtue, and Happiness**, chiefly in reference to a life of retirement in the country. Written on occasion of the late Dr. Zimmerman's discourse on Solitude.

By **ELIZABETH BATES**, esq.

The third edition, in one volume 8vo. price 7s. in boards.

"To those who are of a serious and religious turn of mind, these reflections will prove a grateful and valuable acquisition. We plainly perceive that Mr. Bates is a man who has both inclination and ability for the exertion of the powers of reason; he does not forget to give due weight to the representation of the service which may be rendered to the cause of religion, by the precept and example of the virtuous man in rural society. We coincide with him in most of his exemplifications of the duties and the utility of a life passed in retirement; and as we apprehend that too many per-

sons in such a situation require to be reminded of these truths, we recommend to them an attentive perusal of this well written and truly commendable volume."—*Monthly Review*, Sept. 1803.

"The argument enforced throughout is this: that there is no solid happiness without religion; and that the charms of retirement, unless they tend to improve the mind in piety and virtue, are unsubstantial and fallacious; but that, if entered upon with a proper disposition of mind, it will obviously improve us in true wisdom, and qualify us for that more durable condition in another world, to which all of us are hastening. This important doctrine is taught without the smallest tincture of fanaticism, and without the least asperity; but in grave, yet simple and impressive language.—The style is, at the same time, forcible and elegant: the volume, it is true, is no where enlivened by anecdote, but it is no where defaced by puerility; and in this, as well as other respects, is decidedly to be preferred to Zimmerman's popular work. We recommend, without hesitation, the perusal of this book to every description of readers, who will receive the best and most sagacious advice, delivered in the most pleasing manner."—*British Critic*, Sept. 1803.

XXXIII.

A VIEW of the Old and New Way of the DOCTRINE, DISCIPLINE and GOVERNMENT in the CHURCHES of CHRIST. Including remarks on Baptism, the Lord's Supper, the Plurality of Elders, their Ordination, &c.

By DAVID M'RAE, A. M.

In 12mo. price 2s. sewed.

"Be not wise in your own conceits."—Rom. xii. 16.

This publication is particularly recommended to all ministers of the gospel, to students in divinity, and especially to the attention of the churches lately formed in England and Scotland.

XXXIV.

SERMONS. By Sir H. MONCREIFF WELLWOOD, bart. D.D. and F. R. S. Edinb. One of the ministers of St. Cuthbert's, Edinburgh, and senior chaplain in ordinary in Scotland to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales.

In one vol. 8vo. price 8s. 6d. in boards.

XXXV.

The ANATOMY of the HUMAN BODY, containing the anatomy of the viscera of the abdomen, the parts in the male and female pelvis, and the lymphatic system. With an appendix.

By C. BELL,

Fellow of the royal college of surgeons of Edinburgh.

In royal octavo, embellished with engravings, price 15s. in boards.

XXXVI.

SURGICAL OBSERVATIONS; containing a classification of tumours, with cases to illustrate the history of each species; an account of diseases which strikingly resemble the venereal disease, and various cases illustrative of different surgical subjects.

By JOHN ABERNETHY, F. R. S.

Honorary member of the royal medical society of Edinburgh, and of the medical societies of Paris, Philadelphia, &c. assistant surgeon of St. Bartholomew's hospital, and teacher of anatomy and surgery.

In one volume 8vo. price 6s. boards.

XXXVII.

SYSTEM of MINERALOGY; comprehending oryctognosie, geognosie, mineralogical chemistry, mineralogical geography, and economical mineralogy.

By ROBERT JAMESON,

Regius professor of natural history, and keeper of the museum, in the university of Edinburgh, fellow of the royal and antiquarian societies of Edinburgh, of the Linnean society of London, honorary member of the royal Irish academy, of the mineralogical and physical societies of Jena, &c.

Vol. I. in 8vo. illustrated by 11 engravings, price 14s. boards.

XXXVIII.

A MINERALOGICAL DESCRIPTION of the COUNTY of DUMFRIES.

By ROBERT JAMESON,

Regius professor of natural history, and keeper of the museum, in the university of Edinburgh, F. R. S. Edin. &c.

In one volume octavo, price 6s. in boards.

XXXIX.

A TREATISE on the External Characters of FOSSILS. Translated from the German of **ABRAHAM GOTTLÖB WERNER**, counsellor of mines, professor of mineralogy, public teacher of the art of mining in the mine academy of Freyberg, and member of several learned societies.

By **THOMAS WEAVER.**

In one volume 8vo. price 8s. in boards.

XL.

A TREATISE on the Prevention of Diseases incident to Horses, from bad management in regard to stables, food, water, air and exercise. To which are subjoined observations on some of the surgical and medical branches of Farriery.

By **JAMES CLARK**, farrier to his majesty for Scotland.

The fourth edition, in one volume 8vo. price 8s. in boards.

XLI.

The Edinburgh MEDICAL and SURGICAL JOURNAL; exhibiting a concise view of the latest and most important Discoveries in Medicine, Surgery, and Pharmacy.

By a Society of Gentlemen in London and Edinburgh.

Published quarterly. Nos. 1 and 2, with engravings of subjects referred to in the work, price 3s. each.

This work will be published quarterly, in numbers; each number will consist of eight sheets of letter-press, with occasional copperplates, so that the four numbers of each year will form one large volume 8vo. The price of each number will be 3s. and to those who may find it most convenient to receive the volume annually, 12s. in boards.

XLII.

The DOMESTIC MEDICAL GUIDE; in two parts—Part 1. The Family Dispensatory, or a complete companion to the family medicine chest, &c.—Part 2. The modern Domestic Medicine: comprehending the most approved methods of treating and obviating the different diseases that assail the human frame; with the most important information relative to the cure of those chronic diseases which have generally been considered incurable.

By **RICHARD REECE, M. D.**

Late of St. Bartholomew's hospital, and the general infirmary at Hereford; fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons in London, author of the Medical and Chirurgical Pharmacopœia, &c.

The third edition, considerably enlarged and corrected, in one volume 8vo. price 8s. boards, or with a supplement on the venereal disease, price 9s. in boards.

XLIII.

AN ENGLISH SPELLING BOOK, with Reading Lessons adapted to the capacities of Children: in three parts, calculated to advance the learners by natural and easy gradations, and to teach orthography and pronunciation together.

By **LINDLEY MURRAY.**

Author of English Grammar adapted to the different classes of learners. Neatly printed in demy 18mo. price 1s. 6d. bound.

Also, price 6d. covered with marble paper, "Murray's First Book for Children."

"An English Spelling-Book from the author of the 'English Grammar,' will undoubtedly excite considerable expectation from those who have been in the habit of using the latter; and we doubt not that, in process of time, the spelling-book will have as many admirers as the grammar has already obtained. We are glad to see that Mr. Murray has been careful in the right division of the syllables in his spelling, and that he has not followed the example of others, by introducing into his book a mass of irrelevant matter."

Imperial Review, October, 1801.

"We have before had occasion to commend the useful labours of Mr. Murray; and this little work (the spelling-book) is an addition to them, which from its ease, clearness, and precision, will prove greatly serviceable to the tender age for which it is designed."

Monthly Mirror, October, 1804.

"Mr. Murray's successful exertions for the service of youth have been so often before us with applause, that we think it sufficient, on the present occasion, to announce the above publication, and to add, that it will not in any manner detract from the well-earned reputation of the author, in this department of literature."—Europ. Mag. Nov. 1804.

"With the great merit of Mr. Lindley Murray, in providing assistance for the instruction of youth, the public are well acquainted. He has now descended to the very elements of instruction, and with the same skill and judgment which he has displayed in his other attempts. We recommend to the public this most important little volume, as the only work with which we are acquainted, in the English language, for teaching children to read, written by a philosopher and a man of taste."—Literary Journal, Nov. 1804.

"Mr. Murray's elementary works have the sure merit of combining well directed efforts to train the infant mind to virtue, with the best means of imparting instruction to it. In

the spelling-book before us, this is particularly the case, and we can therefore safely recommend it as the best work of the kind which has lately fallen under our inspection."

Anti-Jacobin Review, Dec. 1804.

"We do not always think it necessary to employ our time in examining literary productions of so very humble a kind as spelling-books. The name of Lindley Murray, however, whom we have more than once had occasion to commend, arrested our attention. We find his present publication divided into three parts. In the latter class are several useful things, not commonly found in such works: for instance, reading lessons in italic, old english, and manuscript letters; explanations of the sounds of the letters, distinguishing the long and the short sounds of the vowels, and the anomalous sounds of all; and, finally, rules for spelling, very clearly and distinctly expressed."—*British Critic, Dec. 1804.*

XLIV.

SEQUEL to the ENGLISH READER; or, Elegant Selections in Prose and Poetry.

By **LINDLEY MURRAY,**

Author of "English Grammar, adapted to the different classes of learners."

A new edition improved, in one volume 12mo. price 4s. bound.

The present edition of this work has received the author's particular attention. Many of the pieces in the former edition are omitted, and others inserted which are of superior importance, or more interesting to young persons. The new edition contains also, in an appendix, biographical sketches of the authors mentioned in the "Introduction to the English Reader," the "English Reader" itself, and the "Sequel to the Reader," with occasional strictures on their writings, and references to the particular works by which they have been most distinguished.

XLV.

A new **TREATISE on the USE of the GLOBES**; or a philosophical View of the Earth and Heavens: comprehending an account of the figure, magnitude, and motion of the earth, with the natural changes of its surface, caused by floods, earthquakes, &c. Together with the elementary principles of meteorology and astronomy; the theory of the tides, &c. preceded by an extensive selection of astronomical, and other definitions; and illustrated by a variety of problems, questions for the examination of the student, &c. Designed for the instruction of youth.

By **THOMAS KEITH**, private teacher of mathematics, geography, &c.

In one closely printed volume, 12mo. with Copper-plates, price 6s. in boards.

XLVI.

A Collection of amusing little Stories and Conversations: To which is added, an Essay and progressive Method of construing French into English, designed for the use of young Persons beginning to learn the French language.

By **A. CIZOS.**

In two volumes, 12mo. price 9s. bound.

XLVII.

DELECTUS GRÆCARUM SENTENTIARUM, cum notis tum grammaticis, tum philologicis, in usum **TIRONUM ACCOMMODATIS**. Editio altera auctior.

By the Rev. **ST. JOHN PRIEST.**

In one volume octavo, price 4s. 6d. in boards.

XLVIII.

THE HISTORY of ENGLAND, related in familiar conversations, by a Father to his children: interspersed with moral and instructive remarks and observations, on the most leading and interesting subjects. Designed for the perusal of youth. By **ELIZABETH HELME.** In two volumes, 12mo. price 8s. bound, with frontispieces.

XLIX.

A **MANUAL of GEOGRAPHY for YOUTH of BOTH SEXES**; comprehending a concise description of the empires, kingdoms, states, provinces, &c. in the known world; with the government, customs, manners and religion of the inhabitants; their extent, boundaries, and natural productions, trade, manufactures, and curiosities, &c.; including the alterations made according to the latest treaties.

By the Rev. **THOMAS HARWOOD**, late of University College, Oxford.

In one volume, 12mo. price 3s. bound.

L.

An **ALPHABETIC KEY** to *Propria quæ Maribus, quæ Genus, and As in Præsentis*. containing all the examples declined and translated, with the rules quoted under each, and numerical references to the context.

By **JOHN CAREY, LL. D.**

Author of "Latin Prosody made easy," &c. In one volume 12mo. price 2s. 6d. bound.

L I.

DEFINITIONS, MAXIMS, PROVERBS, and PRECEPTS, on grammar, arithmetic, natural philosophy, geography, &c. proposed copies in penmanship, and for exercises in grammar and composition.

By JOHN HOLLAND.—Price 2s.

"This little pamphlet will be employed with advantage in schools. It is certainly a proper and rational idea, that children, in learning to write, should have some pleasing or instructive maxim given them as a copy, instead of those nonsense sentences which have usually been employed. Instruction conveyed in this manner always makes a deep impression."

Literary Journal, August 1804.

L II.

A GRAMMAR of the Greek Language, on a new and improved plan, in English and Greek. By JOHN JONES, member of the Philological Society at Manchester.

12mo, price 6s. in boards.

L III.

GREEK EXERCISES, in syntax, ellipsis, dialects, prosody, and metaphrass, (after the manner of "Clarke's and Mair's Introduction to the making of Latin,") adapted to the grammars of Elton, Wettenhall, Moore, Bell and Holmes. To which is prefixed, a concise but comprehensive syntax. By the Rev. WILLIAM NEILSON, Minister of Dundalk, Ireland.

In one volume, 8vo. price 5s. in boards, and with the key 8s.

L IV.

A NEW ITALIAN GRAMMAR, in English and Italian, on a plan different from any hitherto published; pointing out, in a clear concise manner, the best rules and the easiest method for the attainment of that elegant and harmonious language, equally calculated for the use of schools and private instruction. By GAETANO RAVIZZOTTI, Teacher of Languages. The third edition, considerably improved. In one volume, cr. 8vo. price 7s. 6d. sewed.

* * * This edition contains several valuable improvements and additions, particularly tables of all irregular verbs, and Italian dialogues, which will be found very useful to travellers; a collection of the best sentences and canzonettas from Metastasio; the flowers of poetry, chiefly from Dante, Petrarca, Tasso, Lorenzo de' Medici, Ariosto, &c. with notes, a system of mythology.

L V.

CHOIX de LITTERATURE.

Par M. DUFRÈNE. In one volume octavo, price 7s. 6d. in boards.

L VI.

M A D O C. A Poem.

By ROBERT SOUTHEY.

Elegantly printed by Ballantyne, with four beautiful vignettes,

In one large volume, 4to. price 2l. 2s. 0d. in boards.

L VII.

METRICAL TALES, and other POEMS, selected from the "Annual Anthology."

By ROBERT SOUTHEY.

Foolscap octavo, price 5s. 6d. in boards.

L VIII.

THE LAY of the LAST MINSTREL, a Poem

By WALTER SCOTT, Esq.

Elegantly printed by Ballantyne, in quarto, price 1l. 5s. in boards.

L IX.

POEMS. By CHARLES A. ELTON, Captain, 48th regiment. In one volume foolscap octavo. price 5s. in boards.

L X.

POEMS. By THOMAS BROWN, M. D. In two volumes foolscap octavo. Price 12s. in boards.

L XI.

ODE to Dr. THOMAS PERCY, lord Bishop of Dromore; occasioned by reading the Reliques of ancient English Poetry. In imperial quarto. price 7s. 6d. in boards.

L XII.

POEMS: and THEODORE, an opera. By the late J. H. COLLS.

In one volume, octavo, price 10s. 6d. in boards.

LXIII.

The TRIUMPH of MUSIC. A poem, in six cantos.
By **WILLIAM HAYLEY**, esq. In quarto. price 10s. 6d. in boards.

LXIV.

MAURICE, the RUSTIC, and other POEMS.
By **HENRY SUMMERSETT**.
In one volume foolscap octavo, price 4s. in boards.

LXV.

The FAMILIAR POEMS of ROBERT LLOYD.
A new edition,
Dedicated to William Henry West Betty, the Young Roscius.
Foolscap octavo, price 7s. 6d. in boards.

LXVI.

The CHAPLET, a collection of poems; partly original, and partly selected from the following authors:

Tickell
Shenstone
Southey
Campbell
Mrs. Opie
Mrs. Robinson
Cottle
Miss A. M. Porter
Cowley
Aikin

Cooper
Langhorne
Rev. Wm. Club
Rev. W. Beloe
Mrs. J. Cobbold
Mrs. J. Hunter
Sir W. Jones
Mrs. Barbauld
Rogers
G. Dyer

Beattie
Collins
Bidlake
Goldsmith
Pope
Johnson
C. Leftley, esq.
J. M. Good, esq.
Rowe
Hurdis, &c. &c.

At lucre or renown let others aim;
I only wish to please the gentle mind,
Whom Nature's charms inspire, and love of human kind.—Beattie.

Printed on superfine yellow woven paper, and embellished with two elegant engravings from
Designs by R. K. Porter, esq. pot 8vo. price 4s. 6d. in boards, and 18mo. price 3s. 6d.

LXVII.

ADELIN MOWBRAY; or, the Mother and Daughter. A Tale. By **Mrs. OPIE**.
In three volumes, 12mo. price 13s. 6d. in boards.

"We opened with great pleasure a new novel from the entertaining pen of Mrs. Opie, a lady whose uncommon talents do honour to her sex and country. She displayed in her pathetic tale of "the Father and Daughter" a power of working upon the passions we think unrivalled (perhaps with the single exception of Mrs. Inchbald) by any writer of the present day; nor has she failed to affect her readers with many heart-rendering scenes in the work before us."

Critical Review, February 1805.

"Upon the whole this work must be allowed to rank considerably higher than the ordinary productions of the same kind. The interest of the story is well preserved to the end. The incidents in general follow naturally from the causes assigned, and are wrought up with uncommon skill."

Literary Journal, February 1805.

LXVIII.

THE LAKE OF KILLARNEY: a novel. By **ANNA MARIA PORTER**, author of "Octavia," "Walsh Colville," &c. &c. In three volumes, 12mo. price 13s. 6d. boards.

LXIX.

THADDEUS of WARSAW: a novel. By **MISS PORTER**. The second edition, in four volumes, price 14s. in boards.

"This work has more merit than can be ascribed to the crowd of productions of this class, and inculcates virtuous and magnanimous sentiments. It is inscribed to Sir Sydney Smith, in a very neat and well managed address."

Monthly Review, Feb. 1804.

"Thaddeus is a work of genius, and has nothing to fear at the candid bar of taste; he has to receive the precious meed of sympathy from every reader of unsophisticated sentiment and genuine feeling."

Imperial Review, February 1804.

LXX.

AUBREY: a novel. By **R. C. DALLAS**, Esq. author of "Percival," &c. In four volumes, 12mo. price 18s. in boards.

"In saying that this production is superior to the generality of novels, we shall be thought by many to express ourselves but coldly of its merits. Aubrey does, in fact, deserve a higher

commendation. It is written with ease, and excites so much interest in the mind of the reader, as to hurry him past those errors, which perhaps upon a more minute investigation might deserve more censure, or challenge a more rigid criticism."

British Critic, Feb. 1805.

LXXI.

THE UNEXPECTED LEGACY: a novel. By MRS. HUNTER, of Norwich. In two volumes, 12mo. Price 9s. in boards.

LXXII.

THE NOBILITY of the HEART; a novel. By ELIZABETH ISABELLA SPENCE, author of "Helen Sinclair." In three volumes, 12mo. Price 13s. 6d. in boards.

LXXIII.

THE MYSTERIOUS VISITOR; or, Mary, the Rose of Cumberland: a novel.
By HENRY MONTAGUE CECIL.

In two volumes, 12mo. Price 9s. in boards.

LXXIV.

THE HONEYMOON, a comedy, as performed at the theatre royal Drury Lane.
By the late JOHN TOBIN, esq.—Price 2s. 6d.

LXXV.

TO MARRY, OR NOT TO MARRY, as performed at the theatre royal, Covent Garden.
Written by MRS. INCHBALD.—Price 2s. 6d.

LXXVI.

THE SCHOOL of REFORM; or, How to Rule a Husband; a comedy, in five acts, as performed at the theatre royal Covent Garden.
By THOMAS MORTON, Esq.—Price 2s. 6d.

LXXVII.

THE BLIND BARGAIN; or, Hear it Out, a comedy in five acts, as performed at the theatre royal Covent Garden.
By FREDERICK REYNOLDS, Esq.—Price 2s. 6d.

LXXVIII.

THE CABINET: a comic opera, in three acts, as performed at the theatre royal Covent Garden.
Written by THOMAS DIBDIN.—Price 2s. 6d.

LXXIX.

THE ENGLISH FLEET, in 1842; an historical comic opera, in three acts, as performed at the theatre royal, Covent Garden.
Written by THOMAS DIBDIN.—price 2s. 6d.

LXXX.

MATRIMONY: a petit opera, as performed at the theatre royal, Drury Lane.
Written by JAMES KENNEY, Author of "Raising the Wind," &c.—Price 1s. 6d.

LXXXI.

TOO MANY COOKS, a musical farce, in two acts, as performed at the theatre royal, Covent Garden.
By JAMES KENNEY, Author of "Raising the Wind," &c.—Price 1s. 6d.

LXXXII.

THE HONEST SOLDIER; a comedy, in five acts.
By the late JOHN COLLS.—Price 3s.

LXXXIII.

THE LADY of the ROCK; a melo-drame, as performed at the theatre royal, Drury Lane. By THOMAS HOLCROFT.—Price 1s. 6d.

LXXXIV.

A CONCISE STATEMENT of the Question regarding the Abolition of the Slave Trade, now under discussion in Parliament; with an appendix, containing a statement of the question of gradual and immediate abolition, and extracts from the writings of authors who have defended the Slave Trade. The third edition.—price 8s.

*. The appendix may be had separately.—Price 1s.

LXXXV.

THOUGHTS on the Formation of the Late and Present Administrations.

By Lord ARCHIBALD HAMILTON.—price 2s. 6d.

"The discretionary power of the crown in the formation of ministry, abused by bad or weak men, has given rise to a system which, without directly violating the letter of any law, operates against the spirit of the whole constitution."

Burke's Thoughts on the present Discontents.

LXXXVI.

TWO LETTERS addressed to a noble Lord on the Manufactures, Agriculture, and apparent Prosperity of Scotland; with a few Strictures on the Speculations, Morals, and Manners of the Nineteenth Century.—price 1s. 6d.

LXXXVII.

An ADDRESS to the Roman Catholic Nobility and Gentry of Ireland, on the tendency and effect of their particular doctrines and practices; with a dialogue between a popish priest and an acute Roman Catholic gentleman, on the subject of the address.

Second edition, enlarged and improved.

By a PROTESTANT. Price 2s.

LXXXVIII.

ENGRAVINGS, with a descriptive Account, in English and French, of EGYPTIAN MONUMENTS in the British Museum, collected by the Institute of Egypt, under the direction of Bonaparte, and surrendered to the commander in chief, Lord Hutchinson, by General Menou.

Under the patronage of his Majesty.

As the projects of Bonaparte for colonizing Egypt, have terminated with little other effect than to aggrandize Britain, except as they contribute to the advancement of learning; it is presumed that the monuments collected by the French Institute, and now placed in the British museum, will through the medium of accurate representations, most effectually promote this end.

Under this persuasion, it is conceived that such representations would be generally acceptable, and liberally encouraged; for, independent of the curiosity attached to the monuments themselves, or when considered as evidences of art in the wisest nation of antiquity, the sculptures they display, from their extent and importance, must render them to the learned an invaluable acquisition.

To our navy and army, through whose valour we possess them, they cannot but be deemed most singularly interesting, since the work proposed to represent them, will constitute to the world a glorious trophy of British prowess, which the vanquished themselves have been compelled to supply.

With this view, it is proposed to publish engravings of the several monuments which the Institute, sent from France for the purpose, had collected in Egypt, but which were surrendered under the 16th article of capitulation, by Menou, commander in chief, to Lord Hutchinson, by whose orders Colonel Turner received them from Fourier, the president, and brought them to England.

In the number of these monuments is the celebrated stone with the hieroglyphic, Egyptian, and Greek inscriptions, found at Rosetta; also the magnificent Sarcophagus from Alexandria, which Dr. Clarke, in his elegant work, entitled, "The Tomb of Alexander," has evinced from accumulated evidence, to have been the very coffin in which that Hero was enshrined.

The drawings have been made by Alexander with all possible fidelity, and are engraving by Mr. Medland in the best style of the art.

It may not be improper to add that, for the preservation of the Monuments represented in this publication, the sum of 8000*l.* has been granted by parliament; and that the edifice to be erected for the purpose is now building at the British Museum.

The whole collection is proposed to be included in about twelve numbers, at a guinea each; the first to be published on the first of May, and the rest at short intervals, the whole work being in great forwardness.

LXXXIX.

THE HISTORY of the ORKNEY ISLANDS: in which is comprehended, an account of the present, as well as their ancient state; together with the advantages they possess for several branches of industry, and the means by which they may be improved.

By the Rev. GEORGE BARRY, D. D.

Minister of Shapinsay.

WORKS IN THE PRESS.

I.

THE NATURE of THINGS, a poem, in six books, translated from the original Latin of Titus Lucretius Carus. With notes philological and explanatory, and Wakefield's corrected text of the original, reprinted by permission.

By JOHN MASON GOOD.

II.

LATium, or the **COUNTRY about ROME**.

Illustrated with twenty plates, one volume, quarto.

III.

AN ACCOUNT of the LIFE and WRITINGS of JAMES BEATTIE, LL.D. Professor of Moral Philosophy and Logic, in the Marischall College, and University of Aberdeen.

By SIR WILLIAM FORBES, of Pitsligo, Bart.

One of the executors to Dr. Beattie, including many of his original letters.

Embellished with an engraving, from a portrait of Dr. Beattie, by Sir Joshua Reynolds.

IV.

The **POEMS of OSSIAN**, containing the Poetical Works of James Macpherson, Esq. in prose and verse, with notes and illustrations.

By MALCOLM LAING, esq.

Two volumes, octavo. Printing by Ballantyne.

V.

REPORT of the HIGHLAND SOCIETY of SCOTLAND, respecting the authenticity of Ossian's Poems, drawn up by HENRY MACKENZIE, esq.

VI.

HISTORY of EGYPT, ancient and modern.

By JAMES WILSON, D. D. Minister of Falkirk,

Two volumes, octavo.

VII.

LECTURES on the BELLES LETTRES, &c.

By the late Professor BARROW, of St. Andrew's.

Three volumes, octavo.

VIII.

POEMS and PLAYS. By Mrs. WEST. Volumes III. and IV.

IX.

SPECIMENS of EARLY ENGLISH ROMANCES.

By GEORGE ELLIS, esq.

X.

SPECIMENS of the MODERN ENGLISH POETS: with preliminary remarks, &c.

By ROBERT SOUTHEY.

Designed as a sequel to the "Specimen of Early English Poets."

XI.

HISTORY of the MANNERS, RELIGION, GOVERNMENT, LAWS, LITERATURE, and LANGUAGE of the ANGLO SAXONS.

By SHARON TURNER, esq.

XII.

MEMOIRS of CHARLES MAURICE TALLEYRAND de PERIGORD, one of Buonaparte's principal secretaries of state, his grand chamberlain and grand officer of the Legion of Honour, ex-bishop of Autun, ex-abbe of Celles and of St. Dennis, &c. &c. &c. Containing the particulars of his private and public life, of his intrigues in Boudoirs as well as in CABINETS.

By the Author of "The Revolutionary Platarch."

"When men, thro' infamy, to grandeur soar,

"They light a torch to shew their shame the more."—YOUNG.

XIII.

MEMOIRS of MARMONTEL; containing his literary and political life, and anecdotes of the principal characters of the 18th century, including Voltaire, Rousseau, D'Alembert, Diderot, Cardinal Maury, Madame Pompadour, the Duke of Choiseul, the Mareschal de Richelieu, the Mareschal de Saxe, Cardinal Bernis, Lord Albermarle, the Prince of Kaunitz, Duke of Brunswick, Calonne, Necker, the Comte d'Artois, the late Queen of France, the King of Sweden, &c. &c.

XIV.

The PRACTICE of PHYSIC. By **EDWARD GOODMAN CLARKE, M. D.**
Author of *Medicines Praxeos Compendium*; of the Royal College of Physicians, London, and Physician to the Forces, &c. &c.

XV.

MORALITY of FICTION; or an enquiry into the tendency of fictitious narratives, with observations on some of the most eminent.

By **HENRY MURRAY**,
Author of "the Swiss Emigrants."

XVI.

The TWO MORLANDS, a Novel in four Volumes.

By **R. C. DALLAS, esq.**

XVII.

An INTRODUCTION to GEOGRAPHY and ASTRONOMY, by the use of the globes, and maps. To which are added, the Construction of Maps, and a table of the latitudes and longitudes of the places mentioned in the work.

By **E. and I. BRUCE**.

A new edition, considerably improved.

XVIII.

BELL's SURGERY; Volume II. containing the operations of surgery. Embellished with numerous engravings.

XIX.

A NEW LITERAL TRANSLATION, from the original Greek, of all the Apostolical Epistles. With a commentary, and notes philological, critical, explanatory, and practical. To which is added a History of the Life of the Apostle Paul.

By **JAMES MACKNIGHT, D. D.**
Author of "a Harmony of the Gospels," &c.

A new edition, in six volumes, octavo.

XX.

OCCASIONAL DISCOURSES on various subjects.

By the **REV. RICHARD MUNKHOUSE, D. D.**

Of the Queen's College, Oxford, and minister of St. John Baptist's Church, in Wakefield.
In three volumes, octavo, embellished with a portrait of the author.

XXI.

The third (and last) volume of the BEAUTIES of WILTSHIRE, displayed in statistical, historical, and descriptive sketches, interspersed with anecdotes of the arts.

By **JOHN BRITTON**.

Embellished with plates and a new map of the county.

XXII.

POPULAR EVIDENCES of NATURAL RELIGION and CHRISTIANITY

By the **REV. THOMAS WATSON**.

XXIII.

JOHN BULL, a comedy in five acts.

By **GEORGE COLMAN, esq.**

XXIV.

ESSAYS ON VARIOUS SUBJECTS.

By the **REV. J. FOSTER, F.R.S.**

XXV.

SERMONS on Education, on Reflection, on the Greatness of God in the Works of Nature, and the Government of the World, on Charity, and on various other Topics; from the German of the

Rev. George JOACHIM ZOLLIKOFER, Minister of the Reformed Congregation at Leipsick.

By the **REV. WILLIAM TUCKER, F.R.S.**

In two volumes.

